

PREPARING TEACHER CANDIDATES
AS PASSIVE TECHNICIANS,
REFLECTIVE PRACTITIONERS
OR TRANSFORMATIVE INTELLECTUALS?

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ABSTRACT

PREPARING TEACHER CANDIDATES AS PASSIVE TECHNICIANS, REFLECTIVE PRACTITIONERS OR TRANSFORMATIVE INTELLECTUALS?

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This dissertation study explores teacher roles a pre-service foreign language teacher education program at a public university in central Turkey prepares teacher candidates for using document reviews, in-depth interviews and classroom observations. Designed as a qualitative case study, this study also seeks to unearth the political-economical, sociocultural and institutional reasons behind the adoption of certain teacher roles: teachers as passive technicians, teachers as reflective practitioners and teachers as transformative intellectuals. In addition to surveying teacher roles in program documents, this dissertation reports the perceptions of students, teacher-educators, emeritus professors and program administrators as to teacher roles fostered in the program. Besides, this case study explores the daily reality of methodology and practice teaching courses.

The findings of the study suggest that the foreign language teacher education program does not have a specific mission. According to the document on program

outcomes, the FLE program aims to educate a reflective practitioner. The interview data and observation findings, however, demonstrate that even though there are some reflective dimensions of the FLE program, it seems to prepare teachers for becoming technicians more than it encourages them to become reflective teachers. The interpretation of findings from a critical perspective indicated that the technicist focus in the FLE program probably stems from the neoliberal economic policies adopted in Turkey. Turkish teacher education system shaped by the Council of Higher Education under the impact of international organizations seems to prefer to educate technician teachers discouraging them from taking active leading roles in the system.

Keywords: Teacher roles, pre-service foreign language teacher education program, critical pedagogy, qualitative case study, English language teaching.

ÖZ

ÖĞRETMEN ADAYLARINI
PASİF TEKNİSYEN OLARAK MI,
DÜŞÜNEN UYGULAYICI OLARAK MI,
DÖNÜŞTÜRÜCÜ ENTELEKTÜEL OLARAK MI YETİŞTİRİYORUZ?

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Bu doktora çalışması Türkiye'de bir devlet üniversitesinde yabancı dil öğretmeni yetiştiren bir lisans programında odaklanılan öğretmen rollerini araştırmaktadır. Niteliksel bir durum araştırması olarak dizayn edilen bu çalışmada doküman analizi, derinlemesine mülakatlar ve sınıf gözlemlerinden yararlanılmıştır. Bu çalışma aynı zamanda lisans programında üzerinde durulan öğretmen rollerinin arkasında yatan politik-ekonomik, sosyokültürel ve kurumsal sebepleri de gün yüzüne çıkarmaya çalışmaktadır. Çalışmada incelenen öğretmen rolleri *pasif* teknisyen olarak öğretmen, düşünen bir uygulayıcı olarak öğretmen ve dönüştürücü bir entelektüel olarak öğretmendir. Bu doktora çalışması, program dokümanlarında yer verilen öğretmen rollerinin yanında öğrencilerin, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin, emekli öğretim üyelerinin ve program yöneticilerinin de görüşlerine yer verir.

Çalışma, ayrıca, sınıf gözlemleri aracılığıyla metodoloji ve öğretmenlik uygulaması derslerinde odaklanılan öğretmen rollerini de araştırmaktadır.

Araştırma bulguları yabancı dil öğretmeni yetiştiren lisans programının belirli bir misyonu olmadığını göstermektedir. Program çıktılarını gösteren dokümana göre, yabancı diller eğitimi lisans programı düşünen bir uygulayıcı yetiştirmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Mülakat ve gözlem bulguları ise programın düşünen öğretmen yetiştirmeye yönelik yanları olsa da programın daha çok teknisyen öğretmen yetiştirmeye çalıştığını işaret eder gibi görünmektedir. Araştırma bulgularının eleştirel bir bakış açısıyla yorumlanması sonucunda yabancı diller eğitimi lisans programının öğretim tekniklerine odaklanmasının Türkiye ve dünyada benimsenen neoliberal ekonomik politikalardan kaynaklanıyor olabileceği sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Uluslararası kuruluşların etkisiyle Yüksek Öğretim Kurulu tarafından şekillenen Türkiye'deki öğretmen eğitimi sistemi, öğretmenlerin sistem içinde önderlik edici, aktif roller almasını istemeyerek daha çok teknisyen öğretmen yetiştirmeyi tercih eder görünmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Öğretmen rolleri, yabancı dil öğretmeni eğitimi lisans programı, eleştirel pedagoji, niteliksel durum çalışması, İngiliz dili öğretimi.

To Dreamers ...

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AKP	Justice and Development Party
CoHE	The Council of Higher Education
COTE	Certificate for Overseas Teachers of English
DP	Democrat Party
ELT	English Language Teaching
EU	European Union
FLE	Foreign Language Education
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
IMF	International Monetary Fund
KPSS	Standardized Exam for Selecting Public Employees
LGBT	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender
MoNE	The Ministry of National Education
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NEDP	National Education Development Project
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
PISA	Program for International Student Assessment
SBPD	School Based Professional Development
TÜİK	Turkish Statistical Institute
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
WB	The World Bank

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The roles teachers play seem to have intrigued human societies since the early civilizations. Probably the most well-known teaching controversy from the early human history is the role Socrates played as a teacher, which resulted in his execution. The basic discussion at the time revolved around the question of whether teachers should serve for the public good or work for the interests of the powerful. The same question is still being debated in the field of teacher education. The issue of roles for which teacher candidates are prepared has not been resolved yet.

This dissertation study explores such a long debated issue: teacher roles. It seeks to understand the teacher roles a pre-service foreign language teacher education program at a public university in central Turkey prepares teacher candidates for. Designed as a qualitative case study, this study aims to unearth the political-economical, sociocultural and institutional reasons behind the support for and adoption of certain teacher roles by situating the foreign language teacher education program in its historical background.

Kumaravadivelu (2003) brings a comprehensive categorization of teacher roles discussed in the literature: *teachers as passive technicians*, *teachers as reflective practitioners* and *teachers as transformative intellectuals*. Although each of these teacher roles already existed in the literature before Kumaravadivelu's (2003) categorization, his contribution is crucial because it allows the reader to see teacher roles in a holistic manner. Kumaravadivelu's (2003) categorization is particularly important for this dissertation because it was the main source of inspiration for this study.

For Kumaravadivelu (2003), *teachers as passive technicians* carry out the role of transmitting knowledge produced by experts without questioning the professional knowledge base or coming up with creative solutions for their own context (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). While this notion of teaching is disempowering for teachers, *reflective teachers* are seen as producers of knowledge and problem-

solvers. *Teachers as reflective practitioners* take initiative in school change efforts and in their own professional development (Zeichner & Liston, 1996). In addition to assuming such roles, *teachers as transformative intellectuals* work for creating a just and equal society because the aim of education is not only “to maximize learning opportunities but to transform life in and outside the classroom” (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 14).

To unveil the dominant teacher role(s) underscored in the foreign language education (FLE) program, this qualitative study benefits from document reviews, in-depth interviews and classroom observations. In addition to surveying teacher roles in program documents, this dissertation reports the perceptions of students, teacher-educators and administrators as to the type of teacher the program seeks to educate. Besides, this case study explores the daily reality of methodology and practice teaching courses to give an in-depth perspective through classroom observations, which were conducted in a span of two years between September 2012 and May 2014.

This dissertation study is designed as a qualitative case study. For qualitative researchers, understanding the context deeply at a particular period in time is critical (Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2013). Qualitative research paradigm is centered on the view that social reality is multiple and complex (Merriam, 2009). This is the reason why this study focuses on understanding how different individuals implementing and following the program construct reality from different angles. Besides, for qualitative research paradigm, "society does not exist in an objective, observable form" for discovery (Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2013, p. 6). Rather, people produce knowledge about the society in the light of their own worldviews. Hence, qualitative research recognizes the notion that both the participants and the researchers are subjective and have bias (Merriam, 2009). For qualitative researchers, it is not possible for researchers to distance themselves from their own worldviews neither in the planning phase nor in the interpretation period. In other words, subjective and personal orientation is intrinsic to qualitative work (Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2013).

In qualitative research, "the researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis" (Merriam, 2009, p. 7). For the major instrument in

qualitative research is human, "all observations and analyses are filtered through that human being's worldview, values and perspective" (Merriam, 2009, p. 22). The data analysis process depends on the investigator's intuition, sensitivity and analytical powers. Taking their frame of reference from the interpretations of the participants, researchers construct their own meaning from the available data. Thus, in the final product of a qualitative work, there are multiple layers of meaning, which brings the issue of subjectivity. Though subjectivity may be perceived as a threat to the well-being of a study, it is in fact what makes qualitative research unique (Merriam, 2009).

In qualitative research, the researcher acknowledges her own subjective position and should not refrain from using a first person discourse in the research report (Hatch, 2002). Therefore, as the researcher of the study, I should briefly introduce my positionality, stance and philosophy here. (The researcher's role is discussed in more detail in Chapter 5.2). I am a novice teacher educator working in the program I have investigated. When I started to conduct this research, I had been working as an instructor in the program for two years. Not having been trained originally as a teacher myself and having limited experience as a teacher educator, I did not have much insight as to the program I was working for, which was the main reason I conducted this study. The research process of this study enabled me to develop a better understanding of the program.

Born as the second daughter of middle-class parents and raised in a conservative family in a small town, I grew up questioning the restrictions I faced as a young girl living in a limited social sphere. With the help of some radical educators I encountered at high school and university, I became interested in critical theory. However, it was the process of conducting this study which broadened my theoretical knowledge and allowed me to uncover some of my own biases and assumptions as well as my contradictory beliefs. The personal transformation I have undergone while carrying out this study might also have had an indirect influence on this study. Because I was seeing the world from a more critical perspective, this changed worldview might have had an influence on the courses I taught and my interactions with my students.

Qualitative researchers use different philosophical frameworks from critical social theory to post-modernism, from social constructivism to constructivism to guide their research (Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2013). The philosophy that underpins this qualitative research is Critical Social Theory and its educational heir, Critical Pedagogy, which bore the concept of teachers as transformative intellectuals. I selected it as the theoretical framework of the study because it offered the most comprehensive research lens for the scope of the study.

Taking critical pedagogy as its theoretical lens, this dissertation will situate the case in its political and historical context. Savin-Baden and Howell Major (2013) state that the written product of a case study typically involves the "nature of the case, the historical background, the physical setting, other important contexts, such as economic, political and legal ones, other cases and the informants" (p. 153). This dissertation will attempt to do justice to all the elements of a case study. Therefore, this introductory chapter will describe major characteristics of the study. The second chapter will set the broader political, economical, historical and social context. The third and fourth chapters will give an in-depth discussion of the theoretical framework as well as other research studies in the literature. The fifth chapter will introduce the method of the research describing the participants. The sixth chapter, in turn, will present the analysis of document review. Chapter seven will depict the historical background of the case, the setting and the characteristics of teachers educated in the program as reported by interview participants. The eighth chapter will introduce the findings of observation analysis. The last chapter will interpret the findings and draw conclusions.

1.1 Teacher Roles Explored in the Study

This study explores teacher roles in the pre-service foreign language teacher education program in central Turkey based on Kumaravadivelu's (2003) categorization of teacher roles because it offers a comprehensive analytical tool in describing different teacher roles given to teachers. However, this categorization does not mean that these roles do not have overlapping characteristics. As Kumaravadivelu (2003) argues, these roles could be interpreted in a hierarchy, in which a teacher as a transformative intellectual includes some features of the

reflective practitioner and the characteristics of the reflective practitioner involves some aspects of the teacher as a passive technician. Therefore, Kumaravadivelu (2003) thinks it is useful to consider these three roles of teachers as relative tendencies rather than absolute opposites.

1.1.1 Teachers as Passive Technicians

The concept of teachers as passive technicians originates from the writings of American sociologist Donald A. Schön (1987), who criticized the traditional teacher education model as “technical rationality.” For Schön, this model of professional education assumes that all professional problems could be solved with the application of scientific facts, rules and procedures. In this approach to teacher education, all that practitioners have to do is to learn the results of scientific research and to put them into practice. However, Schön (1987) asserted that the current professional knowledge may not provide an answer to each and every teaching situation and there might not be a single right answer for each case (Schön, 1987). As this model is based on the premise that the findings of the scientific studies will answer all problems in practice (Wallace, 1991), trainee teachers’ success is measured in the extent to which they have put the professional knowledge base into practice.

Assuming that the only legitimate knowledge comes from empirical studies, this model of teacher education privileges the professional experts (Kumaravadivelu, 2003) leading to a hierarchy of knowledge production and consumption (Schön, 1987). Theory and research are considered to be the responsibility of university-based scientists and scholars where the practitioners are only given the role of passive technicians who learn the content knowledge available in the literature and pass it onto the following generations. They do not have any chance to use their own experience, creativity or critical reflection in practicing their profession even though they are the ones who know the requirements of their everyday classroom context in contrast to scholars who are usually detached from the classroom reality. The only role assigned to classroom teachers is to make sure that students comprehend the content knowledge without questioning the validity or relevance of that content knowledge to their students or to their context (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

As the above discussion demonstrates, this transmission approach disempowers teachers by reducing them to the role of passive practitioners who never use critical judgment. Suppressed by the system of teacher education, these student teachers find it difficult to find their own voices or styles in teaching and to develop their own philosophies of teaching based on their own experience and context. As Kincheloe (2008) suggests, technicist approach to teacher education renders teaching into a "lifeless" practice by killing the curiosity and creativity of teachers.

1.1.2 Teachers as Reflective Practitioners

As a reaction to the disempowering nature of the technicist view of teacher education, reflective teaching movement has appeared. According to reflective teaching, teachers are not passive consumers or transmitters of knowledge, but producers of knowledge offering solutions to the problems in their own setting (Zeichner & Liston, 1996). The roots of this movement can be found in the works of educational philosopher John Dewey, who makes a distinction between routine and reflective action (Dewey, 1933/1997). For Dewey, those teachers involved in routine action obey tradition and authority without challenging them. They lose their autonomy and decision making skills trapped in mechanical, habitual actions, which lead to burnout. However, those engaged in reflective action evaluate every idea by critical reasoning and look for different solutions in line with the demands of the situation. Reflective teachers take responsibility for their actions and consider alternatives rather than acting without thinking. Dewey (1933/1997) thinks teaching is not a routine sequence of pre-determined acts, but a context-sensitive creative intellectual activity in which teachers actively seek solutions to their everyday problems.

For Dewey (1933/1997), reflective teachers have three distinguishing characteristics: open-mindedness, responsibility and whole-heartedness. Open-mindedness means being tolerant towards different ideas and not seeing them as threats. Open-minded people evaluate their existing beliefs when they encounter new data and they are open to accepting the possibility of making mistakes. They are aware of the fact that they may not be right and they are not in a race to win a debate

(Larrivee, 2008). They can criticize themselves. Open-minded reflective teachers are ready to hear different views from their students and peers and they are capable of adjusting their beliefs and teaching styles according to the different conditions. Responsibility means "taking ownership for the consequences of one's actions" (Larrivee, 2008; p. 91). Responsible teachers are aware of the fact that even their good intentions may have unintended consequences for others and they act accordingly. Wholeheartedness is devoting oneself to improve a situation. Wholehearted reflective teachers look for different alternatives to help their students. They do not give up until they find a solution (Larrivee, 2008). Even when there is a lot of uncertainty, confusion and frustration, wholehearted teachers do not stop looking for answers.

Another important figure in reflective practice is Donald Schön, who built on the work of Dewey. Following Dewey, Schön (1987) believes that teachers are autonomous decision makers who learn to teach by practicing teaching and reflecting on their practice. For Schön (1987), classroom reality is full of unexpected problems and dilemmas. In order to solve problematic situations teachers might encounter every day, they need to engage in reflective action evaluating the context and coming to conclusions. When they come up with a solution, they need to test it and to reflect on the findings. For Schön (1987), reflection is a never ending process consisting of acting, observing, reflecting, inventing, and testing. Therefore, it is a process of continuous growth.

As reflective teaching became widely popular, confusion has emerged as to what it really means and it has started to be criticized as becoming a slogan word losing its essence (Burton, 2009). Zeichner and Liston (1996) warned that not every thinking about teaching can be considered as reflective "if a teacher never questions the goals and values that guide his or her work, the context in which he or she teaches, or never examines his or her assumptions" (p. 1). Therefore, they clarified what they meant by a reflective practitioner. For them a reflective teacher:

- examines, frames, and attempts to solve the dilemmas of classroom practice;
- is aware of and questions the assumptions and values he or she brings to teaching;

- is attentive to the institutional and cultural contexts in which he or she teaches;
- takes part in curriculum development and is involved in school change efforts;
- takes responsibility for his or her own professional development. (Zeichner & Liston, 1996; p. 6).

Even though reflective teaching movement has been very influential in the role and image of a teacher, it has also drawn some criticisms (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). As the main figure behind reflective teaching, Schön has been criticized for treating the teacher's learning process as an individual one in which the teacher is considered alone in evaluating his/her practice without paying attention to the interaction of that teacher with the social context or the people around him/her. Despite discussing the interaction between the student teacher and teacher educator, he doesn't focus on the teachers' collaboration in reflecting together or the dialogic conversations they have (Zeichner & Liston, 1996). For social-constructivist perspective of teacher education, however, teachers cannot reach the level of reflection they reach in a dialogic mediation when they are alone (Johnson, 2009; Vygotsky, 1986).

Another criticism for reflective teaching is related to its focus on the classroom setting alone without considering the broader sociopolitical factors that influence teachers and the institutional context they work in (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Schön is criticized for directing the attention on teachers' inward inspection and losing touch with the sociocultural reality. According to the critics, by focusing on their own role in the classroom alone, teachers are directed to play a submissive role in an education system which tries to suppress teachers to become technicians (Zeichner & Liston, 1996). Critics assert if teachers are not to become servants to those in power, they should empower themselves by questioning the purposes and consequences of the education system.

1.1.3 Teachers as Transformative Intellectuals

The notion of teachers as transformative intellectuals was suggested by Henry Giroux (1988), as a reaction to the attempts to devalue and deskill teacher work. For him, in the current political and ideological climate, teachers are reduced to the

status of technicians responsible merely for the implementation of curricular programs rather than developing those programs in line with the needs of their students or contexts (Giroux, 1988). He argues that this instrumental technocratic approach is also evident in the teacher preparation programs which focus on preconceived subject matter and methodology without letting student teachers discover teaching on their own. For Giroux (1988), by emphasizing “how to teach” a certain skill effectively, these programs do not direct students to see the underlying principles behind various theories, methods or techniques. This rationality, Giroux (1988) asserts, is also at work at the school setting, as teacher autonomy is limited with standardized “teacher-proof” curriculum packages, which makes it easier for the central management to control and direct teacher behavior. In this rationality, there is the illusion that all students will learn with the same materials and methodology regardless of their different backgrounds, experiences or talents (Giroux, 1988).

In order to reconceptualize teacher work, Giroux (1988) argues teachers should be seen as transformative intellectuals. By focusing on the notion of teacher as an *intellectual*, he underlines the fact that teachers are reflective practitioners who should take active part in curriculum development efforts. Even though his notion of a teacher as an intellectual corresponds with the definition of a reflective practitioner, Giroux thinks this is not the only role teachers should play. For Giroux (1988), teachers should also be *transformative* and challenge the social and political movements that “ignore the intelligence, judgment and experience that teachers possess” and that prevent teachers from preparing “active and critical citizens” (p. 121). The mission of teachers as transformative intellectuals is to “combine scholarly reflection and practice in the service of educating students to be thoughtful, active citizens” (Giroux, 1988; p. 122) for the well-being of democracy.

In fact, Giroux and McLaren (1986) gave a detailed explanation of the term transformative intellectual in their article. Because it is a crucial concept for the study, it is worth quoting them at length here:

By the term "transformative intellectual," we refer to one who exercises forms of intellectual and pedagogical practice which attempt to insert teaching and learning directly into the political sphere by arguing that

schooling represents both a struggle for meaning and a struggle over power relations. We are also referring to one whose intellectual practices are necessarily grounded in forms of moral and ethical discourse exhibiting a preferential concern for the suffering and struggles of the disadvantaged and oppressed. Here we extend the traditional definition of the intellectual as someone who is able to analyze various interests and contradictions within society to someone capable of articulating emancipatory possibilities and working towards their realization. Teachers who assume the role of transformative intellectuals treat students as critical agents, question how knowledge is produced and distributed, utilize dialogue, and make knowledge meaningful, critical, and ultimately emancipatory (p. 215).

To transform their students into critical agents of change, teachers as transformative intellectuals raise their consciousness about the political nature of schooling not to mention the social, economic and political inequalities it reinforces that exist in the society. (Giroux, 1988). In order for their students to work for emancipation, transformative teachers prepare both themselves and their students to struggle against oppression exploring the ways to deal with the risks. They motivate their students to develop a critical lens and to take action to fight against the injustice and exploitation at schools and in the larger world (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). On the other hand, teachers as transformative intellectuals make the subject matter more relevant to students' own experiences so that they are able to see the political and moral implications of their experience and to question their own assumptions (Giroux, 1988). Teachers as transformative intellectuals also give students voice in expressing their ideas and concerns so that they develop "a civic courage" to transform themselves, others and the society at large (Giroux, 1988; p. xvii). To put it in Giroux's words (1988, p. xxxiii), teachers as transformative intellectuals should "not only empower students by giving them the knowledge and skills they will need to be able to function in the larger society as critical agents, but also educate them for transformative action."

1.1.4 Discussion of Teacher Roles

As Kumaravadivelu (2003) noted, these teacher roles are not absolute opposites, but have some features in common. There is no doubt that teacher candidates should have a mastery of the existing language teaching methodologies

and they should make self-evaluations (Adler, 1990). They should learn the collective memory of the field not to reinvent the wheel and to be able to move beyond the existing pedagogical content knowledge. As Zeichner (2009) argued, critical education does not intend to devalue technical knowledge, reflective abilities or reflective teaching. These are all necessary for educating teachers. From a critical perspective, however, these are not sufficient. The knowledge base of teacher education should not be limited to general pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge or the subject matter knowledge (Zeichner, 2014). For critical pedagogues, all types of teacher knowledge as categorized by Shulman (1987) should be included in teacher education. To remind the reader of Shulman's (1987, p. 8) categorization, it included the following:

- 1) content knowledge,
- 2) general pedagogical knowledge,
- 3) curriculum knowledge,
- 4) pedagogical content knowledge,
- 5) knowledge of learners and their characteristics,
- 6) knowledge of educational contexts,
- 7) knowledge of educational ends, purposes and values and their philosophical and historical grounds.

Shulman (1987) came up with this categorization after years of observing novice and expert teachers and analyzing what knowledge teachers gained (or failed to gain). Despite providing a comprehensive description of teacher knowledge base, he warned that this categorization was not "fixed or final" (p. 12). Since Shulman's categorization, new models of teacher knowledge base have been offered (Turner-Bisset, 1999; Verloop, Van Driel & Meijer, 2001). Still, Shulman's is recognized as the main source of reference.

If parallelism is to be made between Kumaravadivelu's (2003) teacher roles and Shulman's (1987) categorization of teacher knowledge base, one might argue that a technicist view of teacher education focuses on items 1, 2 and 4 in the above list (i.e., content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge). Reflective teacher education, however, integrates these fundamental bases of teacher education with curriculum knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics and knowledge of educational contexts (i.e., all of the above

except for item 7). Critical teacher education, in turn, encapsulates all elements in Shulman's list with a specific focus on educational ends, purposes and values to educate teachers as transformative intellectuals. In this respect, it could be natural for teachers as transformative intellectuals to emerge as the broadest category of teacher roles in Kumaravadivelu's (2003) categorization.

Despite the all encompassing nature of the notion of *teachers as transformative intellectuals*, one might argue that it is not possible to address all of the items in Shulman's (1987) list in a pre-service teacher education program given the limited time and resources. One might even find it as luxurious or utopian to educate teachers as transformative intellectuals taking into consideration the big gaps in learners' content knowledge or pedagogical content knowledge. Though such an argument might have a point, a counter-argument would claim that a four year university level pre-service teacher education would not be complete without doing justice to all elements of teacher knowledge. While a short-term teacher-training course could prioritize some areas of teacher knowledge, a four-year university education cannot be reduced to a selection of elements from among the teacher knowledge base. Such a selection would "trivialize" teaching "ignoring its complexity" in Shulman's (1987, p. 6) words. On the other hand, as Kincheloe (2004) put it, it would be "naive and dangerous to think that teachers can become the rigorous professionals ... without a conceptual understanding of contemporary and past societies and the socio-cultural, political and economic forces that have shaped them" (p. 50). From a critical perspective, only through such an understanding can teachers develop new ways of teaching and advancing knowledge both for themselves and for their community (Kincheloe, 2004).

Besides, a university education based on a limited body of teacher knowledge could be considered as a violation of students' rights of getting a high quality education. As Liston, Whitcomb and Borko (2009) put it:

Candidates should not be trained or molded to get a particular educational path - at least not without their informed and educational consent. Today, however, many (certainly not all) university-based teacher candidates are being inculcated to see teaching and schooling within a dominant, progressive paradigm ... Candidates are prepared for a professional role that frequently does not match the realities of public

schooling. Future teachers' education should include .. an examination of their own personal and professional values as well as the larger educational and cultural values. The education we offer our candidates should engage them in the best that the liberal arts tradition has to offer: reflective self-discernment as well as critical cultural understanding. Without this sort of educational engagement ... we are failing the profession, the larger public, as well as our schools' students (p. 107).

As the above quote reveals, for the well-being of the profession of teaching and for teacher candidates to get an understanding for the reasons behind the problems they face at schools, teacher education needs to have a broader scope. Otherwise, teachers would fall into the trap of diagnosing the problem as their faulty methodology and look for new techniques rather than trying to broaden their limited understanding of the complexity of teaching (Halliday, 1998).

Because critical pedagogy focuses on the world as it should be (Kincheloe, 2004), it is difficult not to set educating teachers as transformative intellectuals as the most comprehensive teacher model. However, my aim in this study is not to make a judgment concerning the teacher education program or the people involved in it based on the teacher ideal in my mind. Rather, my ambition is to get a deeper understanding of the teacher roles underscored in the program and to make an inquiry as to the underlying influences on the daily practices of those implementing and/or following the program. In fact, this study might be considered as my reflective inquiry into the daily reality I experience from a more critical perspective, because as an insider I would not be immune to any conclusions drawn from the study.

1.2 The Aim of the Study

The research studies conducted in Turkey have concentrated more on the evaluation of the program contents as perceived by students, alumni, and teacher educators. The review of accessible research literature indicated there was no study investigating a foreign language teacher education program in terms of the teacher roles fostered in that program. This study does not only describe the dominant teacher roles educated in the program; it also attempts to explain the political, economic and social reasons behind the selection of particular teacher roles locating the program in a historical context. Considering the historical realities of the system of teacher education and the dominant teacher roles in Turkey (see Chapter 2), one

might think that the findings of the current study could be predicted even before such a study is conducted. One might also question the possibility of educating transformative intellectuals in such a system of teacher education given the fact that this teacher education program was introduced by the CoHE (The Council of Higher Education) in an ideological space invaded by the discourse of neoliberalism. While it may be true that the program under investigation cannot be conceived as a distinct entity separated from the socioeconomic realities of the country, it would be *deterministic* to assume that the dominant sociopolitical and economical structure will certainly reproduce teacher candidates prescribed by the CoHE. Claiming that would deny the agency of the actors in the program - both the faculty and the students. Though being constrained within the structure of higher education, the actors of the program always have the option of challenging the notion of teacher education imposed on them.

Therefore, this study aims to provide an in-depth analysis of the teacher roles fostered in a teacher education program by giving a thick description of the context of the study (in its institutional culture) as well as the agents responsible for the running of the program. It also seeks to provide a closer look at what happens in the day to day realities of the methodology and practicum courses in the program through detailed field notes taken during classroom observations. The study also brings the voices of the actors of the program including teacher educators, emeritus professors, program administrators and students.

1.3 Research Questions

Every teacher education program is based on a certain model of training or educating teachers whether or not it is stated explicitly. As a result of that explicit or implicit approach to teacher education, teacher candidates following particular programs are trained or educated to see the educational reality and their own roles as teachers largely from the lens of those programs (Liston et al., 2009). Though one cannot claim that the students are the end-products of particular programs in a deterministic manner, one could argue that they are heavily influenced by them. This case study explores the orientation of a Turkish foreign language teacher education program for the development of teacher roles in teacher candidates through

document reviews, semi-structured interviews and classroom observations. This study is by no means a study investigating the teacher roles assumed by the students or graduates of the department. Rather, this case study sheds light onto the teacher roles highlighted in documents and in the daily reality as perceived through observations and reported by participants. This dissertation study addresses the following research questions:

- 1) What teacher roles are conveyed by the documents generated by different educational institutions (namely the Council of Higher Education, the Ministry of National Education, the university, the faculty of education and the foreign language education department)?
- 2) What teacher roles does the FLE program prepare teacher candidates for?
 - a) What are student, teacher educator and program administrator views about the teacher roles the FLE program fosters?
 - b) What teacher roles are fostered in methodology and school-based practicum components of the FLE program?
- 3) What are the political-economic, socio-cultural and institutional reasons behind the support for and the adoption of these differing teacher roles?

1.4 The Need for the Study

The preparation of teacher candidates for different roles has been an issue of concern in the teacher education literature for a couple of decades. There are works problematizing the roles teachers assume (e.g. Giroux & McLaren, 1986; Oladi, 2013; Zeichner, 2014) in relation to the purposes of teacher education programs as well as studies describing attempts to prepare teachers either as reflective practitioners (e.g. Goodman, 1984; Halliday, 1998; Jay & Johnson, 2002) or as transformative intellectuals (e.g. Esau, 2013; Giroux, 1988; Sevier, 2005) in teacher education programs. However, the review of literature does not reveal any studies exploring teacher roles in a teacher education program. This might be because teacher education programs usually define the type of teachers they want to prepare from the onset leaving no room for a later investigation on the teacher roles the

teacher education program fosters. However, as the purpose of teacher education programs does not seem to be clearly defined in the Turkish context, there seems to be a need to explore the teacher roles teacher education programs prepare teacher candidates for. This case study may thus provide some clarity to the issue at least in a specific teacher education program implemented at a certain point in time and might reveal the need for teacher education programs to define the teacher roles they prepare their candidates for.

On the other hand, there are arguments in the literature indicating that pre-service teacher education programs in Turkey are not able to educate professional teachers who are able to make autonomous decisions being informed by the social and political dimensions of education (Okçabol, 2012; Özsoy & Ünal, 2010). However, there seems to be no empirical evidence to support or to reject this argument, as no study was found on the roles teacher education programs are preparing teacher candidates for in Turkey. Even studies investigating perceptions or beliefs about teacher roles in the Turkish context are scarce. Studies describing innovations or interventions in teacher preparation for educating reflective practitioners or transformative intellectuals are non-existent perhaps because teacher education curricula in Turkey is centralized allowing no space for innovation (Yıldırım, 2013). Filling a gap in literature, this study will hopefully open a topic of further debate in Turkish teacher education literature about the purposes of teacher education and the roles teacher candidates are prepared for.

As the meta-analysis of teacher education research in Turkey by Yıldırım (2013) indicates, research literature in Turkey is filled with perception studies conducted through surveys. Turkish teacher education literature lacks studies on the processes of teacher education, the structure of teacher education curriculum, and the impact of various components of teacher education programs on teacher candidates' development as teachers. This qualitative case-study may shed light on some of these issues by providing a thick description of the practices in the program, a detailed analysis of the program documents together with the transformation of the program in time, and student views on different components of the program.

1.5 The Significance of the Study

Offering an in-depth analysis of a foreign language teacher education program in Turkey, this study will provide insights as to teachers educated in Turkey in the real world of a faculty of education. Such an understanding will contribute to the expansion of this area of research, which may in turn become a body of cumulative research shedding light on the actual practices of teacher education in Turkey and abroad. By situating the program in its historical context, describing classroom reality and conveying the voices of students, teacher educators and program administrators, this study may also set an example to further research in this field with the holistic perspective it provides into the reality under investigation.

Setting a living example to the current situation of teacher education in Turkey, this study may restart a discussion on the philosophy of teacher education programs and open some space for the transformation of the system by contributing to decision-making processes both on a national and a local basis. The study may also contribute to a reevaluation of the teacher education programs by those working or educated in those programs and may inspire change efforts in these programs.

Apart from the potential contributions of the final product of this study to research literature and educational policies in Turkey, even the process of data collection in this research might have had an influence on the department and some of the people involved in it. The long conversations we had with some of the interview participants during and after the focus group interviews have led to the emergence of a new student group which was founded to create a difference in the department by organizing cultural and social events. Some student complaints I reported to the department administration about the physical atmosphere in the department were taken seriously by the program administrators and some small adjustments were made. The process of carrying out this research study also had a profound influence on me as a person, and as a teacher educator. The process of the study itself transformed my political and educational perspective teaching me to combine reflection and action. Such a transformation in my perception of the world at large and the program in particular might also have had an impact on the program I investigated and taught at. The fact that I have started to include more critical readings and discussions in the courses I teach might have led to a minor change in

the program. Inspired by some of the burning issues raised by the interview participants, the series of educational, professional and career related seminars I organized with a couple of my colleagues might also have addressed some of the concerns of the student teachers.

1.6 Context of the Study

This study was conducted at a foreign language teacher education department of a prestigious public university in central Turkey which offers English-medium instruction. In addition to the undergraduate program being investigated in this study, the department also runs graduate programs in English Language Teaching and in English Literature. For the 4-year undergraduate pre-service teacher education program, the department admits around 110 top ranking students in the centralized university entrance examination in Turkey every year. The program also accepts international students from abroad, especially from the central Asian Turkic countries in addition to the European exchange students. Most of the students enrolled in the program are Turkish citizens. Until very recently, they consisted of graduates of teacher training high schools who had the advantage of gaining extra points in the university entrance exam if they chose teacher education programs. However, with the latest change in the education system, first the advantages of these schools were removed and after that the teacher training high schools were abolished in 2014.

When students are admitted to the university, they are obliged to take an English proficiency test. If they fail the exam, they have to study an additional year of intensive English at the English preparatory program before their freshman year. In addition to the departmental must courses, they are free to select departmental and non-departmental electives in their four year studies. The undergraduate program investigated in this study was introduced by the Council of Higher Education (CoHE) in 2007 and is being implemented with some modifications by the department. The program includes English teaching methodology courses, general education courses, linguistics courses, literature courses, English proficiency courses and teaching practice courses (see Appendix A for the full list of courses).

Most students in the undergraduate program have middle-class or working-class families from various parts of Turkey and from abroad. An overwhelming majority of undergraduate students in the program is female and they are mostly aged between 18 and 24. Most of the students live in dormitories on campus and they are able to benefit from the lively campus atmosphere of the university. However, they are educated in relatively large classes (about 30 students in each class) in a remote part of the campus, as the faculty of education is not located in the centre of the campus.

The full-time faculty (22 professors in total) working at the department specialize in a wide range of fields including language teaching, teacher education, linguistics and English literature. As the university's policy of promotion requires faculty to have a doctoral or post-doctoral degree from abroad, most of the faculty received their degrees from the American or European Universities. The workload of the faculty varies between offering three courses to five courses each semester depending on their academic titles. However, they are under a heavy pressure to publish, as the university is quite competitive in that respect. In addition to the full-time faculty, the department also hires up to fourteen part-time instructors almost each semester due to the lack of enough professors to teach departmental courses.

Both the department which offers the undergraduate program investigated in this study and the faculty of education it works under came into being as a result of the imposition of the CoHE in 1982. Before the department was founded, the teaching staff of the department was already offering compulsory and elective English courses at the Department of Humanities at the Faculty of Arts and Sciences. In spite of the fact that the foundation of a foreign language teacher education program was a result of a top-down decision making process, the faculty who assumed the responsibility of teacher education were happy with the new born department (personal communication with emeritus professors). However, having been founded at a university specializing in educating engineers, this faculty educating teachers was bound to stay in the margins of the university. Even today, it is located literally in the periphery of the campus and suffers from a lack of resources and enough space for classrooms, offices and recreation areas.

The university which hosts the teacher education program investigated in this study was founded in 1950s and became one of the leading research universities in Turkey. Having been funded by international aid in its foundation years, the university itself became the home of democratic ideas in 1960s. The tradition of revolutionary thought and tolerance for diversity at the university still remains today. However, as a public university struggling to get adequate state funding, it has started to engage into partnerships with industry, opened a foundation school offering education for elementary, secondary and high school students and launched joint programs with a US based university to create extra sources of income for the faculty and university. The joint undergraduate program with the American university enrolls students who score lower in the university entrance exams but are able to pay large amounts of tuition fees. Despite such financial issues, the university is one of the most developed and respected universities of the country admitting mostly top scoring students at the university exams.

When it comes to a brief description of Turkey, it is a country full of contradictions. Its economy has grown so fast in the last decade that it became the fastest developing economy of Europe in 2011 (İnan, 2013). It achieved to rank as the 19th richest economy of the world according to its GDP (\$ 820 billion) in 2013 (TÜİK, 2014). However, in terms of its gross domestic product per capita (\$ 10 782) (Turkish Statistical Institute-TÜİK, 2014) Turkey ranked the 65th country in the same year. Turkey has the highest third income inequality rate among the OECD countries (OECD, 2014). While waiting for full membership for the European Union, it is facing a growing number of honor crimes and violence against women and LGBT. According to Global Gender Gap Index, Turkey ranked the 125th among 142 countries in 2014 (World Economic Forum, 2014). While trying to harmonize its legal system with the European Union (EU), Turkey has been the first country which has received the most number of judgments (2639 judgments) with at least one violation of human rights between 1959-2013 (European Court of Human Rights, 2014). In spite of being officially monolingual, it is a country in which a multitude of languages and diverse ethnic groups live. Populated by a predominantly conservative Muslim people, it is a secular country in which women enjoy relatively more freedom than other countries in the Middle East. It is also a country which saw the

solidarity among diverse groups against the police violence during the Gezi Park protests, which broke out to protect the only green area left in Istanbul's Taksim Square from turning into a shopping mall and ended up becoming a widespread campaign against the anti-democratic practices of the government in June 2013. These protests broke at a time when some of the student interviews for this research study had been scheduled. Due to the events, some of those interviews had to be cancelled or rescheduled. Therefore, some of the student reports of the study carry the imprint of those difficult days in the country.

CHAPTER 2

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Critical pedagogy emphasizes the importance of domains of political, economical, historical and social foundations of education. Without a political and historical perspective, a critical analysis would be lacking. Therefore, the following sections will give a brief outline of the Turkish education system relating it to the realities of Turkish economy and political history. After that, the system of higher education and teacher education in Turkey will be surveyed. In the light of that background, the transformation of teacher roles in Turkey will be explored. Finally, the systems of foreign language education and foreign language teacher education in Turkey will be described.

2.1 The Political Economy of Education in Turkey

For the sake of ease of analysis, Turkey's political economy will be divided into three sections here. The first part will outline the economic and educational structure of the initial years of the Turkish Republic in its struggle to modernize the country. The second part which starts from the time when Turkey moved to multi-party democracy dwells on those years when Turkey saw two military interventions. During that period, the economic and educational policies became more and more oriented towards the international capitalist system (Boratav, 2011). The last period which covers the current system of economy and education in Turkey starts with the year when Turkey witnessed its third coup d'état in 1980. That was a turning point in the history of the country as neoliberal economic policies were adopted, which had serious implications for the education system in Turkey (İnal & Akkaymak, 2012).

2.1.1 Foundation Years (1923-1946)

The economy of the young Turkish Republic did not have a major break-off from the Ottoman Period. As the Ottoman Empire had become integrated into the world capitalist system in the early 19th century (Kazgan, 2009), it was given the

function of exporting agricultural products and raw materials and importing industrial goods in the international division of labor (Boratav, 2011; Girgin, 2014). Despite the fact that the new Turkish Republic was founded after an anti-imperialistic independence war, it followed a capitalist economic system overtaking the debts of the Ottoman Empire (Alpay, 2008). In 1923, İzmir Economic Congress was held and liberal economic policies were adopted according to which private enterprise and investments by foreign capital were to be supported (Finefrock, 1981; Hiç, 2009). In 1920s, the Turkish government attempted to produce local capitalists by leaving the running of state monopolies to the private sector (Kazgan, 2009).

Though the Republic of Turkey did not depart radically from the Ottoman Empire in terms of economic policies (Boratav, 2011), the new regime desired to break away from the traditional religious norms of the Ottoman period. They wanted to build a Westernized nation-state in line with the world capitalist system (İnal & Akkaymak, 2012). To this end, many political, social and economic reforms were carried out including the abolition of the caliphate, the unification of educational institutions, the transformation of the written orthography into Latin alphabet, adoption of Western clothes, and regulation on calendar. In 1923, the Ministry of Education was founded (Okçabol, 2005a). For the formation of the new education system, many educational experts including John Dewey were invited to Turkey (Okçabol, 2005a). The new schooling system operated under the ideology of nationalism and secularism (Kazgan, 2009).

With the onset of the Great Depression of 1929, many world economies started to adopt a welfare system which depended on state's intervention on economy protecting the economic and social welfare of its citizens (Hiç, 2009). Considering the fact that the liberal economic policies of the first decade had not brought about the expected capitalist development in the country, Turkey changed its economic system from a truly liberal one to a state-interventionist economy following the world trends (Boratav, 2011; Kazgan, 2009). The new import substitution system was based on the protection of national industry (Yücesan-Özdemir & Özdemir, 2012). Therefore, many industrial investments were made by the state to boost the economy until the private sector matured enough to operate on its own (Hiç, 2009; Kazgan, 2009).

In this period, elementary education became compulsory, as the new regime saw the education system as a key modernization tool for the public (İnal, 2012). Teachers were accorded great importance in the new system, as they were the ones to transfer the new ideology of the state to the public (Girgin, 2014). In the same vein, education of women carried an utmost importance (Gök, 2007). All schools at every stage of education were open to girls. In addition, Girls' Institutes (*Kız Enstitüleri*) were founded to educate modern Turkish mothers and housewives (Gök, 2007). On the other hand, to address the underdevelopment of countryside, Village Institutes were established in 1937. Children of villagers, both girls and boys, were educated at these institutes to transform them into teachers of other village children in different parts of Turkey (Aysal, 2005). These institutes had a major influence on the educational climate of the country together with the Ministry of Education's policy of enlightenment embracing values of humanism with the world classics translated into Turkish. However, these influential institutes, which achieved their mission of educating skillful and intellectual teachers, were closed with the allegations of promoting communism in 1954 (Aysal, 2005).

2.1.2 The Multi-Party Period (1946-1980)

Although Turkey did not join the World War II, its economy suffered from the impact of the war (Ekzen, 2009). The development of the economy came to a halt and new taxes were imposed on the public (Boratav, 2011). In the aftermath of the war, Turkey had its first multi-party elections in 1946. Along with the political changes in the system, the economy started to become more liberal than the earlier period as the state began to loosen its grip on the customs barriers (Kazgan, 2009). Therefore, the economic system became vulnerable to foreign aids and investments (Boratav, 2011). Turkey became members of the World Bank, and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in 1947 and lost its power of independent decision making in economy (Ekzen, 2009). With political power handed over to the Democrat Party (DP) after the 1950 elections, Turkey opened itself truly to foreign investment. Turkey was provided with the Marshall Aid by the USA, the post-war leader of the world, (Boratav, 2011) for Turkey to produce agricultural products and raw materials. The industrial development of Turkey was not supported by the

international organizations (Ekzen, 2009). In 1952, Turkey became a member of North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), which was founded against the communist bloc of the former Soviet Union.

As Turkey started to be considered as a shield against communism, the education system took its share from the state ideology of the time. During this era, Democrat Party was repressive against teachers, university professors and journalists who opposed the DP (Hiç, 2009). Village Institutes and Public Houses (*Halk Evleri*) were closed with the claim that propaganda of communism was being made at these institutions (Okçabol, 2005a). Some of the secular schools of the founding years of the Turkish Republic were replaced with religious schools under the name of educating *imams* - religious leaders in mosques - (*İmam Hatip Orta Okulları*) and elective religion courses started to be offered in the secondary schools (Okçabol, 2005a; Sakaoğlu, 2003). Education colleges (*Maarif Kolejleri*) giving English-medium instruction for secondary and high school students were established. A National Educational Council (*Eğitim Milli Komisyonu*) was formed to guide the training of teachers with the support of American Ford Association in 1958 (Sakaoğlu, 2003). The same council also prepared the curriculum for elementary education, which went into practice in 1961 (Okçabol, 2005a). At the same time, vocational schools had a boom in these years.

The Democrat Party rule was intervened by a military coup in 1960, which sentenced the former prime minister and two ministers to death. This military intervention was carried out by a group of officers who also had the Chief of the General Staff arrested. 147 university professors and hundreds of judges were dismissed after the military intervention. In 1961, the military commanders formed a constitutional assembly including the representatives of political parties, labor unions, universities, etc. to make a new constitution. Just as in other Western democracies, Turkey also favored a mixed economic regime attempting to ensure social justice in the post-coup period (Hiç, 2009; Kazgan, 2009). In the following period the import-substituting industrialization grew even larger with the increasing demand for consumer goods among the public (Boratav, 2011). In 1960, State Planning Agency was established and started to prepare five-year development plans (Okçabol, 2005a). In the first (1963-67) and second (68-72) development plans, the

state aimed to provide equality of opportunity in education and to educate the human resources necessary for the economic development to occur (Okçabol, 2005a). Therefore, vocational and technical education institutions were increased. Science High Schools (*Fen Liseleri*) were opened. The Elementary Education Law of 1961 stated that elementary education is given free of charge to each citizen irrespective of their gender, ethnicity or religion at public schools. After the free elections of 1965, the Justice Party came to power and followed the center-right liberal economical, political and educational policies of its predecessor, the Democrat Party (Boratav, 2011). Girls started to be admitted to the religious secondary schools. A new law regulating the private institutions of education was passed in 1965, which led to an increase in the number of private schools (Okçabol, 2005).

Ironically, the new constitution prepared by the military regime allowed some space for democratic organizations to grow. Within this atmosphere, Turkish Teachers' Union was established (*Türkiye Öğretmenler Sendikası, TÖS*) in 1965 and became very popular among teachers (Okçabol, 2005a). Along similar lines with the student movements around the world, opposition movements against imperialism and capitalist exploitation organized by students, teachers, and workers became widespread in Turkey. The leftist movement gained momentum and a socialist party entered the parliament for the first time in Turkey in 1965 (Hiç, 2009). Soon student and worker demonstrations became widespread followed by the armed clashes between the right and the left, which resulted in political unrest (Hiç, 2009).

The chaotic environment of the late 1960s ensued another coup d'état in 1971 in Turkey. The military regime limited some of the freedoms of the constitution of 1961 such as the right of civil servants to unionize (Okçabol, 2005a). Some unionists and intellectuals were tortured and three leaders of student demonstrations were executed by the military power. Meanwhile, the economic program of the earlier period continued until late 1970s and the coalition governments adopted populist economic policies which provided the working classes with short-term advantages like a sound social security system (Boratav, 2011). However, the numbers of religious schools and the students enrolled in those schools had a dramatic increase in this period. Besides, the number of private tutoring courses (*dershane*) to prepare

students for the various nation-wide standardized tests began to rise (Okçabol, 2005a).

2.1.3 The Period of Neoliberal Transformation (1980-2014)

In late 1970s, with the impact of the recession, world capitalist states started to change their economic policies. As their markets had already saturated, they started to look for global markets and diverted from their earlier welfare state policies in which they cared for the laborers (Watson, 2012). The global markets they discovered anew had already given them access to cheaper labor force (Thursfield, 2000). Therefore, they started to privatize public industries and to pursue neo-liberal economic growth policies focusing on exportation. In the new system of economy, nation-states had become obsolete as the global markets were the new target (Boratav, 2011). Martinez and Garcia (2000, as cited in Cole, 2008, p. 88) described this new phenomenon of neo-liberalism as having five major characteristics. In their own words, these characteristics are as follows:

- The rule of market (the liberation of free or private enterprise from any bonds imposed by the state no matter how much social damage this causes, greater openness to international trade and investment, the reduction of wages by de-unionizing workers and eliminating workers' rights, an end to price controls, total freedom of movement for capital, goods and services.)
- Cutting public expenditure (less spending on social services such as education and healthcare reducing the safety-net for the poor, reducing expenditure on maintenance, e.g. of roads, bridges and water supply)
- Deregulation (reducing government regulation of everything that could diminish profits [less protection of the environment, lesser concerns with job safety])
- Privatization (selling state-owned enterprises, goods and services to private investors, e.g. banks, key industries, railroads, toll highways, electricity, schools, hospitals, fresh water.)
- Eliminating the concept of "The Public Good" or "Community" (replacing it with "individual responsibility", pressuring the poorest people in a society to find solutions to their lack of healthcare, education and social security by themselves.) (Martinez and Garcia, 2000, as cited in Cole, 2008, p. 88)

Under the realities of the new period, Turkey also began to harmonize its economic policies to the world capitalist system. On January 24, 1980 measures were

taken in line with the suggestions of the IMF (İnal & Akkaymak, 2012). As these measures had many items that would meet serious reaction by the public, it had to be enforced by a military intervention. On September 12, 1980, Turkey saw another military regime which allowed for the structural transformation in economy to take place (Boratav, 2011). The new program included "a reduction in government involvement in productive activities and an increased emphasis on market forces" (Yücesan-Özdemir & Özdemir, 2012, p. 6). The new neo-liberal policies depended on the free flow of capital and goods, the privatization of state-owned industries and the reduction in public expenditure (Boratav, 2011). Interest rates started to be determined by market conditions. Customs barriers were laid off (Boratav, 2011). As the whole economy became more market-oriented, the living and working conditions of working classes started to deteriorate. Rather than full-time employees, companies started to hire temporary workers (Yücesan-Özdemir & Özdemir, 2012). Yet, the opposition to these developments was to be silenced by the repressive military regime. Thousands of people were arrested; hundreds of teachers and university professors were thrown out of their jobs; newspapers were closed; many books were burned (Hiç, 2009).

One of the implications of this military regime for education was the compulsory religion courses in elementary and secondary education because the new policy of education and culture was Turkish-Islam synthesis (Güneş & Güneş, 2003; Okçabol, 2005a). Another was the option provided to foundations to establish higher education institutions. With new regulations, the state encouraged the opening of private schools and tertiary institutions (Okçabol, 2005a). A new discourse about the state lacking enough resources for public expenses started to be disseminated (Okçabol, 2005a). Therefore, the number of private institutions in all fields of education increased year by year since 1980s to this day, which came to mean that education lost its status of being a public service and became a commodity to be bought and sold (Altunya, 1995; Güneş & Güneş, 2003).

The military officers left the political power to the government of a former World Bank employee, Turgut Özal with the 1983 elections. In fact, Özal was the architect of the January 24th measures taken before the military intervention and he assumed the responsibility of implementing those neoliberal policies when he

became the prime minister (Kazgan, 2009). In 1990s, Özal became the president leaving the stage to coalition governments. The coalition government led by the Welfare Party ran the government between 1991 and 1997 (İnal & Akkaymak, 2012). The Welfare Party was accused of indulging in acts against the republican regime and was closed in 1997 under the influence of a so-called post-modern coup. The same year, the duration of compulsory elementary education was increased to 8 years with the dictation of the military forces in order to close the secondary level *imam hatip* religious schools. The successors of Welfare Party formed a new party, which is the ruling party - Justice and Development Party (AKP) - of today (2015). Although the ruling party changed many times since 1980, the neoliberal economic regime did not change (Boratav, 2011). Since 1980, the Turkish economy has been shaped by the austerity measures imposed by the World Bank and the IMF (Çavdar, 2013). Yet, the neoliberal regime has even accelerated since 2002 when AKP came to power (İnal & Akkaymak, 2012).

The influence of the World Bank was not limited to economy. In the year 1992, Turkey started to undertake a project called the Development of National Education with the financial support of World Bank (CoHE, 2007b). According to the international examinations like PISA (Program for International Student Assessment), Turkey scored lower than the average of OECD countries in 2003 (Akşit, 2007). Therefore, in 2004, a constructivist student-centered education model was launched in order to adapt to the education system of European Union Turkey hoped to join. The new system prioritized educating a workforce the globalized world demanded (İnal, 2012). Among the main objectives of the curriculum reform were adopting a student-centered constructivist model moving away from a teacher-centered and a subject-centered model, reducing the content of the courses, using alternative assessment methods, encouraging learning by research and self-discovery and integration of information and communication technologies (Akşit, 2007; Öztürk, 2011). Although the curriculum reform was welcomed by the education circles and among the public (Öztürk, 2011), there were also critics. The curriculum reform was carried out under the conditions of limited resources, scarce teacher training opportunities and poor facilities (Öztürk, 2011). There were major controversies about the way the new curriculum was developed: it was rushed and

was not discussed at length (Akşit, 2007). The findings of the pilot study on the new curricula were not shared with the public and the curriculum was sent right away to schools for implementation. The faculties of education were not well-informed about the process and did not prepare candidates for the new curriculum (Akşit, 2007). The same concerns were expressed when the most recent reform act called 4+4+4 was passed amidst strong reactions in 2012. With the new law, compulsory education was extended to 12 years composed of 4 years of primary school, 4 years of secondary school and 4 years of high school. Though the new legislation looked good on paper increasing the years of compulsory education, in reality it was meant to interrupt 8-year compulsory education process. After 4 years of elementary education, students were allowed to get distance education, which came to mean girls in rural areas would not be sent to school. The interruption also allowed room for *imam-hatip* religious secondary schools to be reopened. A great number of secular secondary schools were transformed into *imam-hatip* religious secondary schools. The number of *imam-hatip* religious schools increased radically. The amount of religious courses in the curriculum increased with the compulsory and elective courses added to the program. These regulations in the education system was in line with the government's aims of educating "religious generations" ("Dindar Gençlik Yetiştireceğiz," 2012).

As a reflection of the neoliberal policies, many school related services such as transportation and cafeterias were privatized in the AKP rule (İnal, 2012). While the number of private schools at each stage of education increased two times between 2002 and 2008 (İnal, 2012), the number of private tutoring courses (*dershane*) rose from 157 in 1975-1976 academic year to 4099 in 2010-2011 (Keskin Demirer, 2012). What is more, the limited funds allocated for education started to be transferred to the newly established private schools to encourage more investment on education by the private sector. In the mean time, however, public schools began to suffer from a lack of enough resources and were left alone for creating their own funds (İnal, 2012). The share of investment in the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) budget decreased over the years, as seen in Table 1 below from 17,18 % in 2002 to 9,32 % in 2014 (MoNE, 2014). The amount of money spent by the household on education rose (four times in the same period) (İnal, 2012; Keskin Demirer, 2012).

Such practices have weakened the constitutional guarantee of free education in Turkey (Kablay, 2012).

On the other hand, the work conditions of teachers started to change with neoliberalism. While teachers worked as public employees with contracts of civil service which had job security earlier, more and more teachers started to work on contractual labor not only in private schools but also in public schools as contracted teachers (*sözleşmeli öğretmen*) or substitute teachers (*vekil öğretmen*) starting from late 1970s (Kablay, 2012; Keskin Demirer, 2012). As the real salaries teachers earned diminished over the years irrespective of the type of institution they worked for, they started to offer private tutoring or to engage in different types of extra work (e.g. working as taxi drivers after school) (Kablay, 2012).

Table 1 Proportion of Investments in the Budget of MoNE (MoNE, 2014, p. 239)

Year	Budget of MoNE TL	Investment budget of MoNE - TL	Proportion of investments in the budget of MoNE- %
1997	512 234 445	76 884 950	15,01
1998	1 243 108 000	373 262 000	30,03
1999	2131 808 500	408 341 000	19,15
2000	3 350 330 000	666 782 000	19,90
2001	4 046 305 625	779 855 000	19,27
2002	7 460 991 000	1 281 690 000	17,18
2003	10 179 997 000	1 479 050 000	14,53
2004	12 854 642 000	1 244 150 000	9,68
2005	14 882 259 500	1 230 306 000	8,27
2006	16 568 145 500	1 241 498 000	7,49
2007	21 355 634 000	1 490 000 000	6,98
2008	22 915 565 000	1 296 704 000	5,66
2009	27 446 778 095	1 256 188 195	4,58
2010	28 237 412 000	1 785 327 000	6,32
2011	34 112 163 000	1 995 625 000	5,85
2012	39 169 379 190	2 600 000 000	6,64
2013	47 496 378 650	3 955 000 000	8,33
2014	55 704 817 610	5 192 300 000	9,32

Today teachers in Turkey still work under heavy workloads in overly crowded classrooms and have limited opportunities to professionally develop themselves (Çakıroğlu & Çakıroğlu, 2003). Working in the most centralized education system among the OECD member states (Akşit, 2007), teachers do not

have much space to make curricular decisions because the educational programs are prepared by the Ministry to have a standard system in the whole country. Teachers face serious problems while trying to adapt the content of the national curriculum to the classroom realities because they are not accorded flexibility to shape their lessons according to the needs and circumstances of their classes (Öztürk, 2011).

Despite such problems largely stemming from the general organization of the system of education, teachers have been accused of not offering high quality education (Altunya, 1995). For Özoğlu, Gür and Altunoğlu (2013), the educational problems are caused not because teachers are free to exercise their autonomy in the classroom, but because their authority to make decisions is restricted even in educational issues such as developing and renewing curriculum, choosing course books, setting course schedules and determining class sizes, organizing classrooms, passing or failing students, etc. What is worse, teachers' work is under the threat of being controlled more tightly with the accountability measures brought just as in the EU countries with the generic and subject-specific teacher competencies which were introduced in 2006 within the “Teacher Training Component” of the EU based Support to Basic Education Program.

2.2 The System of Higher Education in Turkey

The development of higher education in Turkey was parallel to the history of education in Turkey. In the foundation years, Turkish Republic wanted to modernize all institutions including university in line with the new ideology of the country (Timur, 2000). The university of the Ottoman period was called *Darülfünun* and it operated under relative autonomy. After the establishment of the Republic of Turkey, *Darülfünun* was separated from the Ministry of Education in 1925 assuming more financial independence (Ateş, 2007). In the backdrop of the economic and political atmosphere of early 1930s, it started to be criticized harshly as falling behind the times not catching up with the principles of the new republic (Timur, 2000). Therefore, Turkey reestablished its university system in 1933 so that these institutions operated in line with the principles of the regime (Timur, 2000). The Ministry of Education assumed the role of founding universities with the support of European scientists who fled from the Nazi oppression. Thus, the universities of

Turkey opened with a new identity following the educational policies of the ministry in 1933 (Tekeli, 2003). In 1938, when Hasan Âli Yücel became the minister of education, he established new institutions of higher education including Hasanoğlan Higher Village Institute (1943), Ankara Faculty of Science (1943) and Ankara Faculty of Medicine (1945). In 1946, the Law of University was passed and universities were given autonomy in their administration, education and finance (Okçabol, 2007). Still, the final decision making power was in the hands of the Minister of Education according to the law, which banned teachers and professors from engaging in politics (Timur, 2000). Some professors were thrown out of the university because of their political beliefs in 1949.

During the Democrat Party rule in 1950s, regional universities of Ege, Karadeniz Teknik and Erzurum Atatürk were founded to address the cultural, industrial, agricultural and commercial problems of each geographical region (Tekeli, 2003). Similarly, the Middle East Technical University was founded in Ankara in 1956 with the support of the United Nations in order to find solutions for the economical problems of the Middle East. Despite such expectations from universities to contribute to the development of the country, the academic staff started to be perceived as a threat by the government in 1950s. The prime minister of the time, Adnan Menderes, insulted academics as "those with black gowns" (*kara cübbeliler*) and passed a law in 1954 to dismiss academics from universities if they indulged in publishing political articles or giving political declarations (Okçabol, 2007). Following the same path, the military regime of 1960 fired 147 academics from Turkish universities claiming that they indulged in political propaganda (Tekeli, 2003). In 1962, democratically elected government of the time abolished this regulation allowing academics to be dismissed from university (Okçabol, 2007). With the constitution of 1961, universities were declared to be autonomous, which brought Turkish universities a relative atmosphere of democracy allowing diverse ideas to be discussed. However, towards the end of 1960s, armed clashes between the right and the left wing groups broke out moving the country into an atmosphere of chaos.

This chaotic atmosphere ensued a military intervention in 1971. The military commanders took repressive measures which culminated in the assault on students

and intellectuals of the time. University was seen as the center of anarchy and many professors were sent to prison. The administrative and financial autonomy of universities were eliminated (Okçabol, 2007; Timur, 2000). A new law of university was passed which disallowed academic staff to become members of political parties. According to the new law, university had a mission to educate nationalistic intellectuals. These legislations, however, provoked a more heated discussion and opposition among the university circles and universities witnessed armed clashes one more time (Timur, 2000). The military officers of the 1980 coup accused universities for the tension in the country and dismissed a great number of university professors (Tekeli, 2003). A law of higher education, which is still in service today (2015), was passed in 1981 to control universities. The Council of Higher Education was established as the superior body of universities regulating the higher education system (Özbudun & Demirer, 2006). Despite the fact that the academic staff has the right to vote for the selection of their deans or rectors, the CoHE makes the final decision in appointing rectors and deans. The council also has the control of student selection and placement for universities as well as the establishment of new higher education institutions (Önal, 2012). An overwhelming majority of the members of the CoHE are assigned by the government (Timur, 2000).

With the new law (1981), higher education became subject to tuition. The constitution of 1982 enabled private foundations to establish higher education institutions. The first private university of Turkey, Bilkent University, was founded in 1984 by the very president of the CoHE himself. In this way, the higher education system in Turkey was opened to privatization and marketization under the shadow of neoliberal policies of the globalizing world (Önal, 2012). As of 2015, there are 104 public and 72 private universities in Turkey (CoHE, 2015). After the ruling party AKP came to power in 2002, there was a "boom" in higher education institutions. As Selvi (2014, p. 139) puts it, "The number of public institutions has skyrocketed from 53 to 104 (a 96 % increase), and the number of private institutions increased from 24 to 71 (195 %)." The reason behind this boom is the elimination of the condition of having a faculty of arts and sciences in establishing new universities (Birler, 2012).

Even though there have always been widespread criticisms against the CoHE ever since it was founded for the fact that it curtails academic, institutional and

financial autonomy of universities turning them into higher vocational schools (Özbudun & Demirel, 2006; Yazıcı, 2012), the CoHE still exists today as of 2015. Although almost all political parties promised to abolish the CoHE, it has never been realized in the last 34 years probably because it is the main medium of control over the universities by the governments (Okçabol, 2007). As the autonomy of universities is restricted by the existence of the CoHE, the free development of science in Turkey is believed to be under serious threat (Okçabol, 2007; Özbudun & Demirel, 2006). For the science to flourish independently, scientists should be free from any ideological, financial and administrative control or authority (Özbudun & Demirel, 2006). Bilgin (2012) asserts that if scientists are not able to express their thoughts freely, they will not be able to form new ideas creatively. Even if they hesitate for a single moment about making their ideas public, their creativity will be sanctioned (Bilgin, 2012). Yazıcı (2012) maintains that in an atmosphere of authoritarian control, university loses its character and becomes a place for producing information for the political authority. Because the CoHE has absolute authority over Turkish universities equipped with the right to start investigations against students and faculty for their ideological beliefs and actions, Okçabol (2007) asserts, academic staff is reduced to being civil servants responsible for the maintenance of the existing order rather than being free to conduct research independently. The regulation of discipline for the university staff, which went into effect in 1981, (and to which new articles were added in 2014) put the faculty and students under pressure to keep silent and to remain distanced from political issues (Okçabol, 2007). By their nature, however, universities should be the institutions of open debate for ideas to develop (Cangızbay, 2012; Kılıçbay, 2012).

For Timur (2000), Turkey has never been able to create a freedom of science as a country, as it has never enjoyed a real freedom of thought. Kılıçbay (2012) thinks that the CoHE is not the cause, but the result of the disfunctioning of universities. For him, the reason behind the failure of universities in Turkey is the lack of democratic values among the public, which does not demand a more democratic and free university (Kılıçbay, 2012). He argues the cultural climate in the country creates a hierarchy of faculties ordered according to the money prospects. He believes that the cultural atmosphere in Turkey is also suspicious of books, scientific

activities and intellectualism partly because of the deeds of those in political power showing books as instruments of crime. For Yazıcı (2012), another cause of the problem is the fact that Turkish universities do not have democratic administration within their own boundaries. Tekeli (2012) states university rectors were accorded great administrative, financial and academic powers, which give them the authority to make decisions against the will of the members of university. The fact that they are selected by the votes of the faculty does not mean that universities are democratic. For universities to deserve the name "university," they should be institutions exercising democracy in the real sense of the word. They should provide a free atmosphere for the expression of all views (Güven, 2012). Neither the academic staff, nor the students should feel the restriction of the university administration. Members of university should also be able to evaluate themselves critically to be able to resist the control of external authorities (Güven, 2012).

Private capital is considered to pose another threat to university with its power to direct research planning. When researchers start conducting research in accordance with private interests, university spirit working for the universal human values is lost (Bilgin, 2012; Cangızbay, 2012; Üşür, 2012). Under the current political and economic circumstances of Turkey, only knowledge which has "exchange value" in the market started to be considered worthwhile (İnal & Akkaymak, 2012; Özbudun & Demirer, 2006) and academics are thus led to conduct research that will serve the interests of private industries rather than producing knowledge for the public good (Bok, 2007; Önal, 2012). Those disciplines which do not create values for market use, especially social sciences, are under risk as they are left alone with limited resources and facilities allocated to them from the state funds (Özbudun & Demirer, 2006). For instance, the number of students per faculty is 33 for faculties of education, but it is lower than 20 students in other faculties (Özoğlu et al., 2013).

The last decade has seen the further privatization of higher education in Turkey with an abundance of private universities and the corporatization of the public universities which are forced to create their own resources by privatizing university facilities (such as dormitories and cafeterias) and by serving the market forces (Önal, 2012). In this process, Önal (2012) argues, the academic staff is

distanced from research under heavy workloads struggling to make their ends meet due to their low salaries, and they are thus proletarianized losing their autonomy over their work. Contrary to the social responsibilities of academics to share the reality they uncover with the public (Özbudun & Demirer, 2006; Ünal, 2010), they are thrown into a state of apathy to the social issues looking for ways to get individual promotions or to earn extra income (Okçabol, 2007; Timur, 2000). On the other hand, because of the fact that performance of the academics is evaluated solely on the basis of their publications, they are forced to publish articles in international journals with citation indexes (Üşür, 2012). Leaving aside the cases of academic dishonesty, the faculty is encouraged to conduct research that is easy to publish rather than following their own independent research agendas (Cangızbay, 2012; Okçabol, 2007). For Okçabol (2007), the pressure of publishing more articles results in scientific contributions which are only marginal rather than being groundbreaking. This seems to be in parallel with the function given to the developing countries by the international division of scientific labor: producing knowledge for the interests of the Western world or consuming the scientific artifacts produced by the developed world (Okçabol, 2007). In short, universities in Turkey have problems in conducting independent scientific research not being able to enjoy academic, administrative or financial freedom.

2.3 The System of Teacher Education in Turkey

Just as the system of education, the roots of the system of teacher education in Turkey go back to the Ottoman Empire. The first teacher-training institution was opened in 1848 under the name of *Darülmüallimin* (CoHE, 2007b). There were 21 institutions of teacher training when the Republic of Turkey was founded in 1923 (Okçabol, 2012). The number and the variety of teacher training schools increased after 1923: Teacher training schools for primary education (*ilköğretmen okulları*), village institutes (*köy enstitüleri*), higher village institutes (*yüksek köy enstitüleri*), two-year institutes of education (*iki yıllık eğitim enstitüleri*), and higher vocational schools for teacher training (*yüksek öğretmen okulları*) became the major sources of teacher education operating under the Ministry of Education, which was the major

authority in educational policy and administration from the curriculum to teacher training and selection (Çakıroğlu & Çakıroğlu, 2003; Öztürk, 1996).

In 1926, there were two types of high school level teacher education schools: teacher training schools for primary education which educated teachers for urban schools and village institutes for educating teachers to work in rural areas (Çakıroğlu & Çakıroğlu, 2003; Öztürk, 1996). The differentiation of teacher education institutions according to the area of work was born out of the huge gaps between the needs of the rural and urban areas at the time. The village institutes were designed to educate the villagers together with the students. These institutes were "based on the principles of democracy, community collaboration and problem-solving in real-life situations" (Çakıroğlu & Çakıroğlu, 2003, p. 255). However, they were closed in 1954 and transformed into Teacher Training Schools for Primary Education (*ilköğretmen okulları*), which meant that the differentiation of teacher education according to urban and rural schools came to an end (Sakaoğlu, 2003). The curriculum of teacher training schools was also changed, which lowered the standards of teacher education and made the quality of teachers an issue till this day (Binbaşıoğlu, 2005).

Thereafter, the first step of a major change in teacher education came into being in 1973 when the Basic Law of National Education (*Milli Eğitim Temel Kanunu*) was passed (Tarman, 2010). This law defined the act of teaching as a special profession and indicated that teachers should be educated in higher education institutions taking general cultural courses, specialized subject matter courses, and pedagogy courses (Okçabol, 2012). After this law, all teacher training institutions were changed into either two-year or three-year institutes of education (Binbaşıoğlu, 2005). The second major change in teacher education took place with the introduction of the Council of Higher Education in 1981 after the military coup in 1980. With the foundation of the Council, all higher teacher education programs were moved under universities with the aim of providing a unified curriculum for all programs (CoHE, 2007b). After this regulation, higher vocational schools for teacher training were transformed into faculties of education and schools of vocational and technical education at universities. (Okçabol, 2012). Besides, new faculties of education were founded under different universities with the imposition of the

CoHE. This radical change in teacher education was based on the premise that quality of education would be higher at the universities (Güven, 2008). However, the quality of teachers educated at universities became more problematic according to Binbaşıoğlu (2005). For Güven (2008), this had do with the radical increase in student admissions, shortage of physical space, equipments and faculty, as the infrastructure of universities was not prepared for that unification. In order to address the gap of faculty, academic staff from the faculties of arts and sciences was transferred to faculties of education (Güven, 2008).

As all teacher training institutions started to operate under the CoHE, the curricula for these schools were also designed by the Council itself without taking into consideration the accumulated knowledge base and experience of various teacher training institutes in the country (Okçabol, 2005b). On the other hand, the close contact between the institutions of teacher education and schools as well as the collaboration between teacher education programs and the MoNE was cut (Çakıroğlu & Çakıroğlu, 2003). Universities were not successful in maintaining relationships with schools. While teacher-training schools were autonomous in developing their own curricula before 1982, they were controlled by a higher authority intervening in their programs after 1982.

Another important change in teacher education in Turkey happened as a result of the project called the Development of National Education undertaken in 1997 with the financial support of the World Bank (CoHE, 2007b). Under this project, one subcategory was the Pre-Service Teacher Education targeting to increase the quality of teacher education. The process of carrying out this World Bank funded pre-service teacher education project in Turkey between 1994 and 1999 is clearly described in Grossman, Onkol and Sands (2007). The project, which aimed to restructure faculties of education in Turkey from the program components to the composition of departments, received technical support from the British Council and Arizona State University. The project team included 15 experienced teacher educators from the universities of Turkey and 17 teacher educators coming from the USA, the UK, and Sweden. Grossman et al. (2007) described the teachers trained with the new program as the "products of a totally different approach to teacher education in Turkey" (p. 139). They also indicated that it was a highly challenging process to "change the

hearts and minds of teacher educators" in four year's time despite their efforts to disseminate the new curriculum and textbooks via workshops, seminars, training programs and so on. Under the project, graduate students were sent abroad for master's and doctoral degrees to form the future teaching force of the new Turkish teacher education system in Turkey. In the new model, the length of teacher education differed according to the field of study. Primary school teachers, teachers of Turkish, foreign languages and fine arts were to be educated for four years and the teachers of other subjects like math and physics for secondary schools were to be trained for five years in a joint undergraduate and master's program (CoHE, 2007b). Furthermore, the organizational structure of the faculties of education was changed. Some departments were merged while some others were opened. A new curriculum of teacher education was introduced to faculties of education. In the new program, the weight of practice-oriented courses and teaching methodology was increased. The cooperation between faculties of education and schools for teaching practice was formed.

The rationale behind this reform was to shift the focus of attention from the subject matter knowledge to pedagogical content knowledge. The CoHE argued that the earlier curricula at the faculties of education met the academic preferences of the staff instead of the needs of the students, because of the profile of the academics who were transferred from the faculties of arts and sciences to faculties of education (CoHE, 2007b). According to this claim, the faculties of education had developed an institutional culture which valued the subject matter knowledge more than the pedagogy of teaching (Şimşek & Yıldırım, 2001). Students graduating from faculties of education were like graduates of faculties of arts and sciences who were good at the subject, but did not know much about teaching (Güven, 2008). Şimşek and Yıldırım (2001) found the 1997 reform in teacher education as a solution to loose and diverse structure of teacher education programs across the country. They thought that the new regulation met the public outcry for educating quality teachers. To put it in their words, teacher education programs were "brought in line with the needs of the market" with the new reform (Şimşek & Yıldırım, 2001; p. 24). They also commented that this restructuring meant tighter control on university teacher education programs, but "this top-down approach was forced by the inefficiencies

and misguided orientations of the university system in adapting itself to the new challenges of the teaching profession" (p. 24).

The new model was heavily criticized, though, because not all faculties of education were consulted in this process. Neither did the new model depend on any research conducted as to the needs of the faculties of education. Thus, it was natural it was far from solving the problems of teacher-education programs (Okçabol, 2012). The findings of the study conducted four years after the project ended by Grossman et al. (2007) supported the claims of critics. This Fulbright sponsored study surveyed the views of 170 qualifying teacher educators from 54 state universities and interviewed 34 teacher educators. The survey results indicated that 130 participants out of 157 (82.8 %) stated National Education Development Project (NEDP) did not meet its overall goals. 79 participants (50.3 %) believed the NEDP was neither successful nor unsuccessful. 45.9 % participants stated that the projects were "somewhat less than valuable. A few things improved" (Grossman et al., 2007, p. 144). As regards the pre-service teacher education portion of the NEDP, 53.2 % of the participants asserted that it was unsuccessful. The authors found the findings as "paradoxical", because 51 % of the participants found the new teaching materials somewhat useful. They interpreted the findings in the light of the interview results. The interviewees had reported that the project was not a success because it was top-down and they were not consulted during the process (Grossman et al., 2007). Kurt (2010) also found a similar result in her study investigating teacher educators' perspectives in Turkish teacher education reform in 1982, 1998 and 2006: teacher educators asserted that these reforms were introduced top-down without the involvement of teacher educators.

Another major criticism against the model was the elimination of key courses of educational sciences (e.g. educational philosophy and educational sociology) from the pre-service teacher education program (Okçabol, 2005b; Özsoy and Ünal, 2010). These courses were intended to help teacher candidates to see the profession in a holistic manner. However, they were perceived as too critical by the policy makers (Yılmaz, 2014). The reconstruction of the faculties of education was therefore an attempt to curtail the influence of educational sciences in providing prospective teachers with an understanding of education in its political, social and economic

context (Özsoy & Ünal, 2010; Taşdan & Çuhadaroğlu, 2006; Yılmaz, 2014). Besides, these courses were taught in an insulated manner from the real life situations which did not support teacher candidates develop a perspective of classroom problems from a wider perspective (Güven, 2008). For Özsoy and Ünal (2010), the new model of teacher education redefined the act of teaching and accorded it a meaning other than being an "educationist": the teacher this model creates is a teacher working like a technician who just follows the educational goals imposed on him/her (p. 210). This teacher as a technician just carries out what is given to him or her without being able to understand education in its general framework (Taşdan & Çuhadaroğlu, 2006). According to Güven (2008):

The technocratic modernization of teacher education implies a view of learning associated with the development of specific skills by teachers whose responsibility is increasingly limited to monitoring students and preparing them for external tests and examinations. This is increasingly at odds with the complex and diverse roles that teachers have to play, not only as subject specialists but also as assessors and curriculum counselors as well as contributing to the wider goals of their school as a whole (p. 22).

As the above lines indicate, the teacher the new model prepared is a technician teaching to the test without realizing the broader goals of education according to the critics. The teacher educated in this model is also seen as a competitive teacher interested in earning the highest amount of salary possible being solely oriented towards solving daily problems and teaching effectively ignoring the problems in the country. Özsoy and Ünal (2010, p. 211) argue that such a teacher cannot be expected to conceptualize education in its social and economic dimensions let alone questioning the educational policies or the underlying philosophies of the teaching methodologies s/he follows. On the other hand, Güven (2008) maintains that this model of teacher education does not help teachers solve problems stemming from the learning difficulties of students or their diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Having been educated to perceive problems at schools as classroom-based originating from either students' lack of motivation or teachers' inability, student teachers or practicing teachers would not be able to link their practical problems to the wider sociopolitical context (Güven, 2008). As the above discussion indicates, while

some scholars believed that the 1997 reform act in teacher education met the demands for a quality education, the critics believed it reduced teacher education to a technical matter.

After eight years of implementation, the pre-service teacher education curriculum was modified by the Council of Higher Education (CoHE, 2007b). In the 2007 program, practice-oriented courses were decreased in accordance with the demands of the Faculties of Education, which found it difficult to find cooperative schools for practice teaching (CoHE, 2007b). The departments were accorded some flexibility in designing their programs and offering electives. On the other hand, a new course called community service was added to the program so that the student teachers are engaged in developing projects related to solving the problems of the community and sharing the results in seminars or conferences. Most importantly, the new program defined a target teacher role in line with the efforts to harmonize the program with the EU teacher education policies. The new program aimed to educate "problem-solving intellectuals" (CoHE, 2007b, p. 65). However, it was not clear how the new program which changed a few courses would reach these broader aims in creating reflective teachers (Odabaşı-Çimer & Çimer, 2012; Okçabol, 2012).

Currently, the program introduced in 2007 is being implemented in all faculties of education in Turkey. Because of the flexibility the new program gives to the departments in modifying their own programs, each department was able to change its program in line with the needs and interests of their students and faculty within the space provided by the CoHE. On the other hand, a nationwide standardized test for selecting public employees (including teachers) called KPSS was introduced in 2002. The existence of this test had a negative impact on the prospective teachers' understanding of their profession, as they started to become more focused on the knowledge which has a place in the centralized exam than professional and educational knowledge in itself (Thoma, 2005; Yıldırım, 2013). What is more, this exam has the risk of rendering faculties of education into preparation centers for tests (Eğitim-Sen, 2013).

As eight years passed since the last major change in the Turkish teacher education system, there are attempts to transform the system one more time in the near future. A national teacher education strategy has been developed recently in

order to provide "high quality teachers for the students of 21st century" by the Ministry of Education (MoNE, 2011). The Draft National Teacher Education Strategy Document replaces the traditional teacher role with new teacher roles. According to the document, teachers should be intellectuals who are able to solve problems and communicate well with their students. They are defined as experts who should continuously develop themselves and take leading roles (MoNE, 2011). The strategic plan has set the following objectives to educate quality teachers:

- to select the most successful students for teacher education programs,
- to better the pre-service teacher education programs,
- to select the best candidates from the pool of candidates to assign as teachers,
- to ensure the sustainable professional development of teachers,
- to improve career development and reward systems, to develop the institutional image of the Ministry as well as communication strategies (MONE, 2011, pp. 12-16).

However, having met opposition from teachers' unions, the draft plan seems to be suspended as of July 2015 because the plan offers superficial solutions to teachers' problems (Özoğlu et al., 2013) and aims to further transform teacher education in line with the aims of the market economy by offering accreditation and career steps rather than addressing the needs of the public (Eğitim-Sen, 2013). One recent development in teacher education is the transformation of Anatolian Teacher Training High Schools into other types of high schools with the claim that they do not offer extra points in the university entrance exam any more ("İşte Orta Öğretime Geçişin Detayları," 2014). Students studying at Anatolian Teacher Training High Schools used to gain a great advantage in the university exam if they chose to study at faculties of education.

Despite the reform movements, it is clear from the recent attempts of the Ministry of Education that there are still many issues concerning teacher education in Turkey. Çakıroğlu and Çakıroğlu (2003) summarized some of those controversial issues in 2003. Most of those problems are still relevant today in 2015. Owing to the large population of Turkey, there has always been a shortage of teachers to address the needs of all citizens. To meet that gap, the Ministry appointed university

graduates not qualified as teachers or created alternative routes of teacher education like certification programs. Therefore, the quality criteria were usually sacrificed for quantity. Besides, the centralized structure of education in Turkey which ignored the cultural and economical realities of different communities in the country did not create a space for the differentiation of teacher education, as in the early years of the Republic. What is more, the selection of teacher candidates is made through a standardized examination which only tests academic success. As for the curricula, the most important issue in Turkish teacher education is the relevance of the knowledge base studied at university for the daily reality of teachers at schools. Çakıroğlu and Çakıroğlu (2003) attribute this gap to the fact that teacher education programs usually focus on Western-based theories and educational materials, which are not appropriate for the Turkish context. They assert that the local intellectual movements or materials such as village institutes are not referred to in the teacher education programs. Neither are the dynamics of Turkish schools or the realities of the Turkish school system. What is more, the privileging of international publications as opposed to national research is placing domestic research at a disadvantage, which in turn prevents the accumulation of knowledge on national teacher education (Çakıroğlu & Çakıroğlu, 2003). Grossman, Sands and Brittingam (2010) observe that teacher educators in Turkey are working under heavy teaching loads, which leaves little time for discussion and evaluation of burning issues in teacher education among academics in Turkey. They also assert that it is not common for teacher educators themselves to have teaching experience at elementary or secondary schools. In a similar vein, Kurt's study (2010) indicated that lack of educational philosophy courses at education faculties and the shortage of quality teaching staff are perceived as the source of the major problems of teacher education in Turkey. Other problems are the centralized exams for selecting public employees, lack of communication among different institutions of teacher education and the implementation of practice teaching courses (Kurt, 2010). For Güven (2008), another serious problem is the teacher educators' lack of historical, philosophical and sociological perspectives. Güven (2008) goes so far as to claim that teacher education in Turkey was colonized by international agencies like the World Bank, OECD and the EU, which imposed

developing countries uniformity and conformity in education to improve the skills of the labor force.

The problems asserted by different scholars above are also verified by some empirical studies. Eret (2013) conducted a large-scale survey study with the participation of 1856 senior pre-service student teachers from seven different majors in seven different faculties of education in Turkey to assess how the 2007 CoHE teacher education program prepared teachers for their profession. The results of the study showed that the program was sufficient for equipping the teacher candidates with instructional methods and techniques and helping them building good communication channels with their students. However, the participants reported that the program did not prepare them for helping students with special needs, working under diverse conditions or communicating with parents. The participants also noted that the physical and social atmosphere of faculties of education should be improved. They also suggested case studies, role plays, discussions, field trips, video conferences and school visits should become a part of the teacher education programs in addition to lecturing. The teacher candidates also asked for research skills, curriculum development, communication skills and diction and first-aid courses to be offered in the teacher education programs. They also demanded that practice teaching courses should go hand in hand with the theoretical content.

Sarı, Karakuş and Çuhadar's study (2014) surveyed the views of 498 senior students on the Turkish teacher education system through a questionnaire developed by the authors. The participants were majoring in different fields at the faculty of education at a public university in southern Turkey. The analysis of findings showed that participants were not positive about the education they were receiving. The mean of participant responses to different categories ranged between 1.74 (views on MoNE policies) to 3.18 (views on the teaching profession). They did not think that school-based practicum courses were effective (with a mean of 3.11). They believed that their supervisors at the university did not guide them well in the process. For the participants, the quality of academic staff (with a mean of 2.95) and the quality of the courses they took (with a mean of 2.80) were average. 30 % of the participants did not believe that the academic staff were good role models while 37 % of the participants indicated there was not a democratic environment at the faculty. 35 % of

the participating students thought the academic staff respected students and only 16 % believed the courses they took were effective. More than half of the participating students found the physical conditions of the faculty as insufficient (The mean of items under the category of physical conditions was 2.24). Therefore, the authors concluded that the teacher candidates did not find the education they received at the faculty of education as satisfactory. They demanded a faculty of education with a democratic atmosphere. They asked for a program in which theory and practice were balanced. They also wanted to see higher quality lessons, as they were critical of the way lessons were given by the teaching staff. They wanted to see a faculty which has a good share of financial sources equipped with high technology. Thus, the authors suggested an evaluation of the physical conditions at faculties of education together with the way classes are given. They also recommended that the quality of teaching staff at the faculties of education should be reconsidered. Their last advice was the foundation of practicum schools under faculties of education so that the balance of theory and practice is maintained.

2.3.1 The Transformation of Teacher Roles in Turkey

Against the backdrop of the system of teacher education in Turkey, it would be wise to consider the roles assigned to teachers in Turkey throughout the history of the Republic of Turkey. Similar to every other profession, the social status of teaching profession and the daily teaching practices are influenced by the social, economic and political realities of the time (Girgin, 2013; Yıldız, 2013). As Yıldız (2013) puts it, each era produces its own teacher typology. For Yıldız (2013), the early days of the Turkish Republic saw a transformation of the former image of teacher as an "*imam*" - the religious teacher - to "the modernizing teacher of the state" as a civil servant (Yıldız, 2013). From the 1960s to 1980s, a new teacher role as the "progressive teacher of the public" or "revolutionary teacher" appeared in Turkey (Yıldız, 2013) in line with the student and worker activism in those days. After the 1980 coup in Turkey, neoliberal economic policies were enforced and the teacher profile was totally transformed from an idealist teacher to a "technician teacher teaching to the test" (Yıldız, 2013). For Altunya (1995), teaching profession

has lost its reputation steadily since 1950s as a result of deliberate actions of those holding political power.

Starting from the early days of young Turkey, teachers were accorded a social role and responsibility in the reconstruction of the modern society (Girgin, 2013; Ünal, 2005; Yıldız 2013). They were considered as public intellectuals who have the mission to take the Turkish society to the level of developed countries through teaching the values of Enlightenment (Altunpolat, 2009). Teachers were important agents to transform the social and cultural values of the society within the framework of the secular and democratic ideals of the state. Their mission was to instill the values of the new republic to the public and to ensure loyalty to "the country, to the nation, to the system of law and to the state" (Yıldız, 2013).

After the foundation years of the republic, in 1960s working classes started to appear in the public space and they became important political figures in the country. Under the relatively democratic new constitution, the civil society including labor unions and student movements became more powerful in Turkey (Yıldız, 2013). Under the circumstances in the country and around the world, "the progressive teacher of the public" came into existence (Yıldız, 2013). This teacher role was similar to the idealist teacher of the republic in the social responsibilities it assigned to teachers. Yet, this role diverged from that of the earlier modernist teacher on the basis of its orientation for the public good rather than for the state's own nation building policies (Yıldız, 2013).

On a professional basis, in both of these teacher images, teachers were seen as teaching experts who have a trusted body of knowledge on learning and teaching (Ünal, 2005). This notion of teachers as professionals continued until 1990s even though the image of idealist teacher started to erode in 1980s with the neo-liberalization of Turkish economy (Ünal, 2005). Neoliberal policies meant the reductions in services for the public good and the opening of public services such as education to private sector. Due to lack of investment, public schools started to suffer from the insufficiency of resources. Almost every stage of public education from maintenance to transportation was privatized (İnal & Akkaymak, 2012). Because of the problems at public schools, private schools and alternative education institutions like private tutoring courses (*dershane*) started to become popular. The salary of

teachers got lower than other civil servants who have similar qualifications (Okçabol, 2012). Therefore, teachers started to look for other means to earn extra money. In such a social climate in which the commercialization and privatization were the norms, the notion of a teacher as a public intellectual started to be marginalized. The collaboration among teachers started to deteriorate. Teaching profession started to be perceived as an individual act divorced of its social responsibilities (Yıldız, 2013).

Following the major change in 1997 in teacher education, the "quality" of teacher started to be discussed along with the claim that teachers were to be accused for the failure of students and schools (Yıldız, 2013). In fact, Turkey was not alone in this new discourse on teacher inefficiency; this debate on teacher quality had become popular around the world with the neoliberal policies adopted by many governments across the world (Cochran-Smith, 2005; Connell, 2009; Giroux, 2012; Yıldız, Ünlü, Alica & Sarpkaya, 2013). Accompanying this discourse, new teacher education policies which define teacher roles were adopted. In this understanding of neo-professionalism, teachers transmit knowledge in a robotic manner (Yıldız, 2013); they are directed towards doing rather than reflecting; they focus on teaching rather than learning; they are encouraged to acquire skills and competencies rather than ethics or values (Ünal, 2005). They are assessed on the basis of how they prepare their students to the test (Giroux, 2012; Yıldız, 2013). They are not allowed to participate in education policies; they do not have a chance to express their opinions on the curricula let alone taking part in curriculum development. What is worse, they are not even allowed to choose their own textbooks. Under the circumstances, it is clear that there is not much space for teacher autonomy or teacher professionalism (Apple, 2001; Yıldız et al., 2013). Besides, teachers are controlled through accountability mechanisms such as teacher competencies and evaluation on performance measures (Apple, 2001; Cochran-Smith, 2005; Ünal, 2005; Yıldız, 2013). Rather than reflecting on the channels to improve student development, teachers are directed towards thinking about their own career development catching up with the performance measures (Cochran-Smith, 2005; Yıldız et al., 2013).

On the other hand, teachers in Turkey are reported to be the ones who take the least amount of in-service teacher education among the OECD countries according to the Teaching and Learning International Study (TALIS) report (Büyüköztürk,

Akbaba-Altun & Yıldırım, 2010). There are a significant number of teachers who retire without ever attending an in-service teacher education course. Teachers in Turkey also have to keep up with the heavy workload, flexible working conditions, and abundance of paperwork. They are given lower amounts of money when compared to their counterparts working at other institutions (Altunya, 1995). Besides, the difficulty of being appointed as public teachers due to the limited teaching positions allocated to public schools forced teacher candidates to look for alternative flexible job opportunities in private tutoring institutes in order not to be unemployed (Keskin Demirer, 2012). Working under very heavy workloads like robots, these teachers are exploited severely (Keskin Demirer, 2012). These conditions also complement the alienation of teachers to the extent that they have become hopeless as to their professions and to their futures (Yıldız et al., 2013).

Against this background, the dominant teacher role in Turkey is that of a teacher as a technician (Girgin, 2012; Ünal, 2005; Yıldız et al., 2013). From the role of an idealist teacher, teachers have been transformed into an obedient technician struggling to survive financially, which resulted in the profession of teaching losing its high status among the public.

2.4 The System of Foreign Language Education in Turkey

In the Ottoman Empire, foreign language meant Arabic and Persian learnt for religious purposes for many years (Soruc & Cepik, 2013). The study of Western languages including French, German and English in the Turkish history start with economic and military relationships with the European countries during the Ottoman period in the 19th century (Demircan, 1988). As a result of these developments, missionary schools, minority schools and schools opened by foreign investments giving instruction in Western languages started to be established in Turkey such as English-medium Robert College in 1863 and French-medium Galatasaray Imperial Lycée in 1869 in İstanbul (Demircan, 1988; Selvi, 2011). In the Republican period, however, with the unification of education, all of these schools started to operate under the Ministry of Education following secular programs. In the foundation years, the focus of attention was given to mother tongue education, which was officially Turkish (Demircan, 1988). In line with the efforts to build a nation-state, Turkish

was given utmost attention. In order to end the duality in written and spoken Turkish, a reform act in Turkish was carried out in which Turkish was standardized and purified to do away with the influence of Arabic and Persian on Turkish. In 1927, Persian and Arabic courses were withdrawn from the national curriculum. From then on, the study of foreign languages came to mean Western languages in Turkey (Demircan, 1988).

In education institutions of all stages, foreign language courses have been offered since the beginning of the Turkish Republic. While French kept its leading role as the most popular foreign language until 1950s in Turkey, it lost its primary position to English after 1950s (Demircan, 1988), as Turkey became a member of international organizations under the heavy influence of the USA (Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004). The popularity of English rose ever since 1950s and it reached such a level that not only English is taught as a foreign language, it is also the medium of English in many public and private schools and universities in Turkey. Following Turkey's integration with the globalizing world, English became more and more influential in social and cultural life from shops to media (Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004). Although Turkey was never colonized and English has not been used for daily communication in Turkish society, it is ironical that English-medium instruction, a practice originally imposed on the colonized countries, became widespread in Turkish public and private schools and higher education institutions (Doğançay-Aktuna & Kızıltepe, 2005; Selvi, 2014). Belonging to the expanding circle in Kachru's (1985) circles, Turkey, in fact, displays the characteristics of outer circle countries to a certain extent (Doğançay-Aktuna & Kızıltepe, 2005; Selvi, 2011) with the top-down imposition of English-medium instruction to the disadvantage of the mother tongue development. This could possibly be explained with the dreams of Turkey to become "little America" since 1950s.

The first English-medium institution in Turkey was the Middle-East Technical University, which was established in 1956 in Ankara. When Robert College was transformed into Boğaziçi University in 1971, it became the second English-medium higher education institution (Demircan, 1988). During this period until late 1970s, the spread of English in Turkey was planned (Büyükkantarcioglu,

2004). With the Higher Education Law of 1981, English-medium instruction at higher education institutions was allowed and foreign language courses became compulsory. Following this law, some faculties like the faculties of medicine at public universities started to offer English or German-medium instruction (Demircan, 1988). Later on, almost all private universities starting from Bilkent University began to give English-medium instruction. Today, there are many programs offering English-medium instruction even at Turkish-medium public universities.

As for English-medium instruction in secondary schools, it started with the Ankara College in 1952 followed by Education Colleges (*Maarif Kolejleri*) in 1955 (Demircan, 1988). As these schools did not meet the growing demand for English, which meant better education and employment opportunities, English-medium public schools called Anatolian High Schools were established in 1975 (Büyükkantarcıoğlu, 2004). With the privatization in 1980s in Turkey, private schools also started to give English-medium instruction, which meant that Turkey had an expanding market for international publishing houses (Demircan, 1988). The demand for English grew so high in 1990s that in 1994, super high-schools which offered intensive English preparatory programs were opened. As opposed to English-medium Anatolian high schools in which science and math courses were given in English, in super high schools, medium of instruction was Turkish. Due to the difficulty of assigning teachers who are qualified enough to teach content courses in English together with the resentment towards English-medium instruction at high schools, the practice of English-medium science lessons was discontinued in 2002 (Doğançay-Aktuna & Kızıltepe, 2005). These schools went on to include English-intensive preparatory programs until 2006 (Selvi, 2011), when the government abolished all preparatory programs from the public schools while extending the duration of high schools to 4 years. The number of English courses was 24 hours a week in the preparatory programs. After the abolishment of preparatory programs, students started to have 10 hours of English in the freshman year of high school. In 2012, the number of English classes for the first year of high school was decreased to 6 hours. This act in 2006 literally ended English-medium and English-intensive education in public schools while remaining in private schools. With the reduction of English courses in public

high schools, the opportunity to reach a high proficiency in English became a privilege only to be acquired by students belonging to higher classes (Selvi, 2011), which seems to be in line with the world trends as Vergara (2014) asserts.

In Turkish-medium state schools, foreign language courses were offered starting from the 6th grade for a long time till 1997. When the compulsory education was increased to eight years including secondary school in 1997, English was included in the primary school curriculum starting from 4th and 5th grades and a new course called *Teaching English to Young Learners* appeared in the pre-service teacher education program of 1997. With the recent curricular reform called 4+4+4, English is now offered to primary school students from second graders onwards (MoNE, 2013). The English curriculum has always been designed by the Ministry of National Education in Turkey. While course books of the international publishing houses were used in Anatolian high schools, books prepared by the ministry under limited resources had to be followed in the Turkish-medium public schools. However, with the latest changes, public schools do not have an option to choose commercial course books, but are required to use the recent books written by the committees at the ministry whereas private schools are free to choose their own textbooks.

The major method of foreign language teaching was grammar-translation for a long time in Turkey (Kırkgöz, 2005). Lessons were mostly based on grammar and writing neglecting speaking and listening skills (Bear, 1992). In 1944, direct method started to be used in Gazi Education Institute and became popular. Later on, audio-lingual method was adopted and the course book called *English for Turks* was followed for generations. Language laboratories were established by the allocation of large amounts of public funds. However, they did not prove much effective (Demircan, 1988). With the reform act in 1997 of the Ministry of National Education, English Language Teaching curricula were changed in a more communicative direction focusing on four skills (Kırkgöz, 2005). Teachers were defined as facilitators. The aim of the program was to give students communicative skills. Still, as teacher surveys indicated, this communicative turn in the program did not cure the chronic problems of foreign language teaching in Turkey (Kırkgöz, 2007), where students and teachers have had scarce opportunities to use English

outside the classroom (Büyükkantarcıoğlu, 2004). At public schools, the number of English lessons given each week continued to stay very limited. Curriculum content was very dense. Classes have always been overcrowded. The course books were not appropriate for the program. Schools did not have enough resources (Kırkgöz, 2007).

In 2006, another reform movement in education took place. Earlier curriculum of 1997 was harmonized with the European Union. It was still centered on communicative language teaching, but theoretical explanations on the curriculum were provided this time. In the new program, a major innovation was the performance-based evaluation through portfolios. In 2004, a major project for teacher training on European Union was initiated. 7000 teachers were trained in the program. A book of guidelines for the European Union was also broadcast on the ministry's website so that teachers could disseminate the history, administrative structure, values and educational policies of the Union to the students. Teachers were also provided with detailed information on the exchange programs of the EU as a result of which they started joint programs with the European Union countries (Kırkgöz, 2007).

As can be seen, Turkey's integration to the global world brought with it a widespread popularity of English in Turkey. While it was kept under control up to 1980s, it began to resonate freely with the neoliberal policies of 1980. In the meantime, English-medium instruction became established in the country and started to be perceived as a prerequisite for a good quality education by the public. Yet, as both English-medium instruction and English preparatory programs were abolished from public schools, parents began to feel obliged to send their children to private institutions for a high level of English. This policy change, in fact, did not mean a radical shift from English-medium instruction to Turkish-medium instruction, but meant the door was left open for the private schools to get in.

2.5 The System of Foreign Language Teacher Education in Turkey

As regards foreign language teacher education, Turkish pre-service foreign language teacher education was not systematized until 1980s (Salihoğlu, 2012; Soruc and Cepik, 2013). Foreign language teachers were educated at different types of institutions following varied curricula. With the foundation of the CoHE, an attempt

to standardize foreign language teacher education programs was made when all foreign language teacher education institutions were moved under the auspices of universities and Departments of Foreign Language Education (FLE) were founded. For Enginarlar (1997), the decision to establish new departments of foreign language education was right, but the quality of teachers educated was a matter of concern. The first program of foreign language teacher education introduced by the CoHE program had an abundance of language courses (30 courses) with one language teaching and one practicum course (see Chapter 6.5.3 for further details). Although the CoHE had introduced a curriculum of foreign language teacher education in 1982, it did not adopt a strict interventionist policy and universities enjoyed relative freedom in developing their own programs until 1997. During the period between 1982 and 1997, the curricula of departments of FLE were still diverse (Enginarlar, 1997). In addition, the number of academic staff specializing in foreign language teaching was limited (Enginarlar, 1997; Salihoğlu, 2012). Most programs only had one practice teaching course with limited number of hours, which prevented student teachers from developing their practical knowledge. Enginarlar (1997) described some of the problems faced in teaching practice sites as follows: the perception of practicum courses as a burden by school administrations, the mismatch between the schools of practicum and the settings where graduates worked, and the large number of students assigned to each mentor teacher. As a solution to these problems, Enginarlar (1997) suggested a close co-operation between the MoNE and the CoHE for describing and organizing the responsibilities of schools and universities. When it came to the student complaints about the length and scheduling of the practice teaching course, students were unhappy about the scarce opportunities they had for teaching practice. They also raised concerns about observing the same mentor-teacher for the whole semester without receiving much guidance about the objective of their observation. As for university supervision, Enginarlar (1997) noted that problems might arise from the large number of students assigned to university supervisors, the lack of expertise, experience and willingness of academic staff to teach this course.

The reform of 1997 was a "revolutionary" development in pre-service teacher education according to Soruc and Cepik (2013) because the reform movement

brought a more practice oriented program and a new partnership program between schools and faculties of education (CoHE, 2007b). The new program included three practice teaching courses to bridge the gap between theory and practice. However, Soruc and Cepik (2013) believe it did not ameliorate the problems reported in the earlier programs. Because this partnership was not carefully planned, a good collaboration between the faculty members and mentor teachers was not maintained (Soruc & Cepik, 2013). There were still problems in practice teaching courses as Seferoglu's (2006) study indicated: student teachers were feeling bored of observing similar types of activities and the same mentor teachers. Their observations were not focused and they did not get enough feedback from the cooperating teachers. Moreover, the links between course contents and real life classroom situations were not formed and students were not able to practice teaching as much as they needed. Having surveyed the evaluation reports of 176 participants at a foreign language teacher education program for four consecutive years, Seferoglu (2006) concluded that despite the reform movement, perceptions of the participants about the practicum courses had not changed.

Şallı-Çopur's study (2008) was another study evaluating the 1997 program as implemented at a pre-service foreign language teacher education program. The study was conducted with the participation of program graduates and elite employers. The findings of the study demonstrated that graduates felt competent in most areas while they reported they needed improvement in speaking English, teaching productive skills, classroom management and assessment. Participants also indicated that there was need for better links established between different components of the program to avoid overlaps in course contents. The study also showed that practice teaching courses in the program did not help teacher candidates develop their practical teaching skills. Neither did the course materials meet the requirements of real life classrooms. The findings of the study lent support to the argument that 1997 curriculum was satisfactory in educating language teachers competent in teaching methodology. But the study revealed that the program did not offer much help for student teachers to develop spoken English skills or practical teaching skills as much as they needed.

In 2007, the pre-service teacher education programs in Turkey were updated. According to a CoHE document (CoHE, 2007b), a committee of 25 people was composed, which worked with the MoNE representatives to prepare a draft curriculum. This draft plan was sent to universities to get their feedback. After this process, the new program started to be implemented. Due to the problems experienced at schools by students and supervisors, the faculties of education asked the CoHE to reduce the number of practice teaching courses. Therefore, one practice teaching course was removed from the program in 2007 (CoHE, 2007b). The new program, which is still in practice as of 2015, included two practicum courses. Some courses were added such as Teaching Language Skills, Drama and Second Foreign Language to the program. Other courses like phonetics, semantics, reading and writing were removed (Yavuz & Zehir-Topkaya, 2013).

Coskun and Daloglu (2010) evaluated the 2007 program as implemented by a public university in Turkey through questionnaires and interviews following Peacock's (2009) model of program evaluation. The findings of the study were similar to the results of earlier studies of program evaluation (Enginarlar, 1997; Seferoglu, 2006; Şallı-Çopur, 2008) because students were critical of the scarce practice opportunities they had, the lack of correspondence between the program and their needs and overlapping content in some courses. Students also thought that student presentations were overly used in the program. However, 84 % of the 55 students who took part in the study stated that the program helped them become reflective teachers. They also said that the program gave them a sound theoretical knowledge of English language teaching and they had good rapport with the teacher educators. The remarks of teacher educators, however, focused on the linguistic side of the program rather than the pedagogic side. They believed that the program does not have enough courses for student teachers to improve their English proficiency (Coskun & Daloglu, 2010).

Another study investigating the perceptions of foreign language teacher educators concerning the 2007 program was conducted by Yavuz and Zehir-Topkaya (2013). Their study investigated the perceptions of 18 teacher educators from five state universities in Turkey regarding the 2007 CoHE program through open-ended questionnaires. The findings of the study indicated that teacher educators had

positive attitudes towards some of the changes in the organization of the program: extension of some courses such as Approaches and Methods in ELT (English Language Teaching) to two terms, the introduction of some new courses such as Public Speaking and Drama. The participant teacher educators also raised issues about the sequence (e.g. the semester when translation or research course is given), credits, convergence (i.e. reading and writing courses were combined in the new program) and removal of some other courses (e.g. advanced writing skills). Teacher educators were also critical about the way the new program was introduced top-down, as reported in Grossman et al. (2007) (see Section 2.3). Teacher educators stated that the views of teacher educators and/or student teachers were not considered in the process of curriculum development. The participants of the study also noted that education faculties, the CoHE and the MoNE should work in collaboration.

A recent study conducted by Uztosun and Troudi (2015) investigated the opinions of 27 lecturers from 15 different universities on the 2007 CoHE curricula through open-ended questionnaires and interviews. As in earlier studies, participants of the study indicated that their voices were ignored in the change process. They also asserted that the basic elements of curriculum development such as needs analysis and program evaluation were neglected in the process of curricular change. They found the addition of some practical courses such as teaching young learners as positive while they were critical of the removal of some language proficiency courses.

As the above mentioned studies display, the 1997 reform and the 2007 program revision allowed student teachers to develop some competencies. Yet, it did not help them gain practical knowledge due to the limited number of practice teaching courses. All studies reported above revealed that the courses foreign language teacher education students take do not help teacher candidates deal with the classroom reality, which might indicate a need for a substantial change in the teacher education program.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

There is a theoretical framework underlying each research study whether or not it is acknowledged. Theoretical framework of a study permeates all stages of a study from determining the purpose of the study to the questions asked, from the research design to what is observed in the field (Merriam, 2009). It also informs what is not seen, what is not asked or addressed in a study. The analysis and interpretation of a study are also derived from the concepts of theoretical framework. In this study, critical pedagogy provides the theoretical lens. To understand the philosophical foundations of critical pedagogy, this chapter will first survey the conceptual framework of critical theory referring to the works of philosophers like Althusser, Bourdieu and Gramsci. Then, it will trace the development of the basic concepts of critical pedagogy from Freire to Giroux. After that, the reflection of critical pedagogy into second/foreign language teaching will be explored bringing the discussions of critical applied linguistics into the foreground.

3.1 Critical Theory

Critical theory is a vast field of study impossible to squeeze into the limited space of a dissertation study. However, without the essential concepts it brings forth, the interpretation of a critical study would be limited. Therefore, this section will give general information on the major concepts of critical theory far from being a thorough description of the theory itself. To give the reader an ease of following the ideas in an orderly fashion, this section will mainly follow a thematic order, rather than a chronological order.

3.1.1 Historical Materialism, Base and Superstructure

Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels developed one of the most ground-breaking and controversial theoretical analyses of social life (Watson, 2012). Whether or not one embraces their call for revolutionary change, it is almost impossible not to

acknowledge their broad social theory covering the realms of philosophy, sociology, economics, politics, history, cultural studies and many other fields (Joseph, 2006). Marx and Engels explained how the capitalist society emerged from feudalism, how it operates and how it includes the seeds of its own destruction (Ollman, 2009). For them, capitalism is based on the clash between the class of capitalists, who own the means of production, and the class of workers (proletariat), who have to sell their labor power. The analysis of the relations between these two classes forms the essence of Marxism (Ollman, 1987).

Marx's philosophy was both dialectical and materialist. His deep belief in dialectics enabled him to view social phenomenon not as fixed and stable but in constant change and in interaction with other social, economic and cultural factors (Small, 2005). His tendency to situate all social events in their historical context provided him a perspective to examine events in their past, present and future (Ollman, 2009). His dialectic was not idealist as Hegel's, but materialist. He was interested more in the effect of social conditions on people's ideas, rather than those ideas shaping material life (Sarup, 1978). For him, reality and people's consciousness were closely linked to each other, as his famous quote suggests: "Men make their own history, but they do not make it just as they please; they do not make it under circumstances chosen by themselves, but under circumstances directly encountered, given and transmitted from the past" (Marx, 1852/2001, p. 7).

For Marx, what characterizes a society or what forms its "base" is its mode and relations of production. From this economic base or substructure grows a superstructure which consists of other secondary aspects of life such as political, legal, cultural, literary, philosophical or religious aspects (Ferretter, 2006). According to this view, the forces and relations of production ultimately determine the legal system, education system, cultural and philosophical production in a given society (Small, 2005). The superstructure may also have an effect on the base, but its effect may be minor when compared to the major influence of substructure on the superstructure (Ollman, 2009).

In historical materialism, Marx describes how one form of society develops into another one when the mode of production changes and how those changing forces of production shape the new legal, political and cultural institutions of the

superstructure (Watson, 2012). For instance, feudalism developed into capitalism and Marx argued that capitalism would be replaced by socialism in time, because the capitalist system involved inner conflicts and contradictions between social classes. Marx believed once the proletariat realized they are exploited by the ruling classes, they would overthrow the system (Marx and Engels, 1848/2004). Thus, the doom of the capitalist system existed in its own existence, for Marx.

Despite Marx's deep faith in the eventual demise of capitalist system, he was also aware of the ideology produced by the ruling classes to protect their own existence and the status quo. Marx stated that in addition to the means of production, dominant classes govern the production of ideas, as well (Marx, 1845/1994). They shape the consciousness of working classes by disseminating the ideas that protect their own interest as if they are for the interests of everyone, as the following quote reveals:

In every epoch the ideas of the ruling class are the ruling ideas, that is, the class that is the dominant *material* power of society is at the same time its dominant *intellectual* power. The class that has at its disposal the means of material production also for that reason disposes simultaneously of the means of intellectual production, so that in general it exercises its power over the ideas of those who lack the means. The dominant thoughts are, furthermore, nothing but the ideal expression of the dominant material relations; they are the dominant material relations conceived as thoughts, in other words, the expression of the social which make one class the dominant one, and thus the ideas of its dominance. (Marx, 1845/1994, p. 145)

Marx believed that emancipation could only take place when the working classes overcome their "false consciousness" - the internalized form of bourgeoisie ideology - through praxis. However, Marx and Engels argued that class consciousness was not enough for the transformation of society. Class struggle and class action were also necessary (Marx and Engels, 1848/2004). In that sense, they did not see education run by the dominant classes as a primary force for the overthrow of capitalism (Sarup, 1978). They asserted that laborers would develop that consciousness in the work conditions they faced every day.

Althusser, a Marxist theorist, further developed the base-superstructure model of Marxism. As a response to the criticisms of economic determinism raised against

Marxism, Althusser examined Engels's writings and argued that even if the mode of production is the ultimate determining factor for the elements of the superstructure, these elements also have an effect on each other and they even influence the economic base itself (Ferretter, 2006). Having an influence on each other's development, Althusser asserted, superstructural aspects have their "relative autonomy." (Ferretter, 2006, p. 44) Althusser wrote each cultural product is neither a mere work of individual genius, nor the product of the economic system. It is a result of complex network of interactions (Althusser, 1994).

One of the most important contributions of Althusser is about ideology. For Althusser, ideology is the way people make sense of the world. Human beings are born into it and thus they take it for granted (Althusser, 1994). It is not a body of thought people acquire by critical thinking; rather, people just assume some phenomenon as given or as common sense without questioning its inner or deeper meaning (Ferretter, 2006). Ferreter (2006) gives the example of people in business world. They may perceive the work life as that of competition, hard work and intelligence without ever thinking it in terms of exploitation, alienation and dominance, as they internalize the dominant ideology of the time. Althusser (1994) thinks that this is a misrepresentation of reality by the ruling classes to deceive the working class. What is more, even the bourgeoisie believes in the myth it has created (Ferretter, 2006).

3.1.1.1 Ideological State Apparatus

To explain how the ruling classes maintain their existing privileges and reproduce the relations of production, Althusser developed the concept of the Ideological State Apparatus. Building onto what Marxist theory called the State apparatus - the repressive state institutions (government, armed forces, police, courts, prison) which are used to enforce the rules of the dominant classes - Althusser argued there is one more apparatus used by the state called "ideological state apparatus." As opposed to "Repressive State Apparatus," ideological state apparatus does not assort to violence, it works through ideology. Ideological state apparatus is used through distinct institutions such as religion, education, family, legal system, politics, trade unions, communications and culture. While the repressive state

apparatus uses force to protect the status quo, ideological state apparatus justifies the use of that force (Althusser, 1994). Besides, ideological state apparatus attempts to manufacture consent among the public so that there is no need to use force. To put it another way, repressive state apparatus and ideological state apparatus complement each other.

For Althusser (1994), educational ideological state apparatus is the major ideological state apparatus in the capitalist system replacing the role of church in feudalism. He notes that children are instructed for hours every day in the ruling ideology of the dominant classes through courses like morals, religion and philosophy. They do not only learn know-how, but they also learn to act as they are told and to obey the rules set by the dominant classes. What is worse, Althusser argues, they are taught to believe that they are free acting individuals devoid of the influence of ideologies. Althusser believes the notion of a "subject" is also the creation of the dominant ideology to convince people that they act on their free will. Althusser (1994) writes, through the use of the ideological state apparatus, the ruling classes manage to shape the perception of dominated classes. What they take for granted as common sense is actually what is imposed by the ruling ideology. What is striking is that school does this imposition of values under the guise of a neutral stance.

Other than molding the consciousness of exploited classes, the educational ideological state apparatus also maintains, reproduces and justifies the existing social roles. Children from all classes are taken to school and they are taught either the skills relevant for the dominant ideology (math, natural sciences, etc.) or pure ideology (morals, philosophy, etc.) (Althusser, 1994). During the process, not all of them are able to reach higher levels of education. Those who leave school early become workers and farmers. Those who are lucky to continue their education become technicians, white collars, civil servants or petit bourgeoisie. Those who are able to receive higher education become intellectuals, managers, business administrators, politicians or police officers. While some of these are given the mission of exploiting (e.g. capitalists and business administrators), some of them receive the task of using force (e.g. military staff, police force, politicians) and some acquire the role of being professional ideologues. The rest have the role of being

exploited. But they are also adorned with the relevant ideologies (e.g. national, professional, civil and apolitical moral values) to make sure they are obedient workers (Althusser, 1994).

Apart from directing attention on the social reproduction by the schooling system, Pierre Bourdieu, a French sociologist, developed a theory of cultural reproduction focusing on the interaction between culture, class and domination at work in the education system (Giroux, 1983). In his influential essay called "The School as a Conservative Force: Scholastic and Cultural Inequalities" (Bourdieu, 1966/2012), Bourdieu denounces the fact that school is still seen "as a liberating force and as a means of increasing social mobility" (p. 32) while in fact it is just a means of reproducing the existing social roles. He notes that "the son of a manager is eighty times as likely to get to university as the son of an agricultural worker and forty times as likely as the son of a factory worker ..." (Bourdieu, 1966/2012, p. 32). What is worse, the school also gives a justification for the distribution of unequal social roles through a severe elimination system. Children coming from disadvantaged backgrounds are not able to pass the exams and they are eliminated. In fact, they are not on an equal footing with privileged children, as they do not get extra support from their families or private tutors to do well in the exams.

For Bourdieu, the reason for the marginalized children to fail is not the lack of a natural talent, but the lack of a social gift in the form of a "cultural capital" which families transmit to their children (Bourdieu, 1966/2012). Children coming from privileged social classes acquire the highly valued dominant cultural and behavioral norms at home; therefore, they find it easy to meet the expectations of school culture. However, children coming from less privileged social classes do not possess those dominant norms of behavior and they have a hard time getting used to the unwritten rules of behavior at school. They even drop out of school if they cannot manage to adapt to the school culture (Bourdieu, 1966/2012).

3.1.1.2 Cultural Capital and Symbolic Violence

Bourdieu (1983/2001) argues that capital shows itself in three different forms: *economic capital*, *cultural capital* and *social capital*. Economic capital is the capital that might be converted into money while social capital is a network of social

relationships. It is closely related to one's ability to make or preserve connections. When it comes to cultural capital, it is the linguistic or cultural skills that individuals inherit from their families in their class boundaries. This varies from worldviews to codes of behavior (e.g. eating, speaking, clothing styles). By transmitting cultural capital to their children, dominant classes make sure that their children have the same privileged position as themselves in society (Bourdieu, 1983/2001). Schools have a significant role in legitimizing and reproducing cultural capital by expecting from all students to talk, to act and to work in line with the norms of the ruling classes. They demand from all students the knowledge, skills and behavior only students from specific families and classes have (Giroux, 1983). The end result of this expectation is: while children who are already privileged presume their privileges, the children at a disadvantage continue to lose.

Bourdieu thinks of social activity and education as a sort of game in which there are good and bad players, winners and losers (Grenfell & James, 1998). The players play the game through intuition because the rules of the game are never explicitly stated. Those who possess the cultural capital know how to behave strategically and win the game; those who do not are doomed to failure. Thus, social inequalities are reproduced in the social field (Grenfell and James, 1998). Ironically, the losing party accepts the situation as it is rarely questioning the underlying reasons behind that. Those who are marginalized even blame themselves for their failure losing their self-esteem. They are persuaded that they were *the ones* who could not make use of the options ahead of them. For Bourdieu, this is an exercise of "symbolic violence." Even the oppressed themselves internalize the ruling ideology and believe they are not as talented as the people belonging to a different group of people (Giroux, 1983).

3.1.1.3 Hegemony

Living and writing in a period earlier than both Althusser and Bourdieu, Antonio Gramsci (1891-1937), an Italian Marxist theorist, also focused on the role of ideology to operate in educational institutions for the benefit of capitalist classes (Mayo, 1999). To highlight the dominance of ruling classes over subordinate groups in society, he developed the concept of hegemony. Through hegemony which

operates through mass media, political parties and educational institutions, Gramsci (2000) suggested, powerful social groups influence public opinion and win the consent of the dominated groups. Educational institutions are important institutions of hegemony as they prepare students for their adult lives by teaching them to accept the existing social relations as they are and giving them the message that they are natural facts of life that cannot be changed (Small, 2005). Thus, for Gramsci, schools are far from being neutral and serve the interests of the bourgeoisie (Mayo, 1999).

For Gramsci, schools should provide humanistic education to all children so that each member of the society develops their talents to take leading roles in the running of the society (Lombardi, 2000). He is against the separation of schools as "classical" and "vocational" schools, as he believes such a distinction reproduces the existing social roles by depriving the working class children from the humanistic culture and the ability to struggle for bettering their lives. Gramsci (2000) argues that children who are sent to vocational schools do not get a chance to develop their intellectual talents, rather they are merely taught the manual labors. Gramsci (2000) maintains that manual labor should not be separated from intellectual labor. Therefore, he calls for a unitary humanistic education that does not force students to make decisions as to their vocations at a young age. For Gramsci, after developing their intellectual powers through discipline and hard work, students should be able to make informed decisions about their future career (Lombardi, 2000).

3.1.1.4 Organic Intellectuals

Owing to the division of roles in the society, Gramsci argues, intellectuals have been accorded a prestigious role and they started to situate themselves above the working class people. For Gramsci (2000), working class people should free themselves from the hegemony of the traditional intellectuals. He thinks each social class should produce its organic intellectuals so that these intellectuals work for the interests of the class they grew from (Gramsci, 2000). The organic intellectuals working for the subordinate should not be dependent on the traditional intellectuals for ideas. They should produce their own ideas relevant for their own life situations. The main role Gramsci accords to intellectuals is to organize, direct and educate people in order to challenge and transform the existing order (Lombardi, 2000).

The pedagogy to be used in educating the proletariat, Gramsci notes, should be different from the bourgeoisie's approach to education which mainly focuses on the transmission of encyclopedic information to learners. The kind of education Gramsci suggests is one which attempts to focus on people's problems and their life conditions. The pedagogy Gramsci advocates is a dialogic one where "every teacher is always a pupil and every pupil a teacher." (Gramsci, 1971 as cited in Mayo, 2010, p. 29). This education should arouse in them the curiosity to discover themselves and lead them to understand the meaning of their productive labor as well as their historical role to transform the system. For Gramsci, the ultimate aim of democratic education is to do away with the distinction between intellectuals and non-intellectuals (Gramsci, 2000).

In line with the primary role given to intellectuals for the education of the public and for the transformation of the society, teachers also carry the mission of intellectuals to represent the critical consciousness of the society in Gramsci's theory (Anjon, 2011). They are not only responsible to teach a subject matter, they also have the responsibility to raise the consciousness of students as to the possibility of another system (Lombardi, 2000). As opposed to the limited agency given to human beings by Marx, Althusser or Bourdieu, human agency occupies a great space in Gramsci's theory (Giroux, 1983). As the importance Gramsci accords to intellectuals and teachers displays, Gramsci's theory is distinguished by his emphasis on human subjectivity, class consciousness and class struggle. As opposed to Althusser's theory which places no room for human subjectivity, Gramsci is known for his "philosophy of human praxis" (Mayo, 2000). He develops his whole theory on the ways of raising the consciousness of the public, especially the members of industrial working class for emancipation. Though ruling classes exert hegemony over the subordinate classes, the consciousness of people has some contradictions in itself which allow for counter-hegemonic discourses to develop (Giroux, 1983). Gramsci strongly believes that if people are educated by critical teachers, they can activate the inner good sense in people to resist the dominant ideologies. This comes to mean that despite being hegemonic and reproductive sites, schools may become spaces for producing resistance if teachers work in close interaction with students to challenge the dominant ideology (Anjon, 2011).

3.1.2 Division of Labor and Alienation

*Philosophers have hitherto only interpreted the world in various ways;
the point is to change it.*

Karl Marx, 1845

For Marx, labor forms the very essence of human activity because only human beings are able to reflect and only can they change the world (Sarup, 1978). Marx believes human beings realize their humanity through labor. However, the meaning of work has undergone a radical change under the conditions of capitalist economy (Edgell, 2012). Before the advent of industrial capitalism 200 years ago, work meant a human activity for satisfying basic needs for survival. It is only a recent phenomenon that work is associated with regular paid employment conducted at a separate place from home (Edgell, 2012). With the shift of the meaning of work, the place and function of it in a person's life changed. While it was a humanizing activity once, Marx asserted, it started to become a tool for dehumanization under the alienating circumstances of work under capitalism (Sarup, 1978). Marx revealed that as workers have no means to survive other than selling their labor power to those who own the means of production (machines, raw materials, factories) in capitalism, capitalists extract "surplus value" from them by forcing them to do more work than is necessary for their survival (Ollman, 2009). This unequal relationship between the capitalist and the working class is the reason for conflict in the capitalist mode of production, for Marx.

To denote this desperate situation workers find themselves in the disempowering capitalist system of production, Marx used the term "alienation" (Ollman, 1987). With the rise of industrialism, work became timed-labor carried out at a place outside home under heavy work conditions with limited freedom and control over the production process by the laborer. Being isolated from the means of production and having a secondary place in the relations of production, Marx argued, it is impossible for the workers to be creative. Under the circumstances where "the laborer exists for the process of production, not the process of production for the laborer" (Marx, 1887/2010, p. 490), it is inevitable for the worker to become

alienated. For Marx, "alienation is built into the nature of work under a capitalist mode of production" (Edgell, 2012, p. 32).

Marx maintained that alienation is seen in four different forms in capitalism:

- 1) Product alienation (workers are alienated from the products they produce, as they have no control over the products which belong to the employer),
- 2) Activity alienation (as the work itself does not include any space for the creativity or decision-making on the part of the worker, it is alienating for the worker; the capitalist decides what to produce or how to do it),
- 3) Species alienation (as a result of product and activity alienation, workers are alienated from their human nature),
- 4) Social alienation (as workers are alienated from their products, works and themselves, they are also alienated from one another through competition and indifference) (Marx, 1844/1994; Ollman, 2009).

In other words, while workers' labor is becoming a commodity, workers are becoming the object of their productions (Sarup, 1978). In Ollman's words, they become "physically weakened, mentally confused and mystified, isolated and virtually powerless" (Ollman, 1987). Not only are laborers away from developing their mental and creative powers in industrial capitalism, but also they are ruined mentally and physically (Ferreter, 2006).

Marx argued that emancipation from alienation is only possible through revolutionary action (Marx and Engels, 1848/2004). For Marx, alienation was a result of the specific historical situation and it could be overcome by action. Although Marx believed that capitalist mode of production shapes the material conditions of life and the consciousness of human beings, he also asserted that human beings are capable of transforming their conditions through *praxis*, which is the unity of reflection and action. Marx defined *praxis* as the coexistence of thought and action (Small, 2005, p. 41). Therefore, theory alone is not capable of

transforming the world, and action without thinking does not result in everlasting change. For Marx, the ultimate task of philosophy is not solely understanding reality, but changing it (Marx, 1845/1994). An important dimension of Marx's revolutionary praxis is the unity of changing oneself and changing circumstances: "In revolutionary activity the changing of oneself coincides with the changing of circumstances" (Small, 2005, p. 41). For the revolutionary action to take place, workers need to develop a class consciousness and come to realize that they are reduced to the status of an object through exploitation and alienation. Only if the proletariat is aware of the fact that by changing their own worldview, they are able to change the world, the revolutionary action will become possible (Sarup, 1978).

Marx believed that in order to solve the problem of alienation, it was necessary to overthrow capital and all property relations (Marx and Engels, 1848/2004). It was also necessary to abolish the division of labor which resulted in the further estrangement of workers, as it prevented workers from developing an overall perspective into the work they conduct and deprived them from becoming skilled laborers. What is more, division of labor led to the separation of the planning and execution. While planning was made by some experts, the execution of the production was made by other people, which further contributed to their estrangement process.

3.1.2.1 Taylorism, Fordism and Deskilling

While Marx's analysis of alienation implied the changed work conditions for workers with the industrialism in the nineteenth century, production and organization of work further changed in the twentieth century (Watson, 2012). With the advance of technology and the introduction of new systems of management, the character of the work carried out by the workers started to change (Edgell, 2012).

In the beginning of the industrialization era, the manufacture of goods was made from the beginning to the end by highly skilled craft workers. However, for the capitalist regime of production, this was not a very effective method of production, as it did not allow for control of the workers by the management who bought the labor power for a specific period of time (Edgell, 2012). Hence, Taylor, an American management expert, developed a method of management, which came to be known

as Taylorism, to make sure labor power was transformed into productive labor (Thursfield, 2000). According to the model, first, knowledge of how best to produce a certain product would be gathered and categorized. Then, this knowledge would be distributed to a set of rules by the management on how to perform a task. Finally, with this exclusive right on the knowledge, the production process would be controlled (Braverman, 1974). Braverman, the originator of the "deskilling" thesis, argued that this management technique actually separated the conception of work from the execution of it. While all the mental work was to be conducted by the management, the manual work to be performed was simplified and standardized (Braverman, 1974). Even though this new system lowered production costs, it had a "degrading effect" on the worker. It led them to lose their technical skills as well as their autonomy on their work.

In addition to the organizational means of controlling production, capitalists also started to use machinery to standardize the process of production. At the beginning of the twentieth century, the owner of Ford Motor Company, Henry Ford, decided to develop a system of production which would decrease the cost of manufacturing a car to address the demand for more cars in the market (Edgell, 2012). He was aware of the limited number of skilled labor available at the time. Therefore, he designed an assembly line on which workers would carry out simple standardized tasks using special machines. As the assembly line was based on Taylorist separation of conception from execution and task simplification, unskilled laborers were able to carry out the work (Edgell, 2012). Having decreased the cost of production radically, Ford was happy as he developed a system where there was not much need for thought on the part of the worker. As a result of Ford's innovation, production, prices and profits increased. The innovations Henry Ford brought were not limited to the assembly line type of work. He also increased the wages and gave some social benefits to his workers as long as they had "good behavior" which involved no alcohol, no smoking and no gambling. Braverman (1974) believes the effects of Taylorism and Fordism were beyond the factory work. Office and retail work were also characterized by the principles of these organizational and mechanical systems of work. Even if computerized technology may seem to enskill workers, there is still an electronically controlled division of labor for the

management to control the labor process. Braverman (1974) argued that with the onset of new technologies which allowed for more division of labor and more control, deskilling and estrangement of laborers became intensified.

3.1.2.2 Post-Fordism, Upskilling and Polarization

The notion of Fordism, coined by Gramsci (2000), was not only limited to the system of mass production that became widely used in every sector from 1920s to 1970s (Watson, 2012). It also became the name of an economic system which recognized that the laborers working in the factories are part of the market (Edgell, 2012). Therefore, Ford and other employers following him wanted to take care of the workers with their families to make sure that they are physically healthy to maintain labor and to consume the goods produced. This line of thought introduced by Ford led to the development of Keynesian policies in economics and the development of the "welfare state" (Watson, 2012). In this system, products were mass produced at reasonable prices at a standard quality and consumed by an overwhelming majority of people.

The recessions of 1970s and 80s, however, led to a change in these policies and resulted in the move towards the post-Fordist era (Watson, 2012). This was actually caused by the mismatch between the high level of productivity and the low level of consumer demand (Thursfield, 2000). Mass markets lost their significance as they reached saturation; specialized luxury goods became popular (Watson, 2012). Production became less homogenous and more diverse. Companies had to be more flexible in changing the goods they produced according to the fast changing demands (Thursfield, 2000). There was no need for a stable kind of workforce anymore, because there was no mass production (Watson, 2012). Thus, full-time employment, which was the norm earlier, started to be replaced by a rise in part-time, temporary workers (Thursfield, 2000). Franchising and subcontracting became widespread. In this regime of economy, the states started to reduce welfare benefits which came to mean destandardized, deregularized and flexible labor. (Watson, 2012).

With the development of information technologies and the move towards the post-Fordist period, Braverman's deskilling thesis (1974) started to be challenged. Arguing that the demand for educational qualifications and the need for technical

specialists had increased in the post-industrial age, Bell developed the "upskilling theory" (Edgell, 2012). For him, Braverman's deskilling thesis was not able to account for the complexity of professional work life in the late twentieth century (Derber, 1983). He thought that white-collar work characterized the new society dominated by service work. In the new times, possession of knowledge was important, since theoretical knowledge formed the basis of innovation (Bell, 1976). While Bell's thesis found empirical support, there was also support for the deskilling thesis (Edgell, 2012). To account for the fact that upskilling and deskilling could exist at the same time in different groups of workforce, the polarization of skills thesis was formed (Edgell, 2012). In advanced industrialized countries, while highly educated and highly skilled information workers had a chance to enhance their skills and to have job satisfaction, poorly educated production workers still went through deskilling (Thursfield, 2000). On the other hand, with the onset of globalization, capital has flown from the industrialized countries to less developed ones where labor is cheap. Thus, whereas the developed countries had advanced into information technology and faced upskilling in the work culture, less developed countries went on using machine technologies and deskilling continued to be the norm there (Watson, 2012).

3.1.2.3 Proletarianization

As to the deskilling/upskilling debate of professionals who form the major workforce of the post-industrial age, Derber (1983) brought another dimension: proletarianization. Proletarianization is defined as a complex historical process in which professionals move from independent forms of employment to dependent salaried employment and lose their authority and control over their labor (Derber, 1983). He argued that professionals did really experience a form of proletarianization as opposed to the claims of post-industrialists like Bell. However, the form of proletarianization they went through was not similar to that of the industrial workers.

The industrial workers had first moved from self-employment to dependent employment and lost control over the products they produced. However, they persisted their autonomy over the process of production itself. Yet, with the arrival of Taylorism and Fordism, they lost their control over the process of production, as

well, becoming proletarians in the true sense of the word. Derber (1983) claimed the situation was not the same for professionals. For those professionals like doctors and lawyers, the move from independent work to salaried work had already started and they had lost the full control over their work. For other professionals like engineers and scientists, they had never assumed full independence over their work. So their salaried and dependent situation did not change much. The nature of the loss of control for professionals, Derber (1983) argued, was different. They lost their control over the product just as the industrial workers did in the first stage of proletarianization; however, they still keep their autonomy on the process of the work itself.

Derber (1983) calls the lack of control over the process of the work itself "technical proletarianization" (p. 312). He asserts that the degree of technical proletarianization may change from context to context. For Derber (1983), professionals may be facing some form of technical proletarianization, but not at an advanced level. They still presume their technical skills and highly specialized knowledge. However, Derber claims, professionals are suffering from "ideological proletarianization": they have lost control over the end products of their work (Derber, 1983, p. 312). If they work for the corporate sector, they serve corporate interests. Even if they do not believe in militarism, they may work in the production of weapons. Most of the time they have to conduct research in line with the company's research priorities. Even if they come across research findings that are against public good, they may have to keep silent to protect their corporate interests. Otherwise, they may lose their jobs. If they work for the state, they work for the state's interests of reproducing the existing order. Thus, professionals have lost the sense of purpose or mission in work. Thus, Derber (1983) argues, they are reduced to the role of technicians.

Derber (1983) questions the reasons behind professionals' lack of resistance against the fact that their labor is used for purposes they do not choose. He thinks that like industrial workers, professionals have also developed defensive strategies to protect their interests. The first of these strategies is "desensitization" (Derber, 1983; p. 322). They do not claim responsibility over the ideological context of their work and the social purposes their labor is put to. They refuse to accept that their work has

some social or moral results. For instance, some scientists do not acknowledge that their work is put to use in the production of weapons. They claim that their work is basic science or what they produce is used in test systems or it is used for defense rather than offense. In fact, Derber (1983) mentions research studies which indicate that professionals are socialized into becoming indifferent to the ethical implications of their work. While freshman students are more vulnerable to their moral responsibilities, senior students care about the techniques of their work. The second defensive strategy is "ideological cooptation," which means professionals redefine their mission in line with the goals of the organization they work for (Derber, 1983, p. 324). In order not to lose their jobs or the social benefits they receive, professionals use these defense mechanisms and become "professional technicians" no matter how contradictory this title is.

3.1.2.4 Teachers' Labor Power

Considering teacher's labor from Derber's (1983) perspective, just as scientists, teachers seem to have lost their control to a large extent both on their end products and on their processes of work. Regardless of their employers - state or corporate-, teachers are forced to serve for a predetermined goal rather than working for the public good. They either work for the reproduction of the existing order or for the interests of a private school. Therefore, they are ideologically proletarianized for the most part. What is more, they are technically proletarianized by the centralized curricula, standardized tests, teacher-proof materials and prescribed teaching methodologies (Apple, 1995). As the planning and application are separated, they are not allowed to develop their planning skills (Giroux, 1983; Thoma, 2005). They are just expected to execute what is already planned (Apple, 1995; Buyruk, 2014; Giroux, 1983). To put it in Apple's (1995) words:

Notice as well the process of deskilling at work here. Skills that teachers used to need, that were deemed essential to the craft of working with children - such as curriculum deliberation and planning, designing teaching and curricular strategies for specific groups and individuals based on intimate knowledge of these people - are no longer as necessary. Within the large-scale influx of prepackaged material, planning is separated from execution. The planning is done at the level of the production of both the rules for use of the material and the material

itself. The execution is carried out by the teacher. In the process, what were previously considered valuable skills slowly atrophy because they are less often required (Apple, 1995, p. 133).

Such a process of losing control over one's work is the "formula for alienation and burnout" for Apple and Jungck (1990, p. 232). Still, there is another reason for the alienation of teachers from their own work: intensification of workload (Apple & Jungck, 1990). Day by day, teachers have an ever increasing workload and less and less time available to deal with it. At times, they even do not have enough time to drink tea/coffee or to go to the bathroom let alone setting time for professional development (Apple & Jungck, 1990). As Apple and Jungck (1990) put it:

Intensification leads people to "cut corners" so that only what is "essential" to the task immediately at hand is accomplished. It forces people increasingly to rely on "experts" to tell them what to do and to begin to mistrust the expertise they may have developed over the years. In the process, quality is sacrificed for quantity. Getting done is substituted for work well done (p. 235).

Due to intensification, teachers may also be pleased to have prepackaged materials, as those materials help them "get through the day" (Apple & Jungck, 1990, p. 235). However, they may be losing the larger picture which causes them to lose their autonomy over their work. The alienation of teachers is not limited to alienation from their own products and activities, though. Apple (1995) argued that they are also socially alienated. As the materials teachers use are prepackaged, they do not need to interact with each other about the curricular issues and they become isolated from each other. When the competition for the performance measures are added to this picture, it is inevitable that teachers are distanced from each other instead of working in solidarity (Connell, 2009; Durmaz, 2013). On the other hand, this performance-based system treats teaching as an individual act distancing it from its social character accomplished through cooperation among teachers (Connell, 2009). As Connell (2009) writes:

Recognition of the collective labor of teachers is essential for a better understanding of good teaching. It is often the group of teachers and the institution they work in that are effective or not effective. The task of

improving teaching, accordingly, cannot be understood only as a matter of motivating or re-skilling individuals (p. 222).

For Connell (2009), such an understanding of teaching as an isolated act based on a system of control and promotion is detrimental to the education system.

This process of teacher proletarianization has a lot to do with the shift towards neoliberal policies since 1980s. With the new managerialism which separated teacher identity into discrete skills and competencies with measurable outcomes, a new "audit culture" appeared (Apple, 2001; Connell, 2009). A new discourse of accountability for educational institutions and teachers became widespread. Thereafter, the "quality" of teachers started to be discussed around the world and teacher accountability measures in the shape of teacher competencies made their appearance in the world stage. As Connell (2009) argues, the implications of these competencies for teacher education programs are serious: "There is no need, in such a model for cultural critique, since the market, aggregating individual choices, decides what services are wanted and what are not" (p.218). Connell (2009) thinks that as neoliberalism is skeptical of professionalism and does not trust teachers, it tries to control them by imposing teacher standards, as the concept of control is inherent to the capitalist state, which tries to ensure that the social order is reproduced as it is (Thoma, 2005). Control is not only at work in the curriculum and pedagogy, it also operates at the stage of teacher employment practices and teacher assessment (Thoma, 2005). Even students - depending on their cultural capital - work as a control mechanism over teachers' work, as they are usually interested in learning only what is going to be tested in standardized examinations (Thoma, 2005). Connell (2009) maintains that "The audit culture in education construes teachers as technicians, enacting pre-defined "best practice" with a pre-defined curriculum measured against external tests - a situation for which skill, but not intelligence, is required" (p. 224). Such a model denies the intellectual labor of teaching.

As teaching contexts are diverse, de-skilling might be accompanied by reskilling in some contexts in a small proportion of teachers, as new technology and new requirements may lead them to gain new skills (Özoğlu et al., 2013; Wong, 2006). Wong's study (2006) conducted in seven schools in China is a case in point. While a great majority of teachers in his study reported they were being deskilled

because of losing control, a small minority of teachers stated that they were learning new pedagogical techniques (Wong, 2006). Despite the fact that some teachers were reskilled, still they did not enjoy a full autonomy over the planning or materials they used (Wong, 2006). This finding indicates that even if teachers are reskilled to a certain extent, it may not stop the process of their ideological proletarianization.

Considering the arguments for the professionalization of teachers through the accountability measures, it might be necessary to reexamine the definition of a profession. For an occupation to be regarded as a profession, it must have some essential characteristics: "high level systematic knowledge gained through education, a central professional organization and autonomy in the execution of the profession" (Buyruk, 2014, p. 1710). As teachers have started to lose their control over their work after 1980s, it seems difficult to characterize teaching as a profession: it is being transformed into a vocation (Buyruk, 2014). This transformation process in the character of the teaching act is documented by various scholars from around the world (e.g. Austria by Thoma 2005; Australia by Smyth, 2001; China by Wong, 2006; Greece by Thoma, 2005; the USA by Apple, 1995; Turkey by Yıldız and Ünlü, 2014).

One other reflection of the division of labor and alienation in foreign language teachers' work is the division of teaching skills into discrete observable skills in the pre-service teacher education. This separation of complex teaching skills into parts is reminiscent of the division of labor into small manageable chunks in the assembly line (Freeman, 1989). However, a more holistic notion of teacher education is necessary considering the fact that the mastery of separate skills does not necessarily ensure quality teaching in real life context (Freeman, 1989).

Teachers are not alone in this process of proletarianization, though. Teacher educators also face a similar process of proletarianization. Ellis, McNicholl, Blake and McNally's (2014) study of 13 teacher educators working at diverse English and Scottish higher education institutions demonstrated that teacher educators were proletarianized under conditions of academic capitalism, as they were not provided with the opportunities to accumulate academic capital through research publications or grants. In conditions of academic capitalism, work that produces research publications is used for promotion, salary increases and reduction in workload

whereas work that does not result in research, e.g. teaching and relationship maintenance with students and colleagues at schools, is marginalized and devalued. For teacher educators, a great volume of their work is composed of relationship maintenance which included "building, sustaining and repairing the complex network of personal relationships that allow teacher education programs, school partnerships and, indeed, higher education departments to function" (Ellis et al., 2014; p. 40) through writing and responding to emails, making phone calls, tutoring individual students, talking to colleagues at schools, etc. Although they make sure that partnership with schools and higher education departments operate smoothly, they are not able to gain academic capital because they are either not expected to be "research-active" or not supported to produce publications. The isolation of teacher educators from research under intensified workloads, however, has a negative influence on teacher education. There is also the risk that they are going to educate proletarianized teachers like themselves (Ellis et al., 2014).

Having explored some of the key concepts of critical theory so far from historical materialism to division of labor characterizing the labor power of teachers, it is now necessary to see the direct implications of those concepts for the field of education. The next section will explore some of the major ideas in critical pedagogy.

3.2 Critical Pedagogy

I wouldn't let my schooling interfere with my education

Mark Twain

Critical pedagogy is the name of a field of study and a set of practices for democratic and emancipatory schooling originating from a series of radical ideals, beliefs and practices (Kincheloe, 2008). The term itself was first used by Henry Giroux in 1983, but the ideas of this school of thought appeared much earlier (Darder, Baltadano & Torres, 2008). In fact, there is no one unitary understanding of critical pedagogy, as the term itself is used by various theoretical frameworks which include Marxism, post-structuralism, feminism, critical race theory and

postmodernism (Darder et al., 2008). However, there are some common characteristics of critical pedagogy shared by different theoretical approaches.

At the core of critical pedagogy lies critical consciousness which investigates the purpose of traditional system of schooling (Viola, 2009). For critical pedagogues, schools are political, economic and cultural sites which operate under the dominant power and ideology of the time. They are used to reproduce the existing class structure and to legitimate certain types of authority or knowledge under the guise of being neutral (Kincheloe, 2008). Schooling system is not considered as democratic owing to the fact that it privileges children of ruling classes to the disadvantage of children coming from the margins of society. Critical pedagogy is thus committed to identifying and combating the undemocratic schooling practices and to supporting the culturally and economically marginalized students (Kincheloe, 2008). For this purpose, it seeks to encourage critical thinking and transformative action at schools as sites for resistance through the close interaction of teachers and students (Darder et al. 2008). It does not only target a socially just and democratic system of education, but it also attempts to build a more humanistic society to live in. In short, it is based on an empowering vision of pedagogy which aims to educate students with a critical outlook and a confidence to contribute to change efforts to improve the lives of themselves and their communities (Kincheloe, 2008).

The origins of Critical Pedagogy go back to the ideas of John Dewey, the American philosopher and educator, who influenced generations of educationists believing in democratic education (Darder et al., 2008). Dewey strongly believed in education's role in making social progress and reform. For him, this was the longstanding solution for social reconstruction (Dewey, 1897/1996). Dewey thought democracy itself was an educational principle that should be practiced in school life. In order for individuals to participate in the decision-making processes as citizens, Dewey wrote, they should exercise free will, develop their intelligence and become knowledgeable. They should think and act purposefully (Dunn, 2005). For Dewey, schools should teach students to work in cooperation in the spirit of a community so that they develop patterns of mutual respect and tolerance. Thus, schools are responsible for cultivating the habits for the formation of a better society (Dewey, 1938/2010).

In Dewey's pragmatist philosophy, knowledge is valuable if it finds a solution to a problem. For Dewey, knowledge should be used to make a better world (Dunn, 2005). Dewey thinks that knowledge is constructed through the individual's interaction with the environment in practical action. While trying to find a solution to a problem, the individual formulates an answer and creates knowledge. Therefore, education should simulate real life (Dewey, 1897/1996). Students should be provided with experience so that they figure out their own interpretations while engaging with that experience. However, all new learning should be constructed on previous knowledge to facilitate the learning process (Dewey, 1897/1996). Hence, the role of the teacher is to challenge students through real-life tasks which grow out of their own home life. For Dewey, traditional subject-centered lessons divided into separate school subjects killed the curiosity of students and therefore they should be abandoned. Instead, all instruction should be centered on students' present experience (Dunn, 2005).

The leading educational philosopher of critical pedagogy, however, is Paulo Freire, the Brazilian educational philosopher. Just like his Marxist predecessors, he was interested in analyzing and transforming the relations of domination. For him, the only way to throw away domination was critical reflection and action, which would be realized through dialogue. Freire believed the first condition of the fight for revolution was for the oppressed to realize the situation they are in through informal dialogic education projects. Once the oppressed notice their object status, they will start to struggle against the conditions of oppression and become humanized. When the fight against oppression is won, Freire (1970) believed, both the oppressed and the oppressors become humanized. After the humanization process, a liberatory systematic education could be implemented for all people. Freire (1970) argued that no one could liberate other people. People liberate *themselves* in solidarity and through dialogue. Without the reality becoming unveiled for the oppressed and without their active reflection, Freire (1970) wrote, it is not possible for them to transform themselves.

In his famous book *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, Freire called the mainstream education system "the banking of education." For Freire (1970), in traditional education teachers worked as "depositors" transmitting knowledge to students and

students acted as “depositories” receiving knowledge passively. Freire thought this banking concept of education was a method of oppression to kill the creativity of students so that they passively obeyed the rules set by the oppressors without questioning them. Faced with this education system, Freire argued learners become an object of the learning process than a subject. Learners learn to become silent and not to engage with the material they are forced to learn. In this system, teachers become the authority figures imposing ideas to be transmitted. Thus, Freire claimed education can never be neutral and educators should ask themselves for whom they are working. To refrain from this notion of education, Freire (1970) offered a redefinition of the teacher-student relationship so that “both are simultaneously teachers and students” (p. 72). Freire (1970, p. 80) wrote:

Through dialogue, the teacher-of-the-students and the students-of-the-teacher cease to exist and a new term emerges: teacher-student with students-teachers. The teacher is no longer merely the-one-who-teaches, but one who is himself taught in dialogue with the students, who in turn while being taught also teach. They become jointly responsible for a process in which all grow.

Engaged in teaching literacy to the oppressed peasants in Brazil himself, Freire believed educators could make difference if they establish good dialogue with the learners. Freire (1970) argued that for the oppressed to liberate themselves, they should first realize the reasons for the situation they are in and then struggle to transform that situation so that they start being the agents of their own acts, they make their own decisions and they voice their own opinions instead of being manipulated and silenced by the oppressors.

In the liberatory pedagogy Freire (1970) suggested, teachers and students work together for emancipation. In fact, Freire (1970) believed educators should work *with*, not *for*, the oppressed to help them critically engage in a reflection of the causes of the oppression and to take action for liberation. In the process of liberation, Freire (1970) warned, educators should not attempt to liberate the oppressed by imposing their own beliefs. Doing so would be following the methods of the oppressors and mean treating the oppressed like objects to be manipulated, which would be against the spirit of the liberation. For Freire (1970), for educating the oppressed, the

educational methods of the oppressor such as propaganda should not be used. Freire (1970) argued that the method of the pedagogy to be used should be communicating with the oppressed about the matters that are of concern to them through critical reflection. Otherwise, it will turn into a propaganda which will not lead to action, as it is not persuasive. Freire (1970) believed people can only get involved in action through reflection. For this pedagogy to be successful, educators should have a sincere belief in the ability of the oppressed to reason. Without such a trust, Freire (1970) cautions, there is no dialogue, no communication or reflection. They should also have love for the people and the humility to learn from their students being ready to reconsider their ideas in dialogue with their students.

For critical pedagogy, the purpose of education is to nurture critical individuals who are able to make sense of themselves and the world they live in (Yılmaz, 2014). In this perspective, education should "serve the interests of diverse groups of students by enabling them to understand and gain some control over the sociopolitical forces that influence their destinies" (Giroux & McLaren, 1986; p. 218). However, in the management model of schooling in the neoliberal world, critical pedagogues assert, the purpose of schooling is to train the labor force the market needs. This market-oriented system aims to eliminate the purpose of educating informed critical citizens at schools. There is not much concern for addressing diverse learners in an equal and just manner, either. Instead, this system values individual improvement, competition, hard work, obedience and industrial discipline (Giroux & McLaren, 1986). Thus, Giroux and McLaren (1986) argue, "in place of developing critical understanding, engaging student experience, and fostering active and critical citizenship, schools are redefined through a language that emphasizes standardization, competency, and narrowly-defined performance skills" (p. 219). In this process, learning becomes memorizing discrete items that are isolated from their holistic contexts while teaching is reduced to following standardized curricula through pre-packaged materials to be tested by standardized tests. Students learn to adapt to the existing order of things rather than being led to question its underlying reasons. Moreover, they are led to perceive getting a university degree as the medium for finding a good job instead of as a matter of developing oneself as a human being (Oladi, 2013).

In this system of neoliberal instrumental understanding, it is considered as too expensive to educate professional teachers (Zeichner, 2014). Therefore, technician teachers who will implement the scripted roles given to them are created via alternative routes to teacher education. In short-term teacher education programs, teacher candidates are taught the basic techniques of teaching and they are expected to learn to teach on the job. With the growing popularity of alternative routes, the full-fledged teacher education programs at universities have started to be devalued as being inefficient (Zeichner, 2014). Still, Zeichner (2014) asserts 70-80 % of teachers who enter the teaching profession have a university degree in the USA. While elite schools hire professional teachers, those schools with limited resources are able to hire teachers from fast-track programs, which leads to another inequality in the schooling system (Zeichner, 2014). While those students who can afford to go to elite schools are educated by qualified teachers, those in non-elite schools are taught by teachers who have a limited knowledge and understanding of education.

This section on critical pedagogy has provided a general sketch of the critical pedagogy. The following subsections will explore the basic notions of critical pedagogy from the correspondence principle to hidden curriculum. Thereafter, Giroux's understanding of schools as site of resistance will be discussed.

3.2.1 The Correspondence Principle

Samuel Bowles and Herbert Gintis were among those first educational scholars who focused on the relationship between the political economy and education heavily influenced by Marxism (Giroux, 1983). In their influential book called *Schooling in Capitalist America* (1976), they analyzed how the education system worked to reproduce the existing social and gender roles (Small, 2005). In the "correspondence principle" they articulated, they stressed the fact that the social class a person belongs to overwhelmingly determines their prospective jobs (Anjon, 2011). The social class of a person's parents is decisive in the schools the person goes to as well as the skills they acquire. As opposed to public opinion that education system is meritocratic, the schooling system maintains the unequal labor positions within the system (Cole, 2008). Table 2 below is a typology of social class in the USA showing how a person's class is decisive in predicting the type of education one will get. As

Table 2 demonstrates, there is a high relationship between one's social class and educational achievement. While students from lower classes have a much smaller chance of going on to college, those coming from higher classes have a higher likelihood of getting university education.

On the other hand, Bowles and Gintis directed attention to the fact that social relations in the workplace are also recreated in the school setting. The hierarchy between the laborer and the employer is paralleled in the hierarchical relationships between administrators and teachers and teachers and students in schools (Giroux, 1983). The division of labor is also seen in the division of subject matter into different school subjects isolated from each other. Just as the workers having limited control over their labor, students and teachers have limited control over the curriculum content. Similar to factory bell, their time is scheduled around the school bell (Small, 2005). Sarup (1978) argues that students' work is a kind of labor in return for which they receive grades or certificates. These objects of their labor are exchanged for products for different occupations. In this process, students are transformed into commodities (Sarup, 1978).

Table 2 Social Class Typology (Ballantine & Hammack, 2012, p.64)

Class and Percentage of Total Population	Education	Education of Children
Upper class (1-3 %)	Liberal arts at elite schools	College education by right for both sexes
Upper middle (10-15 %)	Graduate training	Educational system biased in their favor
Lower-middle (30-35 %)	High school Some college	Greater chance of college than working-class child
Working (40-45 %)	Grade school Some high school	Educational system biased against them; tendency toward vocational programs
Lower (20-25 %)	Illiteracy, especially functional illiteracy	Little interest in education, high dropout rates

Jean Anjon's (2011) research study of schools of different types confirmed Bowles and Gintis's theory of correspondence between traits learned at school and the needs of the economy. In her study, Anjon observed two working class schools, one middle-class school, one affluent professional school and one executive elite

school. She found out that the interaction patterns in different school settings differed a great deal from one school context to another. Students were directed to mechanical rote-learning and offered little choice in working class schools. Teachers rarely explained the rationale behind any activity or principle and dictated the steps of a certain task to students by giving orders. They seldom used "please" preferring to use imperatives. In middle class schools, students were oriented towards "right" answers but they were provided some choice and decision making. There was not much room for creativity tasks or expressing one's feelings or ideas. Teachers justified their decisions with external regulations. Anjon (2011) inferred that decision-making offered to middle-class students were meant to prepare them for their future careers in teaching and low and mid-level management whereas working-class schools taught them how to obey the rules as workers. The range of skills offered to affluent professional school and interaction patterns differed radically from the first two. Work asked from students was independent creative work oriented towards expressing one's inner thoughts and feelings in a way distinct from the others. Teachers encouraged students to develop their expressive skills working as facilitators. They never yelled at students. Anjon (2011) concluded that the positions this school prepared students are graphic design, computer engineering, medicine, etc. In the executive elite school, students' intellectual analytical abilities were developed. They were asked to reason by problem-solving. Only in this type of school were there no bells to control time. Students were encouraged to develop autonomy and decision-making skills. Teachers were polite towards students and had to be available before and after class. They called students by name rather than saying "honey" or "love." In this school, students' work was oriented towards academic and intellectual skills much more than on creative skills. They aimed to educate students for top-executive positions (Anjon, 2011).

Another study supporting the operation of correspondence principle in Turkey was conducted by Gümüş (2008). According to his research, the parents of students at certain types of school display great amounts of similarity in terms of their socioeconomic and educational backgrounds. While those students who come from disadvantaged lower classes are educated in *imam hatip* religious and vocational higher schools, those students who have parents belonging to the middle and upper

classes are educated at high schools, Anatolian high schools or private high schools in Turkey (Gümüő, 2008). The findings of the study indicate that the existing system of education reproduces the existing distribution of labor in the Turkish society.

3.2.2 The Hidden Curriculum

Michael Apple, one of the leading scholars of Critical Pedagogy, analyzed the political nature of schooling in his influential book *Ideology and Curriculum* (2004). Following Bourdieu and Gramsci, Apple saw schools as sites for reproducing the existing social relationships. In his book, he analyzed how the schooling system achieved the function it was endowed with by exploring both the overt and the covert curriculum (Apple, 2004). He argued that curriculum content is selected from a vast body of knowledge available by a certain group of people for a specific purpose. Therefore, the knowledge transmitted to students at schools cannot be neutral as it is assumed to be. The fact that conflict or issues of social concern do not find their way into curriculum supports the claim that curriculum is developed to presume the existing system. The information conveyed to students is based on consensus, and therefore, ideological (Apple, 2004).

Along with the overt curriculum, Apple (2004) argues, a hidden curriculum is at work in the day to day running of the schools. Through hidden curriculum, schools teach students some values and norms and expose students to the ruling ideology implicitly. By the very organization of schools (from the school bells to punctuality) and through the hierarchy in the daily interactions of teachers and students (along with the reward and punishment system), the schooling system helps students internalize the order of things as it is (Apple, 2004). As students learn to obey the rules of the system at schools, they become obedient workers who accept the social position they are in without resistance, as they are led to believe that it is *their* fault not to get ahead in life. By functioning as a selection and elimination tool to produce the human resources the market needs, the schooling system legitimizes the privileged status of the ruling classes (Apple, 2004).

In this system of schooling, Apple (2004) warns, teachers may contribute to the reproduction of the social inequalities consciously or unconsciously. Even when they assume that they are offering help to individual students, Apple (2004) writes, they

may be reinforcing the privileges of certain groups of students without being aware. Even some of the daily routines they follow at school without much reflection or the way they interact with their students may be serving the system's goals of reproduction. Therefore, he suggests educators be aware of the political nature of schooling and the role it plays in the maintenance of the existing order not to fall into the trap of the role assigned to teachers in this system (Apple, 2004).

Following the trace of hidden curriculum, İnal (2004) analyzes the hidden curriculum at work in the Turkish education system. He notes that Turkish education system's rituals such as getting into lines in the school garden to go into the school building and the seating arrangements in rows in classrooms simulate the military hierarchy in the education system (İnal, 2004). Students having to stand up when the teacher comes in and boys buttoning their jackets in front of teachers and school principals are examples of the hierarchical relationships being imposed on students (İnal, 2004). Classroom management rules such as students' being told to keep silent at all times in classes, students' not taking turns to talk without teachers letting them do so or students' getting permission to go to the bathroom are some of the daily classroom procedures in which students are taught to keep silent and obey the rules (İnal, 2004).

3.2.3 The School as a Site of Resistance

Despite acknowledging the analyses of social and cultural reproduction theories, Henry Giroux, one of the leading scholars of Critical Pedagogy, finds the limited agency given to human subjects in these theories as problematic (Giroux, 1983). Due to the heavy stress radical perspectives give to the role of schools as factories producing individuals in harmony with the interests of the system, Giroux (1983) argued, the notion of human agents making history is underemphasized in radical perspectives. Though school's role in transmitting the dominant ideology and reproducing the class relations is true, Giroux wrote, it does not mean that each and every teacher or student in the schooling system will passively internalize the imposed ideology on them. For Giroux (1983), there are some contradictory practices in the schooling system that allow for radical ideas to develop. As Giroux asserted "In no sense do teachers and students uniformly function in schools as simply the

passive reflex of the logic of capital" (p. 58). Giroux thought that schools do not only address the interests of the ruling classes, they also serve other interests which might be in contradiction with those interests. Giroux asserted that when radical accounts failed to consider the resistance of teachers and students at schools, they reduced them to passive followers of the status quo and served the reproduction of the system without realizing (Giroux, 1983). Giroux believed that there is no hope for social change in such a pessimistic understanding. For Giroux (1983), schools must be considered as institutions "in which human actors are both constrained *and* mobilized" (p. 62). In other words, as well as their functions in producing social, cultural and economic inequalities of the system, schools also work as sites of resistance.

Unlike schools represented in some research studies (based on reproduction theories such as Anjon's research discussed above in Section 3.2.1) as homogenous in which all teachers are displaying the same patterns of behavior, Giroux (1983) maintained that schools are complex entities in which there is resistance. While the dominant ideologies are transmitted at schools, students are not passively accepting ideas that are against their own interests. Rather, they resist some of those ideas together with their teachers and parents, as they compare their lived reality with the ideology imposed on them. In fact, Giroux believed schools could be transformed into sites for resistance. For Giroux (1983) teachers as transformative intellectuals have a responsibility to help students develop a critical perspective as to themselves and the world they live in. However, students and teachers should go beyond critical analysis of the situation and develop the "civic courage" to take action against those conditions of injustice.

While the survey of critical pedagogy in this section ranging from reproduction theories to resistance theories provided a general outlook into the nature of schooling, it is also essential to throw a critical glance at the field of English language teaching, which surrounds the discourse of foreign language teacher education. The following section will discuss some of the major issues in critical applied linguistics.

3.3 Critical Applied Linguistics

Mostly associated with second/foreign language learning and teaching, the field of applied linguistics actually encapsulates a broader universe consisting of all kinds of real-world issues centering on language from discourse analysis to sociolinguistics, from translation studies to language planning (Block, Gray and Holborow, 2012). The notion of "critical applied linguistics" was coined by Pennycook in 1990 to address the need to cover language related issues of inequality and injustice which did not find much space in academic circles (Pennycook, 2001). In time, it started to be recognized as a new trajectory of applied linguistics. Though critical applied linguistics covers critical discourse analysis, critical literacy, critical translation studies and language rights, this section will only survey the development of critical second/foreign language teaching approaches as it is directly relevant for the scope of the study. As the pre-service foreign language teacher education program this study explores prepares prospective teachers of English in Turkey, the main focus of this section will be English Language Teaching.

3.3.1 Linguistic Imperialism and the Spread of English

In his book called *Linguistic Imperialism*, Robert Phillipson (1992) problematised the spread of English around the world tracing the colonial legacy of English as well as the continuing financial support for the development of English Language Teaching around the world by the British Council and American Ford Association. His attempt to underline the imperialistic motives behind the spread of English was crucial for the field, as the growth of English was perceived largely as a coincidence (Phillipson, 1992). As this issue was seldom discussed in the English language teaching community, the practitioners in the field rarely questioned the economical, political and cultural reasons for the spread of English. Rather than inquiring the implications of the dominance of English for world cultures, minority languages (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000) or foreign language teaching (Canagarajah, 1999), they were led to care only about what kind of a method to use to teach English best (Phillipson, 1992).

Core English-speaking countries like Britain and the USA disseminated English among the colonized (Phillipson, 1992). In those countries, English was

made an official language and schools started to offer English-medium instruction. By imposing their own language to the colonized, the colonizers were enjoying political and economic advantages (Phillipson, 1992). Through schooling, they were also colonizing the mindset of the colonized people, as the colonized began to internalize the dominant values of the colonizers through education (Phillipson, 1992). As a matter of fact, the colonizers kept the colonized in a dependent position through linguistic and cultural imperialism.

Pennycook (1998) thinks the colonial history of English is directly related to English language teaching, as this field of study is the product of colonialism. Shaped in such historical conditions, English language teaching methodologies also bore the imprint of that ideology (Holliday, 2005). As English was an export of core English-speaking countries to the periphery, the norms of native-speakers of English were inherent to language teaching methodologies. Mother-tongue use was forbidden both in English language teaching methodologies and in the schools of the colonized (Phillipson, 1992).

With the onset of postcolonial period, however, native speaker norms as well as monolingual bias in foreign language learning and teaching started to be challenged (Holliday, 2005). As English became a world language, diversity of English(es) spoken around the world as distinct varieties of English was acknowledged (Pennycook, 1998). Not only did the native-speakers of English own English, everyone who spoke it had the right to claim ownership of the language (Widdowson, 1994). On the other hand, non-native speakers' right to keep their accents was recognized as long as they were intelligible.

Kachru (1985) divided English speaking countries into three concentric circles as inner circle countries (Britain, the USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand), outer circle countries (the former colonies like India and Singapore) and the expanding circle countries (e.g. Turkey, Greece, and Japan). Kachru (1985) argued that the new varieties of English should be treated equally as legitimate varieties of English. With the growing awareness as to the norms of English in different parts of the world, it was recognized that English language teaching methodologies would differ depending on the needs of learners. As the number of non-native speakers of English outnumbered the native-speakers of English, the

communication in English did not necessarily include at least one native speaker counterpart (Braine, 2010). English started to be used as a lingua franca among the speakers of different nations.

Such developments in the field of English Language Teaching did not end the discrimination against speakers of non-native varieties of English, though. Even today a native speaker of Phillipino English can be given a test of English to document her English in the USA context (Tollefson, 2000). Even though the number of non-native speakers outnumbered the native speakers of English, inner-circle countries continue to enjoy the privilege of speaking English. In fact, as Tollefson (2000) argues the advantages of English are not distributed equally. While those people who already speak English benefit from many opportunities in education, employment and business, those who do not speak English have serious problems in having access to good quality education opportunities. They are not able to get higher positions in employment or in business, either (Tollefson, 2000). Therefore, English becomes another medium for the reproduction of the classed society.

3.3.2 Non-Native Teachers of English

Along with the colonial history of English came some ideas about the nature of a good English teacher. According to the colonial understanding, the ideal English teacher was a native speaker of English (Phillipson, 1992). Clearly, this was a premise promoted to the advantage of native speaker teachers of English. This ideal was accompanied by the rule of outlawing the use of mother-tongue from the English class (Holliday, 2005). In this way, a native speaker teacher of English who spoke no language other than her own would have no obligation to learn the mother tongue of her students (Phillipson, 1992).

This colonial notion of a good teacher became so entrenched among the public that non-native teachers of English still face discrimination from their bosses, students and even their colleagues. At a time when the majority of English teachers around the world are non-native (Braine, 2010), there are still language teaching institutions which hire only native-speakers whether or not they are qualified as English teachers. Facing such discriminatory practices, non-native English teachers

of English set up Non-Native-Speaker English Caucus in 1999 in TESOL organization (Sung, 2012). With the efforts of this group, the attitude to see non-native speaker teachers as "second rate" has started to change (Sung, 2012). Despite the fact that the concept of a native-speaker is regarded as a linguistic myth and idealism in the field of applied linguistics (Alptekin, 2002; Cook, 1999; Paikeday, 1985), the comparisons as to native and non-native teachers in the public did not come to a halt due to the dominance of mainstream discourse favoring native speakers of English.

The impact of such practices on non-native teachers of English is negative. Although they have their own strengths in teaching English because they have gone through the same process as learners themselves (Medgyes, 2001), they do not seem to realize those advantages having internalized the native speakerist ideology (Holliday, 2005). Faced with symbolic violence, many non-native English teachers suffer from feelings of insufficiency as they have an unattainable goal (becoming a native speaker) ahead of themselves (Cook, 1999). Studies indicate non-native teachers are self-conscious and self-discriminatory (Moussu & Llurda, 2008). For Medgyes (1983), they are even in a state of schizophrenia.

3.3.3 The Political Nature of Teaching English

By recognizing the very political nature of teaching English, Pennycook (2000) drew attention to the fact that classrooms usually conceived as autonomous and isolated spaces are actually open to outside influences as well as to the influence of what happens inside. He asserted that the walls of the English classrooms could become transparent and take in the influence of larger social and cultural world (Pennycook, 2000). In the same vein, what happens in the classroom, what materials are used, how teachers interact with students have a lot of implications for the outside world.

For Pennycook (2000), whether or not they realize, teachers of English are engaged in a very political act. He claimed that it is not possible to "just teach the language," because the content you teach is a result of a political choice. Even where English is taught and to whom it is taught is related to the national and international language policies. The type of English taught to immigrants focusing on the survival

English, for instance, indicates how the system of English language teaching presumes the existing inequalities by teaching them what is adequate for minimum-wage jobs (Pennycook, 1989).

In applied linguistics, however, language learning is considered solely as a psychological issue not taking into account the educational, social and cultural aspects of language teaching (Pennycook, 1994). Therefore, issues of inequality and injustice do not find their place in language teacher education. Besides, the curriculum content is usually taken for granted as the only truth without being critically analyzed (Pennycook, 1994). Pennycook (2000) maintained that language teaching materials are in fact full of cultural and ideological messages conveyed through pictures, stories and dialogues. For Vergera (2014) it is no surprise current human problems such as social stratification, poverty, exploitation or environmental destruction find no place to themselves in English language teaching curricula, because students and teachers may arrive at a level consciousness related to these issues, which is undesirable for those in power. As Gray (2013) asserted, textbooks are not only curricular artifacts, they are also cultural artifacts loaded with ideological messages about the way things are in society whether it be class, race or gender. In a covert manner, they reproduce or reinforce the hidden messages given in the society on the proper ways of living, consuming or being. Besides, by systematically eradicating or misrepresenting certain groups of people (such as LGBT or working class people) or certain topics, they refuse to recognize these (Gray, 2013).

Even language teaching methodologies are a reflection of the cultural preferences of a certain culture attempted to be imposed on others. Therefore, English teachers need to be aware of the political, social and cultural issues and their influence for the microcosm of their classrooms (Pennycook, 2000). For Pennycook (1994), "No knowledge, no language and no pedagogy is ever neutral or apolitical. To teach critically, therefore, is to acknowledge the political nature of all education" (p. 301). Yet, in the discourse of English Language Teaching, Pennycook (1994) underlined, it is behaved as though teachers are teaching a neutral medium of communication by using the most recent and scientific methods. Such denial of the political nature of teaching English is actually a purposeful act to maintain the

existing order (Pennycook, 1989). To challenge the status quo, Pennycook (1994) suggested English be used to develop counter-discourses with the initiation of critical, transformative teachers, because language could be used both for alienating people or discriminating against them or for claiming freedom, equality and justice.

3.3.4 The Post-Method Condition

As Pennycook (1989) saw all knowledge as *interested* and political, he put the concept of method, which has become the obsession of the field of language teaching, into close scrutiny. He argued that the endless search for "the best method" is actually a commercial enterprise, as the same old ideas are packaged as the newest methods. By surveying the history of language teaching from the middle ages onwards, Pennycook (1989) demonstrated that trends in language teaching changed according to the social and cultural realities of the age. When there was more interaction between different cultures, oral communication was emphasized in language teaching. When the written materials carried a great deal of significance, the written language came to the fore. However, language teaching methodology books present the recent history of second language teaching as though it shows a historical progress. When the notion of progress in language teaching methods is entrenched, it is easy to market the so-called brand-new "scientific" methods (Pennycook, 1989).

Another problem with the concept of method is that it does not have "a substance" (Pennycook, 1989). The exact number of language teaching methods is unknown, as each book gives a different number (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Pennycook, 1989). What is more, whether the language teaching methodologies were based on classroom practice is not clear, as many language teachers state that methods did not have a direct influence on their classroom practices and they were not able to use any methods as they were presented (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Kumaravadivelu (2003) argued that this mismatch between methods as prescribed by theorists and methods as implemented by teachers stems from the limited nature of the concept of method. Kumaravadivelu (2003) noted methods are prepared for idealized contexts; it is not possible to address the needs of all teaching contexts with one method. It is based on a one-size-fits-all understanding. Given the fact that

teaching is a complex act based on a multitude of factors influencing the decision making process of teachers, it is not possible for any method to cover all these factors.

If all knowledge is *interested*, Pennycook (1989) asked whose interests are served by the concept of method. For method, textbook publishers and academic experts benefit most from the concept, as publishers like to publicize their textbooks following the recent method and the academic experts get promoted by introducing "new" methods (Pennycook, 1989). Those who are disadvantaged in this cycle are teachers. As methods are prescriptive in nature, they serve the further deskilling of teachers by constraining their role to following the prescriptions of "the method" (Pennycook, 1989). This system also reproduces the existing hierarchy between the academic experts and practitioners. While the former theorize detached from classroom reality, the latter have the function of practicing what has been theorized by the theorists in the center (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

To do away with the limited and limiting nature of the concept of method and to prevent this hierarchical situation to be presumed, Kumaravadivelu (2003) suggested an alternative to the concept of method. He called practitioners to theorize their own classroom specific methods based on their own practitioner knowledge and wisdom. For Kumaravadivelu, in what he termed postmethod condition, teachers must move beyond method-based pedagogy and enjoy their autonomy in making decisions and evaluating their own teaching practices. Therefore, Kumaravadivelu (2003) argued teachers should theorize what they practice and practice what they theorize. In the post-method condition, teacher education should prepare teachers to develop their own strategies to the unique contexts of teaching taking into account the historical, political, social and cultural experiences (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

No matter how empowering critical applied linguistics is for the practicing teacher, it does not have much sense if teachers are not provided with a critical teacher education program enabling teacher candidates to explore some of the current issues of the field of foreign language education. Studies conducted in diverse settings indicated that English teachers were not aware of critical pedagogy in ELT. Pagliarini Cox and Assis-Peterson (1999) investigated what 40 Brazilian English teachers believed about critical pedagogy. The findings indicated that even in the

home country of the Paulo Freire, the father of critical pedagogy, English teachers were unaware of it. A similar study conducted by Mohamed and Malik (2014) in five different countries (Sudan, Iran, Pakistan, India and the USA) revealed that there is little awareness of critical issues among 10 English teachers. As for their roles as teachers, they regarded themselves either as transmitters of knowledge or facilitators not talking about anything that evokes the role of a change agent. The authors thought that this was because the language teachers had internalized the mainstream pedagogy and they called for at least a course on critical pedagogy in language teacher education programs.

The lack of knowledge among English teachers about critical applied linguistics or critical English language teaching seems to suggest that the so-called postmodern era in the field of ELT has only been grasped by the scholarly circles whereas the practicing teachers were isolated from these notions. Pishghadam and Mirzaee (2008) argue that common ELT practice in Iran is still in the modern era not influenced by the postmethod era. For Akbari (2008), this stems from postmethod overlooking a crucial element in teachers' lives. Just as methods-based pedagogy ignored learner characteristics and contextual issues, postmethod did not take into consideration the political, economical and socio-cultural realities of language teachers' work. Akbari (2008) asserted that those ideal conditions in which teachers practice what they theorize using their free will does not exist in the real world. Teachers work under close scrutiny and their practices are dictated by either the Ministry or the international or local textbooks they are obliged to use. For him, "the concept of method has not been replaced by the concept of postmethod but rather by the era of textbook-defined practice" (Akbari, 2008, p. 647). The content of teaching as well as the way English is taught is determined by the textbook used, which do not devote any space to critical issues referring only to "harmless" issues such as shopping, travel, holiday, etc (Harwood, 2013). Besides, Akbari (2008) argued that not all teachers are qualified enough to practice post-method pedagogy. He also thought that not all teachers would be willing to spend extra time to professionally develop themselves to assume new responsibilities or to risk their personal or professional lives with their critical orientations. Therefore, Akbari (2008) suggested that the academic circles should not leave practising teachers with an impossible

goal, but adopt a teacher education system that lays the foundations of such kind of postmethod practice.

3.3.5 The Commodification of English

In the globalized world, English is not only used as a means of communication per se (use value), but it is also learnt for its economic usefulness in terms of career prospects (exchange value) (Gray, 2013). Marketed as a commodity which would bring individual financial gains, English has become big business having its own consumers and markets (Gray, 2010). As a matter of fact, it is a lucrative global industry now consisting of language courses, printed materials, standardized tests and the so-called "language edu-tourism." Five UK publishing companies earned €13.39 billion in 2012 and topped among the 50 global publishers (Tivnan, 2013). Three of these companies - Pearson, Oxford University Press and Cambridge University Press - specialize in ELT textbook publishing. According to the report of International Education (2013), there were 1.5 million international students who studied English outside their home countries and the market value was 11.6 billion US dollars in 2011. The UK was the most popular country for international students going abroad attracting about 50 % of students in 2011 (International Education, 2013). Turkey was among the top ten countries in 2013 which sent its students abroad for learning English, according to UK based *Annual Statistics Report* (2013). In fact, Turkey is seen as one of the most valuable markets for English language learners.

Another reflection of the commodification of English can be seen in the global commercial testing industry. English language skills are qualified through high-stakes commercial standardized tests, namely TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) and IELTS (International English Language Testing System) (Templer, 2004). Leaving aside the washback effect of these tests, these assessment products are highly expensive. The price of these standardized tests is the same both for higher-income and lower-income countries, which makes it almost impossible to pay for some test takers. As Templer (2004) noted, the TOEFL and IELTS test fees were more than the monthly salary of teachers in Bulgaria in 2004. For Templer (2004), the rationale behind this rigid pricing policy of these assessment companies cannot

be anything other than commercial interest. What is worse, Templer (2004) argued that the companies providing these tests have become English language testing cartels in the world of "test-demonstrated English proficiency" as more and more companies and universities around the world accept only these test scores excluding local or in-house English proficiency exams.

Largely having instrumental motivation to learn English, English language learners spend huge amounts of money on textbooks, language courses or standardized tests either in their home country or abroad. As Templer (2004) noted, "Never before in the planet's history have so many of the poor spent so much to learn the language of the rich" (p. 191). Because the levels of proficiency demanded from language learners is so high, language learners have to spend years to score higher in the international standardized exams. Ironically, the increasing periods of time spent on learning English seem to coincide with the interests of the ELT industry: the higher the amount of time for learning English, the higher is the profit of those companies providing goods or services. Naturally, in this system in which language learners are seen as consumers, those who have the financial means have a better chance to learn English at private schools with easy access to commercialized materials and tests. Those who do not have such a chance are not able to reach a higher level of proficiency and they do not enjoy the financial benefits of learning English. Under the circumstances, it is clearly seen that the existing inequalities in the society are reproduced by the ELT industry.

In this profit-driven sector, English language teaching may start losing its educational character turning into a marketized endeavor. The materials and tests prepared for teaching English have to serve corporate interests rather than educational goals. Therefore, publishers do not prioritize educational ends, but pay attention to maximizing their sales in a huge number of markets (Gray, 2010). It is thus normal for them to include only a small range of topics that would fit all markets avoiding controversial topics such as politics or sex. Besides, as cultural artifacts, commercial textbooks reflected the neoliberal turn after 1980s (Gray, 2010). While those textbooks published before 1980 included references to working class culture and strikes, those after 1980 did not have those. Instead, the textbooks represented a world of work in which success depended on individual choice. The

flexible nature of work under neoliberalism also found its expression in the books in which the professionals changed positions or workplaces frequently. What is more the theme of celebrities became more and more common in the textbooks in recent years while they were non-existent during 1960s or 1970s (Gray, 2010).

Teachers, especially those working in the private sector, also become vulnerable to this commercially oriented language teaching sector (Walker, 2014). Educated as humanistic educators, English language teachers find themselves in a dilemma when they have to serve for the corporate interests of maximizing profit while teaching English. They become confused between their professional roles and the commercial interests of their institutions. They are asked to treat their students as consumers and to contribute to the reputation of their language centre. Feeling obliged to care for the managerial rules of their companies, they find themselves in difficult situations because they are forced to violate professional or educational ethics not to lose their jobs (Walker, 2014).

In a similar vein, language teachers who are used to seeing commercial textbooks only as curriculum artifacts rather than as cultural artifacts may fall into the trap of reinforcing the hidden messages in the books. They may also be directed to see tests as neutral instruments ignoring the social, economical and psychological impact of them (Shohamy, 1998). What is more, they might be forced to teach to the test through the imposition of standardized tests. Whether or not they believe in the value of the testing system, they may feel obliged to adapt their teaching to the institutionalized knowledge in the test. On the other hand, testers may face an unethical situation when the tests they produce for educational purposes are misused for exerting control. Thus, as Shohamy (1998) noted, language testers also have a responsibility to make sure that they prepare educational, democratic and ethical tests.

This chapter describing the theoretical framework of this dissertation started with a general outlook on critical theory narrowing its scope with the survey of critical pedagogy. The theoretical lens provided in this chapter became more specific with the closer look on critical applied linguistics. The next chapter will present the review of research relevant to this case study.

CHAPTER 4

THE REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The preparation of pre-service student teachers has been an area of debate and inquiry in teacher education literature for the last three decades or so. While some scholars questioned the purposes of teacher education programs, some researchers investigated teacher education programs for the specific roles they prepared teacher candidates for. Such studies problematised teacher education itself and sought to find alternatives to traditional teacher education approaches depicting the innovative programs with their strengths and weaknesses. Research studies on teacher roles are not limited to those focusing on teacher education programs, though. There are also studies which traced the influence of educational policies on the roles teachers assumed locating the changing teacher roles in a historical context. These studies mostly dealt with the influence of neoliberalism on the profession of teaching. Still, another area of research has been survey research exploring student and/or teacher perceptions of teacher roles. These studies attempted to discover the beliefs of student teachers and practising teachers on the act of teaching. Even though the research on teacher roles is diverse, no studies similar to this study, which explores teacher roles in a teacher education program, were found.

This chapter will first provide a grasp of different teacher education models and present research studies conducted on those teacher education models. After surveying the teacher education models, research studies on teacher roles will be explored to get an insight about the student and teacher beliefs on teacher roles. Finally, studies investigating the impact of policies on teacher roles will be reviewed.

4.1 Teacher Education Models

There are different models of teacher education, which assume different names in different sources. Though there seems to be a multiplicity of models, in fact there are three basic models of teacher education currently discussed in the literature:

technicist teacher education, reflective teacher education and critical teacher education. As the point of departure in each model is different, so are the characteristics of teachers they intend to prepare, reminiscent of the teacher roles this study explores.

The traditional approach to teacher education is usually referred to as the technicist model of teacher education by the reflective or critical teacher education models. But in the foreign language teacher education literature, Richards (1989) calls it the training approach while Wallace (1991) names it as the applied science model. In this study, I will also follow the reflective and critical teacher education models in naming traditional teacher education as technicist and therefore I will present it from a critical standpoint. As for reflective teacher education, there seems to be a general consensus in naming the model - except for a few who call this approach "teacher development" as opposed to "teacher training" (Richards, 1989). When it comes to critical teacher education, it is referred to as liberatory education by Freire (1970) and as "social justice teacher education" by Zeichner (2011). In this study, I will stick to the term "critical teacher education" as it covers a wider spectrum of teacher education programs with varying nuances. The discussion below provides a description of each teacher education model.

4.1.1 Technicist Teacher Education

Halliday (1998) describes technicism in teacher education "as the notion that good teaching is equivalent to efficient performance which achieves ends that are prescribed for teachers" (p. 597), which is in contrast with the reflective practice in which teachers decide the ends and means of their teaching. In the technicist model of teacher education, good teaching is equal to the use of a technique. In this rationality, if learning does not occur in the classroom setting, it is because teachers do not use "the right" method and technique. Because this approach is built on the notion that all learners learn in a similar way regardless of their background knowledge or socio-economic background, they are provided with a standardized curricula and a prescribed way of teaching. This is, however, regarded as an oversimplification of the complexity of education.

Instrumental rationality gives importance to the means rather than the ends (Hodkinson, 2011). In technicist teacher education, how to teach is given utmost importance while the purpose of teaching is ignored. There is great importance on "facilitating" learning, but the subject matter to be facilitated is not considered (Giroux & McLaren, 1986). As Hodkinson (2011) put it, "technical rationalism assumes that people can be managed as if they behaved like machines. Education and training are seen as systematic production processes, using the metaphor of the assembly line, with its inputs, processes and outputs" (p. 199). In technical rationality, quality, efficiency and control are key words. To make the education system controllable from top down, the system is divided into manageable fragments with objectives, procedures and tests. Trainees are taught how to perform those small parts. In this system, teachers and trainers are like "widgets" in the system which ensure the maintenance of the system (Hodkinson, 2011, p. 200). They are considered as technicians to be controlled rather than as competent decision-makers. Hodkinson (2011) describes the "good" teacher in this system as "someone who works uncritically within whatever contexts are determined for him/her, who strives to achieve targets determined for her/him by others, with resources provided (or not) by others and in ways increasingly prescribed by others" (p. 200).

The technicist notion of teacher education seems to be the equivalent of the "training" approach to teacher education (Adler, 1990). Richards (1989) explains the distinction between "training" and "education" as follows: While "training" focuses on giving instruction on the technical matters of teaching, "education" encapsulates a broader perspective into teaching taking into account the social, political and cultural issues. The training approach to teacher education assumes that student teachers come to teacher education programs with some deficiencies in language proficiency or content knowledge. Their existing notions as to what makes effective teaching are not taken into consideration in the teacher education program (Lortie, 1975). This model of teacher education is based on the idea that there are some effective methods, which would work in each and every context. Teachers are thus expected to match their teaching styles to the most effective method prescribed by the experts in the field without questioning its relevance or effectiveness. In this approach, content knowledge is separated into discrete skills and techniques to be mastered (Freeman,

1989) and it is believed that if trainee teachers learn those skills, they will be effective teachers. As Richards (1989, p. 3) put it, "Training is intended to expand the teacher's repertoire of tasks and to improve the effectiveness with which tasks are used." Moreover, it is considered that learning to teach can happen by separating theory from practice in which student teachers learn *about* teaching in one context, observe and practice teaching in another context and improve their teaching in a third context when they start active teaching (Johnson, 2009). In this view, student teachers are assumed to learn everything about teaching in their teacher education programs at the start of their careers.

Wallace (1991) believes this prevalent model of teacher education takes its reference from empirical science and names it as the applied science model. According to this model, it is assumed that "teaching problems can be solved by the application of empirical science to the desired objectives" (p. 8). The findings of scientific studies are passed onto the student teachers who are expected to implement these. In this model, researchers and teachers are different: teachers are practitioners to be provided with the findings of research studies by the experts. It is not common practice for teachers to engage in research themselves unlike those in some other professions, e.g. surgeons in the medical profession who both conduct research and perform operations. Thus, teachers are only responsible for executing what the experts in the field tell them to do.

When it comes to the role of the teacher educators in this technicist approach, "the teacher educator is seen as an expert, as a catalyst for change, as a model teacher, and as the source of new ideas and information. His or her primary functions are to provide ideas and suggestions, to solve problems, and to intervene and point out better ways of doing things" (Richards, 1989; p. 3). Although the teacher educator's role as a model to the student teachers may prove effective in teaching certain skills and techniques which do not require much reflection (Richards, 1989), it does not acknowledge the experience, creativity and wisdom of the student teachers by reducing them to passive recipients. Moreover, this approach is criticized as presenting a limited understanding of what teaching is about without realizing the complexity of classroom life. Important components of teaching such as teacher beliefs, values and decision making skills are totally ignored. What is more, the

responsibility of student teachers' professional development is given to the teacher educator rather than on the trainees themselves (Richards, 1989).

4.1.2 Reflective Teacher Education

The limited lens of the technicist approach to teacher education was challenged with respect to the roles given to teachers by the reflective teaching movement. Considering the fact that some traits and tasks that make an effective teacher in one context may not produce an effective teacher in another context, the complexity of the classroom context started to be acknowledged (Adler, 1990). Teachers came to be viewed as professionals who make spontaneous decisions in their classrooms in line with the needs of their students. As Dewey (1933/1997) argued, it is not sufficient to teach effective practices to teacher candidates, they also need to learn thoughtful action in their teaching practices so as not to be swept by routine mechanic action. Teacher candidates need to develop values and reflective practices to act as informed decision-makers (Adler, 1990).

As reflective teaching became popular, Zeichner and Liston (1996) warned against the term losing its essence. In a similar vein, Adler (1990) surveyed some varying definitions of reflective teaching in the literature. Cruikshank (1987, as cited in Adler, 1990) defined reflective teaching as a teacher's self-evaluation of her own teaching. In this model, student teachers teach a lesson to their peers and then they evaluate their own performance, students' reactions and learning, etc. together with their peers. Schön (1987) defined a reflective practitioner as someone who is able to think while teaching and can respond to the ambiguity in the immediate classroom setting. The thinking process of a teacher while teaching and her creative problem-solving cannot be formulated as rules and procedures to be followed by other teachers. Therefore, reflective teaching is learnt by doing and coaching (Adler, 1990). Schön suggested a reflective practicum in which students and coaches reflect on practice in dialogue. Zeichner and Liston's (1987, as cited by Adler, 1990) model, however, suggested three levels of reflection: technical reflection, situational and institutional reflection and critical reflection with respect to moral and ethical issues. Zeichner and Liston (1996) think it is not enough only to think about the effectiveness of one's teaching strategies. Teachers should also reflect on the

situational, institutional factors on certain choices made. They should also critically analyze the moral and ethical consequences of their actions. Larrivee (2008) also conceptualized reflection as a continuum consisting of three stages of reflection: surface reflection, pedagogical reflection and critical reflection. In surface reflection, teachers are concerned with the methods and techniques they used to arrive at predetermined goals, but they do not question those goals. At the level of pedagogical reflection, teachers reflect on the goals and the underlying theoretical reasons behind those goals. At the level of critical reflection, they consider the moral and ethical implications of their acts, similar to what Zeichner and Liston (1996) advocated. They reflect both inwardly on their actions and outwardly on the social conditions. Though all models of reflective teaching view teaching as a complex activity which cannot be easily predicted, Larrivee (2008) asserts, it is crucial for teachers to reach higher levels of reflection asking questions as to their own practice.

Schön (1987) believes that professional education should give priority to practice rather than delaying it until students are given enough content knowledge, as he thinks student teachers should learn to teach by doing. As opposed to the normative curriculum in which practicum comes after theory to give student teachers the opportunity to practice the techniques prescribed by the professional experts, in a reflective curriculum, practice is at the center of the program in which learners learn to teach by being actively involved in reflection *in* and *on* action. In such a practicum, Schön (1987) asserts, student teachers should be given some tasks to explore their own learning by questioning their own assumptions and comparing theory with their experience. In this process, teacher educators should work as coaches and help student teachers deal with situations for which there are no suggested solutions. Students should thus be encouraged to experiment with difficult situations in practice so that they develop a broader perspective to teaching (Schön, 1987). In this perspective, student teachers' prior experience as students, their beliefs, values and assumptions play a crucial role in addition to received knowledge (Johnson, 2009; Wallace, 1991). Their background knowledge is considered significant and they are provided with the tools to analyze their own beliefs (Richards, 1989). Content knowledge is not limited to skills/techniques; it also includes concepts, attitudes and emotions. In addition, it provides room for the

negotiation of content according to the needs or dilemmas of student teachers (Richards, 1989). In such a curriculum, student teachers are continually involved in activities to reflect on their own teaching and their roles as teachers. Even the development of technical skills is addressed in a broader reflective framework in which student teachers' awareness is increased and they are encouraged to consider the effects of their actions (Richards, 1989).

Reflective teacher education approach does not consider classical techniques of teaching skills like modeling, imitating, practice as adequate; thus, students are asked to write reflective pieces on their values and beliefs (Richards, 1989). They are encouraged to observe and reflect on their own teaching video-recording themselves. They are motivated to write reflective journals to monitor their own learning. Problem-solving tasks and group projects are used for student teachers to offer solutions to puzzles of teaching. Action research is a key element in this model which forces student teachers to determine a problem area in their own classroom (Richards, 1989). They try to solve dilemmas by collecting data, designing an intervention and evaluation. In this model, student teachers assume responsibility to organize and monitor their own learning while teacher educators work as coaches or facilitators who raise the consciousness of the student teachers. What is more, in this perspective, learning to teach is seen as a life-long process (Johnson, 2009). According to this view, teacher education programs only provide the foundations. Their ultimate goal is to help student teachers to become flexible professionals who are confident and competent enough to address the needs of their learners in differing situations (Johnson, 2009). Therefore, teacher educators try to make student teachers internalize the skill to examine their own teaching in pre-service teacher education. So a seminar allowing students to discuss their experiences and insights from their teaching practice as a whole group is considered key in reflective teaching. The atmosphere of dialogue in the seminar invites student teachers to question their assumptions, and enables them to relate theory to practice (Adler, 1990; Goodman, 1984). Journal writing, narratives, autobiographies, support groups and peer coaching are other mediums which stimulate reflection (Larrivee, 2008).

Jay and Johnson (2002) think that reflection has become a grand idea in teacher education. However, for them it is difficult to define the concept in its complexity.

They warn against this complex concept's being reduced into a technique. Jay and Johnson (2002) believe it is even more difficult to teach reflection to student teachers and they offer a typology of reflection (descriptive, comparative and critical) as a model to be used in reflective practice. They also describe how central reflection is in their own program in the University of Washington. They write that reflective practice and strategies are modeled to student teachers and they meet in a weekly seminar with teaching assistants to engage in reflective practice. In these seminars, they also talk about their thoughts, feelings and ideas about their own roles as teachers. At the end of the process, they create a portfolio including samples of their work on effective teaching, assessment, evaluation, students' work, evidence of their commitment to their profession, etc. Authors believe portfolios are good opportunities for student teachers to engage in ongoing reflective practice, which should be scaffolded.

In a similar vein, Liou's study (2001), which investigated pre-service teachers' reflective practice in EFL teacher education in Taiwan, concluded that training on reflective teaching and a seminar on teacher development could help student teachers' reflectivity. The analysis of 20 student teachers' observation reports and 20 practice teaching reports indicated that student teachers wrote mostly descriptive reflections about their observations than critical reflection. Therefore, the author recommended integrating reflective practice into teacher education programs from day one so that student teachers develop a notion of teacher development.

Likewise, Şanal Erginel (2006) explored the process of becoming reflective teachers at a pre-service teacher education program in Northern Cyprus. The study was conducted with the participation of thirty student teachers who took a teaching practice course in their senior year of study. To collect data, the researcher used guided weekly journals kept by student teachers, class interactions, interviews and questionnaires. The analysis of multiple sources of data demonstrated that the collaborative nature of class discussions was helpful for teacher candidates to reflect on their experiences and exchange ideas because students felt comfortable expressing their ideas in a non-threatening, friendly atmosphere. According to the findings of the study, student teachers appreciated the feedback they received from their teachers and their peers as it enabled them to evaluate their weaknesses and strengths. The

participant students also noted that they developed self-awareness through the journals, the video-taped teaching sessions and the feedback they received. The analysis of the content of student reflections throughout the semester revealed that student teachers reached higher levels of reflection in the second half of the term. They started to relate their reflections to contextual factors and theoretical principles. The topics student teachers referred to included instructional processes, ways to motivate students and classroom management. The author concluded that there is need for broadening the scope of reflection to touch upon social, cultural and ethical issues, as student teachers mostly dwelled on technical issues in their reflection. Therefore, she recommended a reevaluation of the guidance, support and feedback given in the course so that social and ethical issues are elaborated more in the course.

Lee (2007) explored the use of dialogue journals and response journals in pre-service English teacher education program in Hong Kong. In one methodology course she used dialogue journals and in another methodology course she asked student teachers to keep response journals so that they can start reflecting on their process of learning to teach before the teaching practice starts. Thirty-one student teachers who participated in the study wrote their journal entries for two semesters. The researcher collected data from the journal entries and interviews with student teachers. The analysis of student reflective writings indicated that both forms of journal writing helped student teachers internalize educational theories. Participant students highly appreciated writing journal entries as it facilitated reflection. Still, the author recommended guiding students with prompts at the beginning to scaffold the process. She also warned that dialogue journals may make the student teachers dependent on the teacher educator limiting teacher candidates' chances of discovering the joy of journal writing themselves. Therefore, the author suggested student teachers exchange their journals with their peers from time to time to have an audience other than the teacher educator.

Cephe (2009) investigated the changes in student teachers' constructions of the teaching profession in a methodology course through the use of metaphors. Before students started following the methodology course, they were asked to come up with a metaphor about teaching. After taking the methodology course, student teachers were asked to produce metaphors about the teaching profession again. The findings

showed that students' understanding of the teaching profession changed from more behaviorist transmission approach to a more constructivist approach with the help of the reflective practice followed in the methodology course.

Similar to Lee (2007), Demirbudak (2012) also believed that it is possible to integrate reflective teaching in early teacher education even before students start teaching practice. She thought that methodology courses could be good venues for encouraging reflective teaching. In her study, she tracked student teachers' development in terms of reflective teaching from an English language teaching methodology course to practice teaching course. She also interviewed a few participants when they started teaching. In the methodology course she taught she asked students to write reflective essays on the methods they liked the best and the least drawing their own personal teaching method. Students also evaluated their own performance through videotapes recorded while they were teaching. At the end of the semester, they were asked to write a reflection on their experience of learning to teach throughout the semester. In the teaching practice course, students were first asked to collect data on their students. Then they got to know the context they were observing. Later on they were given observation tasks to structure their observations. The rest of the time they spent preparing for their teaching sessions in close cooperation with their coordinating teacher. They taught three times in the semester. Towards the end of the semester, students were asked if the reflective approach in their methodology course helped them in practice teaching. Eight of the participants were also contacted towards the end of their first year in teaching at their school settings and were asked about the use of reflective approach employed in methodology and practice teaching courses they had taken. The findings of the study revealed that student teachers mostly concentrated on issues related to teacher efficacy while taking methodology courses. When they started teaching practice, they started to comment on issues related to school administration, mentor teachers, classroom management, which came to mean that their centre of attention had shifted to student learning. They had started to perceive that as teachers, they were not the central element in the learning process. When they started teaching, the novice teachers reported that the reflective approach they followed in their pre-service teacher education had helped them engage in reflective teaching. Yet, the author did

not give concrete evidence on the sorts of reflection novice teachers had. Though the author described the processes of leading students to teach reflectively, she concluded that reflective teaching does not have to be formal: for her, even discussions led by open-ended questions can lead to reflective teaching, as students learn reflective practice by teaching.

Eröz-Tuğa's study (2012) is a qualitative action research study which investigated the contribution of reflective feedback sessions to pre-service foreign language teacher education students' preparation. The study was intended to raise the awareness of student teachers taking a practice teaching course in terms of their strengths and weaknesses to lower the level of anxiety they faced when they started teaching practice in a real classroom environment. Eleven of the students enrolled in a practice teaching course offered by the researcher accepted to take part in the study for which they devoted extra time during the reflective feedback sessions. The participant students were video-recorded two times while they were teaching. After each session, they watched the recording with their supervisor and their partner and evaluated their own lesson. They also received feedback from their supervisor. The data consisting of the recordings of feedback sessions and student teacher self-evaluation forms were analyzed to see if there was any progress in terms of student teacher reflections throughout the semester. The findings indicated that students became more insightful as to their teaching potential with the help of feedback sessions. Student teachers became more attentive to classroom events after analyzing the student reactions to their behaviors in video-recordings. The participant student teachers also noted that these feedback sessions helped them improve their performance.

Gümüşok (2014) investigated the content and quality of reflection student teachers engaged in a practicum course at a pre-service foreign language teacher education program in central Turkey. Twenty-seven pre-service teachers took part in the study. The researcher used self-evaluation and peer-evaluation forms, video-recordings of post-conference sessions and interviews to collect data. The analysis of data showed that student teachers reflected on the process of learning/teaching, motivation of students, teacher assessments and classroom management. Similar to the results of Liou (2001) reported above, this study also found out that student

reflections were mostly descriptive not reaching to higher levels of thinking. However, they thought that these reflections helped them develop self-confidence and awareness about teaching. The author concluded that the student teachers could be encouraged to write more often and guided about their reflection process.

Despite the above mentioned advantages of reflective teacher education, it also drew some criticisms because it does not go beyond an individualized focus on teachers and their personal reflections (Yogev & Michaeli, 2011). In other words, while reflective teacher education might be a good way of ensuring personal professional development, it lacks a moral, emancipatory dimension for the improvement of society (Akbari, 2007). Eryaman (2007) believes this might be because the original form of reflective teaching in close contact with the political, social, moral and aesthetical dimensions of teaching is misinterpreted in practice. As opposed to Eryaman (2007), Zeichner (1990) thinks the popularity of an individualized reflective teaching might be due to its easy adaptation to every kind of teacher education approach. In reaction to the concept of reflective teaching losing its substance, Zeichner (1990) feels the need to clarify his own social reconstructionist way of understanding reflective teaching which situates teachers' reflection in a political, cultural and social sphere. He does not believe that just because teachers reflect, they will teach better. For Zeichner (1990), what teachers reflect on is crucial: they should "focus inwardly at their own practice (and the collective practices of a group of colleagues) and outwardly at the social conditions in which these practices are situated" (p. 59).

Apart from its disregard for critical issues, there are other concerns as to the notion of reflective teaching, though. First of all, reflection is criticized as it has turned into another technique for improving teaching losing its essence (Halliday, 1998). Despite the wide popularity of reflective teaching, Akbari (2007) asserts, there is no evidence that it helps student or teacher performance. In the same line, Canning (2011) argues that there is no need to prioritize reflective teaching in initial teacher education when there are equally effective collective practices like observing and dialoguing with peers and mentor teachers. On the other hand, notwithstanding its claims of empowering teachers, reflective teaching imposes teachers a certain way of reflective practice (Liston et al., 2009) assuming that teachers would not reflect on

their own practice without the guidance of academic scholars (Akbari, 2007; Eryaman, 2007), which implies a belittling view of teachers and teaching. Besides, reflective practice is usually limited to teachers' earlier experience not allowing them to exercise reflection in preparing creative lessons for the upcoming lessons. What is more, asking pre-service teachers to engage in reflective practice might be asking too much considering their very limited teaching experience (Akbari, 2007). One last issue of concern over reflective teaching is its overemphasis on teachers' depending on their own resources like their memories and experience. As Akbari (2007) argues, there is no guarantee that deeper thinking on one's own experience through journaling will give them a better view of the reality; it might only help teachers admit their frustrations or concerns before a larger audience, which in turn would discourage teachers from finding alternative ways to improve their practice. A heavy concentration on reflective teaching also entails a risk of focusing too much on practice neglecting theory, which will bear a loss of contact with one's colleagues on a common conceptual framework (Akbari, 2007).

4.1.3 Critical Teacher Education

"Good teacher education is intellectually exciting."

Raewyn Connell (2009)

Critical teacher education diverges from mainstream teacher education in its care for the sociopolitical and educational problems of the society. For critical teacher education, "the fundamental concerns of democracy and critical citizenship should be central to any discussion of the purpose of teacher education" (Giroux & McLaren, 1986, p. 222). However, faculties of education hardly encourage teacher candidates to develop a notion of education in relation to social critique and social change because they see their mission as offering technical expertise (Giroux & McLaren, 1986). From a critical perspective, mainstream teacher education is another mechanism of ideological state apparatus working to transmit capitalist values among teacher candidates fostering them to care for money and personal career prospects (Abednia, 2012; Darder et al., 2008; Yogev & Michaeli, 2011). In traditional teacher education, teachers are not usually recognized as decision makers

or educational leaders. Seldom are they exposed to intellectually challenging materials under a heavy focus on how to teach (Kincheloe, 2004). They are usually exposed to a single mainstream teacher education paradigm which offers a narrow perspective onto teaching (Liston et al., 2009). They are directed to concentrate on the procedure of teaching more than the content. They are expected to work as facilitators, but there is little concern over the subject matter to be facilitated (Giroux & McLaren, 1986). Thoroughly alienated by the mismatch between the prescription of how to teach in university classrooms and the classroom realities they face, teacher candidates or practicing teachers are overwhelmed (Kincheloe, 2004). Bombarded with the technical and mechanistic procedures of teaching, they are far from gaining the skills of analyzing educational purposes, the implications of education for diverse groups of students, the impact of political economy on schooling or their own roles as agents of transformation (Kincheloe, 2004). They are socialized to think that teaching is an individual, cognitive process which could be practiced by implementing what the established methods and scientific research indicate without considering the racial, social, cultural, economic or ethnic background of students (Eryaman, 2007). Yogev and Michaeli (2011) summarize the problem of teacher education programs as follows:

Contemporary teacher training demarcates itself within the boundaries of inculcating disciplinary knowledge, developing didactic skills, and nurturing self-awareness. Graduates of traditional teacher training ... perceive themselves mainly as knowledge brokers and do not think about or question the basic concepts of the system in which they work, the curriculum they teach, or the teaching methods they apply (p. 315).

In addition to the above mentioned technicism in teacher education, Liston et al. (2009) write about the dominant progressive teacher education paradigm which gives limited space to a variety of educational philosophies other than constructivism. Teacher candidates are "schooled" to a narrow understanding of education (Liston et al., 2009). For Liston et al. (2009), there are a number of reasons for this limited approach to teacher education. One reason is the limiting view of education put forward in national standards and the testing system. Another reason is the disregard for the social foundations of education. Even scholars do not give enough attention to

philosophical and historical understanding of education for Liston et al. (2009). Okçabol (2012) makes a similar statement about the teacher education programs in Turkey in the quote below:

The existing system [in Turkey] is unable to make significant changes in teacher candidates. Candidates come to schools of education and leave four to five years later without experiencing any major changes in their worldview, scientific thought, understanding of the importance of their profession and the essence of education, and democratic attitudes. They do not gain the theoretical and philosophical background necessary to be considered as good teachers and educators. They graduate without acquiring the spirit of teaching, without questioning the attitudes and habits that they took on from their earlier education, and without understanding why they are becoming teachers. If they gain anything in the schools of education, it is only some teaching skills and knowledge about their subject matter (Okçabol, 2012, p. 228)

The main function of critical teacher education, however, is to reveal the dominant ideologies affecting the lives of teacher educators, teacher candidates and their students (Cochran-Smith, 2006), because students studying at teacher education programs usually have "unexamined assumptions, knowledge and beliefs about students, teaching and the role of schools in society" (Carrington & Selva, 2010, p. 46). In contrast to traditional teacher education programs which reinforce these assumptions, critical teacher education allows students to examine their own beliefs about class, ethnicity and gender roles, and reconstruct the role of schooling through theoretical content and discussions. They should be able to understand that these systems of education are human constructions and could be changed (Kincheloe, 2004). They should be able to see the microcosm of their classroom from a macro perspective (Pennycook, 1994). Kincheloe (2004, p. 24) describes what kind of teacher education is targeted in critical teacher education in the following paragraph:

I want universities to produce rigorously educated teachers with an awareness of the complexities of educational practice and an understanding of and commitment to a socially just, democratic notion of schooling. Only with a solid foundation in various mainstream and alternative canons of knowledge can teachers begin to make wise judgments and informed choices about curriculum development and classroom practice. In this context they can craft a teacher persona that

enables them to diagnose individual and collective needs of their students and connect them to their pedagogical strategies and goals. It is naive and dangerous to think that teachers can become the rigorous professionals envisioned here without a conceptual understanding of contemporary and past societies and the sociocultural, political, and economic forces that have shaped them.

As seen in the above quote, this model of teacher education “emphasizes the preparation of teachers who are critical of the current inequities in public schooling and the social, economic, and political structures of the society and will work in and outside their classrooms for greater educational, economic and social justice” (Zeichner & Flessner, 2009, p. 24). For Welsh (1985, as cited in Giroux & McLaren, 1986, p. 226), teachers as transformative intellectuals should work “as bearers of dangerous memory.” In other words, intellectual teachers should make those rarely told stories of oppression public and problematize the histories of women, ethnically diverse groups of people or working-class people. They should not just raise consciousness about these issues, however. They should also be calling people to struggle.

Teacher educators who work for social justice aim at culturally responsive teaching. This culturally responsive way of teaching does not only include appreciating diversity, but it also entails issues of oppression and injustice related to ethnicity, social class, gender and other markers of difference with a view to working as an activist to overcome all sorts of injustices. Thus, it is important for these programs to provide the necessary content knowledge together with the skills to transform that knowledge into practice. In the program, students learn to examine their own values and beliefs about others in addition to racism and privilege by reading, writing and discussing autobiographies, films, case studies and doing action research (Zeichner & Flessner, 2009). They also analyze the political and economic factors that influence the schooling practices from administrative decisions to materials. They attempt to discover the hidden messages these practices provide. However, since learning to teach in a culturally responsive way requires a great deal of personal transformation, student teachers are reported to resist (Zeichner & Flessner, 2009). Thus, it is necessary to set an example to these student teachers for the caring relationships they are asked to form with their students, which means that

teacher educators need to internalize culturally responsive ways of teaching. They should also build a community composed of student teachers, expert mentor teachers and teacher educators in which all participants are considered equally valuable sources of information (Zeichner & Flessner, 2009).

Critical teacher education uses dialogue and co-construction rather than direct-instruction in teaching critical content. For critical education, it is not possible to "empower" or "enlighten" anybody without their deliberate effort to do so. In the words of Clarke (2003, as cited in Morgan, 2009, pp. 90-91):

"Empower" and "liberate" are not transitive verbs. Grammatically, of course, this is not true; both verbs require objects and therefore are transitive ... Pragmatically, however, the matter is not so straightforward. Empowerment and liberation are not serums that can be administered to other. They are not states of grace that we confer on our students. We do not empower others by declaring them to be liberated, nor can we harass them into being empowered... In other words, liberation education is not a direct-instruction phenomenon. The best we can do is work to create the conditions under which students will begin to take the initiative.

The above quote reminds one of Freire's (1970) warnings that no one can liberate anyone. For Freire, educators should not fall into the trap of using oppressors' methods in liberatory pedagogy.

One important distinguishing characteristic of critical teacher education approach is the central position it assigns to field experiences student teachers acquire in schools and communities (Zeichner & Flessner, 2009). As opposed to the traditional teacher education approaches which provide distanced methods instruction, this teacher education perspective provides a vast situated instruction working closely with the mentor teachers in teaching students and student teachers. The schools and the mentor teachers student teachers work with are chosen carefully. Both the student teachers and the mentor-teachers are supported during the experience (Zeichner & Flessner, 2009). What is more, student teachers are also asked to develop projects with the school community both to contribute to the change efforts and to experience the life of students outside school in their own communities. In this way, skills of student teachers to take civic responsibility and to engage in social action are developed. They also have a broader perspective into

the values and beliefs of the school community, since social justice teacher education gives equal importance to the development of attitudes, beliefs and dispositions as the development of knowledge and skills (Zeichner, 2009).

Another important characteristic of this teacher education model is the participation of the K-12 teachers to the decision making processes in teacher education programs “as full and equal partners in program planning and renewal” (Zeichner & Flessner, 2009, p. 41). The existence of a hierarchical relationship with those people outside the university is actually not consistent with the aims of this teacher education for creating a more just and equal society (Zeichner & Flessner, 2009). This collaboration with the school teachers is actually seen as a remedy to solve the traditional and ineffective teacher preparation programs which are detached from the complexities of the classroom environment. If the instruction is situated with the help of observation, videotapes, teacher diaries, etc., it will turn out to be a more effective way of preparing student teachers for the realities of classroom work. In those programs, school teachers also work with teacher educators on campus and they provide instruction (Zeichner & Flessner, 2009).

As can be seen from the above discussion, critical teacher education does not address only technical issues in preservice teacher education. For this teacher education approach, moral issues are as indispensable as the technical ones in preservice teachers’ preparation. Inspired by New College’s teacher education program, Giroux and McLaren (1986) advocate that a teacher education program should include critical conceptual understanding, educational theory, and teaching practice. Zeichner (2009) argues that both technical and ethical issues of teaching should be taken into consideration so that student teachers become aware of the consequences of their actions.

As for the charges against critical teacher education as being too political, indoctrinating and ideological, Cochran-Smith (2006) argues that it is not possible to have a neutral or value-free teacher education:

All of teacher education is political - including decisions about the content and focus of the curriculum, the pedagogy developed, the assessment strategies employed, the arrangements regarding program structures and all fieldwork experiences, and the ways candidates are

selected and recruited. All of these things involve choices about what is included and what is left out, whose viewpoints and interests are served and whose may not be, which aspects of teaching and schooling are made problematic and which are taken-for-granted, and what assumptions are made - whether spoken or unspoken - about the purposes of teaching and schooling in a democratic society (Cochran-Smith, 2006, p. 200)

For Cochran-Smith (2006), such accusations against critical teacher education being "ideological" is actually an attempt to move politics out of teacher education and reduce it to only subject matter knowledge and teaching skills. As an answer to the claims that critical teacher education does only focus on multicultural education making students feel good about themselves and ignoring academic knowledge and skills, Cochran-Smith (2006) asserts that this is far from reality, because critical teacher education aims to provide deep learning opportunities for all learners. The content is not, however, limited to facts, but includes understanding oneself and the world in which one lives.

As critical teacher education is a growing field of study, there is a limited number of studies in the literature. They mostly concentrate on the effects of critical and transformative interventions in a particular teacher education course or an overall teacher education program. Research findings indicate increased social and political awareness on the part of the student teachers (Dinkelman, 1997; Greenman & Dieckmann, 2004; Hawkins & Norton, 2009; Le Fevre, 2011; Osterling & Webb, 2009). But these studies are far from revealing the long term effects of critical teacher education courses/programs on teachers' real life practices. The following part will review only those studies providing a detailed description of their teacher education model, course or pedagogy rather than reviewing all available research.

Giroux and McLaren (1986) called for a new teacher education model as cultural politics. They argued that schools do not only teach academic subjects, but also teach students to develop their own subjectivities. Therefore, the school curriculum should introduce students to a new perspective of life in which students begin to appreciate their own identities. They should start to understand themselves as political and moral subjects and should be directed to a process of self-empowerment. To be able to lead students to self-empowerment, teacher candidates should be educated in a way that links critical social theory with creative alternative

teaching practices. In such a teacher education program, Giroux and McLaren (1986) believed, power, language, culture and history should be central themes of critical analysis. Student teachers should understand the relationship between power and knowledge construction so that they know what kind of knowledge they should provide to their students for them to understand the world around them. Student teachers should also develop a consciousness about the way language is used to shape our world. History is another area where student teachers should question the mainstream understanding of history taught at schools ignoring the histories of diverse minority groups. Student teachers should also learn to critically read students' home culture, street corner-culture and the popular culture.

Yogev and Michaeli's study (2011) is a unique one with the in-depth analysis it provides to the reader situating the study in a political, cultural and social perspective. It reports a transformative teacher-training program developed in a faculty of education in Israel, a country known for its ethno political conflicts. The writers of the study indicate that the particular historical, political, economical and cultural situation of the country makes it even more important for teacher education to adopt a critical approach. Their model aims "to train teachers as 'involved intellectuals' whose professional identity is based on strong professional self-image, awareness of social activism, and commitment to public activity" (p. 313). This model of teacher education was designed as a result of the collective work of all staff and BA students in a faculty of education in cooperation with the community. The program included three major components: community involvement in nongovernmental organizations, educational alliances for intercultural dialogue and peace building and students' active involvement in campus life. The program was designed so that student teachers could teach in a school in the morning, and they could go to a community organization in the afternoon to encounter the social and cultural atmosphere their students lived in. At the same time, pre-service teachers were to take courses related to the community activity they were engaged in to be able to conceptualize their practices. For peace building, Jewish and Arab student teachers were brought together in joint projects. On the other hand, Jewish student teachers were placed at Arab schools and Arab student teachers were placed at Jewish schools to get to know "the other." In addition, student teachers took active

roles in college's academic, administrative and social activities and they learnt to take initiative and leadership roles. They were invited to academic meetings of faculty and took part in decision making processes. Students were also encouraged to carry out projects for the development of the university campus: they initiated a green campus project as well as an academic conference on democracy and education. The findings of the program evaluation study suggested that students were happy with the theoretical knowledge they received in addition to the community experiences they gained. Jewish and Arab students reported they had a lower anxiety level due to the reduction in their fears after getting to know each other. Though findings demonstrated that student teachers had a social-public consciousness, the writers of the article stated that there was still a long way to go before the overall program objectives were met. They also indicated their doubt about the graduates' ability to resist the system's assimilating effect. Therefore, the authors suggested it was necessary to support graduates from the beginning of their careers.

Reed and Black (2006) also described an innovative model of teacher education introduced by World Educational Links at Keene State College in the USA. Like Yogev and Michaeli (2011), they aimed to educate teachers "for anti-oppressive teaching, critical pedagogy and social activism" (p. 34). In their master's program, student teachers were given a one-year full teaching immersion in a school. They taught four days a week at a school and they attended the seminars on campus once a week. The program intended to give their student teachers a transformative learning experience both by the immersion experience and by the sociopolitical and historical knowledge they provided in academic courses. They expected their students to deconstruct the existing system of education and to question the social inequalities and injustice. In this way, this model aimed to create teachers as educators. In order to introduce student teachers with injustice, they were asked to watch videos, and attend workshops. Guest speakers were invited. Research findings showed there were transformative moments in the program. However, the study also demonstrated students had difficulty in accepting their privileged position in society. Even after they came to accept injustice, it was hard to take action to create change, as student teachers were afraid. However, the faculty "reminded interns that it is a political choice of no small consequence to take no action, to remain silent,

particularly in light of their new consciousness" (p. 37). With the encouragement of the staff to take action and to overcome their fears, they were able to take action either by introducing a critical reading on Black History Month, Halloween, Columbus Day, Thanksgiving or Christmas. The writers concluded that the strong point of the program was the integration of theory and practice through an immersion experience. They were also unsure about the teacher candidates' ability to resist the pressures in the system and called for further research.

Potts, Foster-Triplett and Rose (2008) investigated a pre-service transformative multicultural teacher education program in a rural area in the USA from the perspective of teacher educators referring to the challenges, frustrations and tensions they faced while addressing multicultural issues. The program offered many courses on issues of diversity, culture, and equity to elementary education students and they participated in community-based fieldwork projects from their freshman year on. In the courses they took, they read articles, they explored their own identities, attended presentations, discussed videos and case-studies, took part in drama activities, and tutored students from disadvantaged groups. In the first term of their senior year, they taught in an ethnically diverse school. In the last term, they taught at a school which educated students from working class families. While they were taking these courses, they also attended a seminar in which they discussed and conceptualized the issues that came up in their practice. Responses of the teacher educators indicated that their work with teacher candidates was not limited to traditional tools of education like readings and lectures, but included community-service, hearing guest speakers' experience, sharing aesthetic experience and storytelling. Teacher educators noted that their students met poverty for the first time in their lives in community service they attended. As student teachers had a kind of culture shock when they encountered the living conditions of their students, forming dialogue with student teachers was essential. Teacher educators also reported that taking the time to engage in community service along with student teachers was influential on teacher candidates. Other faculty members talked about the influence of guest speakers giving speeches on issues of diversity, poverty and inclusion. Some teacher educators also mentioned the power of story-telling. When they told stories from their own culturally responsive teaching experiences, students were more

motivated to share their own stories. Still, teacher educators encountered some problems and barriers in their departments, at schools and with student teachers. They complained about lack of enough communication among colleagues, lack of support from the university, staff turnover and constraints on the curriculum. The authors concluded that the major disadvantage of the program was its being add-on, not integrated into the whole curriculum. For a reconceptualization of the program to occur, authors suggested, faculty need to meet and discuss what they do in their courses, share materials and work collaboratively to build a more transformative teacher education program in cooperation with school communities.

Slightly different from the studies reported above, Esen's (2013) study directs attention to a neglected area in Turkish teacher education programs: gender-sensitive issues. To challenge asymmetrical gender power relations in the society, Esen notes, teachers have an important role. But in reality, schools and teachers usually reproduce the dominant gender roles in society through their hidden curriculum. To help prospective teachers develop awareness about gender equality and reproduction of gender roles at schools, Esen maintains that teacher education institutions should allocate time and space to this issue. Considering that students at faculties of education in Turkey were exposed to patriarchal norms of the society as members of that society, Esen (2013) felt the need to raise critical awareness on teacher candidates. She reorganized an undergraduate teacher education course to touch upon gender issues and she set out to investigate the influence of this course on student teachers' perceptions. To collect data, she asked participants open-ended questions before and after the course and analyzed student responses through descriptive content analysis. The findings of the study revealed that teacher candidates began to evaluate their own opinions on gender issues and became motivated to engage in transformation starting from their own lives and broadening it to their professional lives. Esen (2013) found out that female participants were more open to accepting gender lens into their private and professional roles while male participants were more reluctant. For gender-sensitivity to be sustainable in practicing teachers, she suggested in-service teacher training programs be created.

Esau (2013) analyzed the potential of participatory action research for educating critically reflective student teachers. Preservice students enrolled in a

postgraduate certificate course in South Africa were eager to take up community oriented participatory action research to make a difference in the school community. Therefore, the author involved teacher candidates in an action research project. They had a mission to disseminate hope at schools. Some of the topics selected by the students were the fear factor in mathematics, eating disorders in schools, sexuality education in school, etc. The author had two focus group interviews with four volunteer students and she had her field notes to collect data. Students also wrote end of semester reports describing their story of doing action research. The findings of the study indicated that student teachers were able to conduct research following the steps of action research carefully. At the end of the process, they were able to see how they would use it in their classroom practices. They were able to analyze the familiar classroom phenomenon deeply by the help of participatory action research they engaged in. Yet, there were some flaws in some action research studies because of being too large or too ambitious to be completed in time. Esau (2013) concluded that the project helped student teachers boost their self-confidence to become effective researchers. It also bridged the gap between theory and practice. Therefore, he recommends using participatory action research as a powerful tool in empowering student teachers and transforming society.

Sevier (2005) conducted a self-study of his own teaching practice in a social foundations course in a pre-service teacher education program. He wrote that his aim in the course was to allow student teachers to experience culturally relevant transformative practices. For this purpose, he chose reading materials which would lead student teachers to question their assumptions about the inequalities within the education system. He picked texts dealing with class, gender and ethnicity discrimination. During the class discussions, however, the author could not get the reaction he expected from the student teachers, as they looked bored and disinterested. Then, he administered a questionnaire to understand the reasons behind their indifference to the topic. The results of the questionnaire and the class discussion following that revealed student teachers who had been educated at elite institutions with great facilities perceived the reading materials as "old stuff" not relevant any more. While the teacher educator was looking for the ways to help student teachers realize the outside reality, he encountered a program on TV which

showed the presentation of a group of students from a local school on the lack of resources they had when compared to the school at another district. The teacher educator invited those students to his class so that the student teachers heard the voices of the disadvantaged students. Upon hearing the stories of the students, the student teachers were outraged and came to understand the relevance of the class readings. Then one student teacher suggested that they conduct mini-ethnographies on different public schools as their final project. The teacher educator accepted and students engaged in research in groups, which gave them a deep insight about the inequalities across schools. The teacher educator concluded that he was able to model culturally relevant teaching when he learnt his students' personal histories. He also noted that the careful selection of readings did not offer much help without establishing relationships with the community.

4.1.3.1 Critical Language Teacher Education

As for critical language teacher education, the field is an emerging one (Hawkins & Norton, 2009) still trying to get beyond its "embryonic stage" (Abednia, 2012, p. 707), because for many years the field of foreign language teaching, especially English language teaching, concerned itself only with linguistics ignoring the field of education and the sociopolitical questions that inform educational practice (Grabe, Stoller & Tardy, 2001; Pennycook, 1990). Doğançay-Aktuna (2006) states that despite the fact that this has been asserted a long time ago, not much has changed in teacher education programs and there are few courses on the sociocultural and political context of English language teaching. Gray and Block (2012, p. 142) warn that if language teacher education fails to find common ground with social sciences, it will be under the threat of getting "intellectually impoverishing."

For Hawkins and Norton (2009), critical language teacher educators attempt to encourage *critical awareness* in student teachers about the power relationships in the society. Moreover, they foster *critical self-reflection* in teacher candidates so that they evaluate their own identities and values. Besides, they also try to establish *critical pedagogical relations* with their students: they create democratic, non-hierarchical relationships with their students. Hawkins and Norton (2009) also note that there are challenges to critical foreign language teacher education such as

traditional power hierarchies, political pressures on teacher educators, resistance from students, and imposition of critical pedagogy rather than negotiation of content and standards-based education system.

For strengthening second/foreign language teacher candidates' abilities to deal with the diverse contexts they are going to deal with and to broaden their perspectives as to education, Doğançay-Aktuna (2006) suggested broadening the knowledge-base of teacher education. Therefore, she advocated providing teacher candidates with sensitivity towards cultural diversity by going through the basic issues of intercultural communication, because otherwise they might not be able to associate learner difficulties with cultural differences. She proposed practical ethnography to be introduced to prospective teachers as a tool to collect data on the students' socioeconomic and cultural backgrounds so that they can learn how to observe classroom culture. She also wrote sociopolitics of language teaching should be explored in language teacher education programs through critical readings in the field of applied linguistics.

Vergara (2014) thought teacher candidates are offered little on developing critical social skills in foreign language teacher education programs, because their main responsibilities are considered to be developing the language proficiency of their students. From this perspective, English teachers are not supposed to problematize the legitimacy of power dynamics or social practices. For English teachers to oppose the hegemonic discourses, Vergara (2014) argues, English literature offers great resources. In order to develop critical citizens, novels produced in English (such as Steinbeck's novel titled *The Winter of Our Discontent*, which tells an interesting story of the people struggling in a town) could provide good starting points for discussing current and historical social justice issues for teacher candidates.

Abednia's (2012) study is an investigation of the influence one critical EFL teacher education course exerts upon Iranian pre-service EFL teachers' professional identity development. Abednia (2012) designed a critical teacher education course based on literature review. The author also negotiated the course content with the class and opened room for the topics and articles suggested by students. She interviewed voluntary students before and after the course. In addition to student

interviews, she also recorded class discussions and kept a reflective diary herself as the teacher educator. The findings of her study suggested that there were three kinds of change in student teachers' professional identity. Before taking the course, their major motivation to teach was instrumental: to earn money. However, after taking the course, they started to criticize teachers who worked just for money. While they thought earlier that they had to follow institutional policies of schools as they were, they began to feel empowered to question those policies after class discussions. Having internalized the dominant ELT discourse, at first they had difficulty challenging some of those ideas. They thought they did not have enough competence or expertise to raise counter-arguments to the ideas of known scholars. Yet, they developed a more critical autonomous perspective as the course developed. While they believed increasing student participation and focusing on four skills were the most important aims in language teaching at the beginning, they shifted their perspective and started to emphasize the significance of critical awareness towards the end of the course. Taking into consideration the impact of even a short course of critical and transformative teacher education on teacher candidates, Abednia (2012) concluded that for teachers to become transformative intellectuals, they have to reconstruct their professional identities no matter how difficult it is.

In critical language teacher education, courses including critical approaches to teaching English and critical pedagogy for EFL are taught. As critical pedagogy is perceived to be too theoretical for teacher candidates to put into practice, Barnawi (2010) suggested some pedagogical tasks for EFL teacher educators to educate critical transformative EFL teachers. Some of these tasks are exploring hidden identities of student teachers through assigning readings, running a workshop to discuss how to make use of learners' L1 and evaluating course books for the minority or immigrant groups they underrepresent and for the values they try to convey (Barnawi, 2010).

Another such study conducted to bridge the gap between critical pedagogy and the practice of teaching English, especially for academic purposes is Morgan's (2009). He believes that teaching critical and transformative perspectives to pre-service teachers of English necessitates a different approach than teaching pedagogical content knowledge. In teaching critical pedagogy, the aim is not to have

a specific outcome, but creating "a possibility" for student teachers to develop a new identity and a new responsibility for themselves as teachers of English. It is a collaborative knowledge building effort in which students and teachers work together. Yet, it is not accomplished through teachers' imposing their own agenda on students. Teacher educators create a context for student teachers to adopt this new perspective. But they are free to reject it, as well. Morgan (2009) describes the way he combines theory and practice in a course called Socio-Political Issues in Second Language Education by assigning readings of cases which put critical pedagogy into practice (The list of readings and topics he covered is provided in the appendix of his article). He used question prompts, group work and teacher talk to contextualize the content. As for a final assignment, he asked students to conduct an Issues Analysis Project in groups of 2 to 4 people in which they would select an issue that negatively influenced the teaching-learning process at a teaching context they know. Then they were supposed to propose a plan for action to resolve the issue "in the form of policy, curriculum innovation, specialized materials, or an in-service/preservice workshop for teachers and/or program administrators" (p. 92). Morgan reported some of the student projects conducted. In the end, he called for more detailed case studies and actual lesson plans to exemplify how to bridge theory and practice in critical teacher education.

Rocha Pessoa and Urzêda Freitas (2012) conducted a case study investigating their own collaborative practice of teaching English through critical themes at a language center of a university in Brazil. One author was the teacher and the other was a collaborator observing her peer during the classes. The teacher of the class selected the following themes for discussion during the semester: English in the age of globalization, the power of the body, race and racism in Brazil, culture and identity and gender and sexuality. In the first class meeting, the researcher explained the study and the students agreed to take part in it. There were six instruments of data collection: student questionnaires, a research diary kept by the teacher, two reflective sessions between the teacher and the collaborator, one reflective session with all students and a final questionnaire. To do justice to the critical issues to be discussed, each topic was discussed for three weeks. Before the class, students were asked to read articles on the topic. During the class, there was a short warm-up activity about

the topic such as describing a picture. Then there were a few collaborative activities for students to share their ideas with their peers in groups. After that a whole class discussion was made. At the end, the teacher listed some grammar and pronunciation errors on the board and asked students to correct them. There were also listening activities (from videos or films) about the topic and students were asked to write compositions at the conclusion of each topic. Most students reacted well to critical English classes according to the final questionnaire. They were happy because they had both improved their language skills and developed their critical thinking skills. The students reported that the classes helped them question their own values decreasing their prejudice. On the other hand, the teacher was concerned about his own authority or the risk of silencing the students through the theoretical knowledge he used. Once, the collaborator also directed attention to the fact that the authority of the teacher could be suppressing students from expressing their own opinions. Still, the teacher wanted to intervene at times not to trivialize these serious themes by allowing those discussions to float on the surface. Still, the authors noted that this intervention must be carried out carefully so that teachers do not end up imposing their own ideas on the students. During the classes, there were times of conflict, which was a challenge for the language teacher. Yet, the researchers believed it was a worthwhile effort because students were able to develop their subjective opinions and they reported that they had started to influence other people outside the class with the influence of the class discussions. The authors concluded that language classrooms could become dialogic atmospheres in which people have genuine interaction and critical awareness rather than places students solely play games and engage in ordinary interactive activities.

Jeyaraj and Harland (2014) investigated the perceptions of those academics who used critical pedagogy in English language teaching departments. They explored how critical pedagogy transformed these critical educators' teaching and their students' learning through semi-structured interviews. The participants were 13 academics working in six different countries. The findings of the study suggested that the educators gave emotional reactions such as feeling like they were losing control because of the open nature of the discussions or they felt isolated because of standing out in their institutions. Some of them also stated they felt at risk due to the

restrictions on freedom of speech. As for students, they reported that their students felt uncomfortable or upset when they first started talking about critical issues; but later on they overcame these feelings of being desperate. They reported that some of them even became change agents in their own communities outside the academy. At the same time, the participants noted, these students learnt language by reading and talking about issues that mattered to them.

Karaman and Tochon (2010) investigated the international teaching experience of a student teacher from the perspective of intercultural understanding. The participant student majoring in teaching Spanish participated in the international student teaching program in Ecuador organized by her university situated in the mid-western region of the United States. The program included eight weeks of teaching English and conducting other activities in Spanish. The participant student teacher was a 23-year-old white woman with parents who had received higher education. For the study, four semi-structured interviews were made with the participant before her departure, when she was in Ecuador and nine months after she returned. The analysis of data revealed that in her student-teaching experience in Ecuador, the social relations she had with her peers was influential, which might have prevented her from developing a deeper understanding of the host culture. In her narratives she made little reference to developing professionally. During the interviews, she talked more about her intercultural growth. Yet, she wrote about professional issues on her electronic portfolio. She also compared the education system with her home country. The study indicated that the same-national peers might have an adverse effect on the participants' interactions with the host people and warn program coordinators for preparing teacher candidates for building relationships with the host people and communicating in the target language to gain the cultural understanding aimed by the program.

4.2 Research Studies on Teacher Roles

Research on teacher roles include studies investigating student teacher beliefs about teacher roles. There is also an expanding research area on metaphors student teachers and teachers use about the role of teachers. One other area of research

investigates the influence of changing policies on teacher roles. Below is a selection of research studies carried out specifically on teacher roles.

Demirbolat's (2006) case study conducted in a Turkish university explored the beliefs of 419 senior students of education majoring in different fields on teacher roles in education, which are grouped as static (institutional) roles and innovative (democratic and global) roles. The results of the survey study indicated that teacher candidates in a Turkish university are open to assuming democratic teacher roles more than static institutional roles, but the beliefs of students are not incorporated into the teacher education program. The study also found high correlations between participants' views and their gender: female participants were more open to democratic and global values than male participants. They were also more sensitive to interacting with parents than male students. Those students coming from lower income groups, however, tended to adopt more static roles than democratic roles. Thus, the researcher concluded that the life worlds and backgrounds of student teachers had the biggest impact on their perceptions implying that the teacher education programs were not very influential in changing teacher candidates' views.

Leon-Carillo (2007) explored sophomore and junior student teachers' perceptions of teacher roles by asking them to draw pictures of their conception of a teacher and to provide a written explanation for it. One hundred and twenty-five Filipino students took part in the study. Findings were clustered into five groups: "knowledge source, direction-setter, character formatter, change agent and learner." The author interpreted the popularity of images of a teacher as the knowledge source as the trace of the traditional image of a teacher as transmitter of knowledge. The roles of direction-setter, character formatter and change agents were also taken as the teacher-centered perception of student teachers according to which the teacher is the active agent of the teaching process rather than the learner who takes responsibility. The author concluded that unless the teacher education programs are reviewed in a manner to transform the conception of a teacher in student teachers' minds, the same traditional teacher-centered way of teaching will continue.

Baki and Gökçek's (2007) study investigated student teachers' beliefs about teacher roles through a semi-structured survey, which included the names of several professions. They were asked to associate teaching with those occupations and to

explain the reasons behind their choices. The sample of the study included 80 senior pre-service mathematics teachers in Trabzon, Turkey. The survey results demonstrated that "gardener" was the mostly preferred occupation student teachers preferred. The reasons for this choice included addressing the needs of students, helping students improve themselves and classroom management. The second mostly preferred occupation was a "coach" because it was associated with helping and motivating students, an orientation for success, and guiding students. The authors interpreted the first choice as a more traditional teacher role while accepting the coach metaphor as a more constructivist one although the explanations for both occupations were similar to each other.

Lin, Shein and Yang (2012) conducted a study surveying how 40 pre-service student teachers conceptualized themselves as English teachers at the beginning of their certificate program at a university in Taiwan. Findings revealed learner-centered beliefs. 14 participants thought that language teachers were like nurturers helping students grow. Another popular image was that of a cooperative leader who helped students as a mentor giving them some guidance when they needed. Other metaphors used were knowledge provider, artist, innovator, etc. The researchers found these roles as traditional teaching roles, but thought that they were learner-centered because they allowed room for students to take responsibility. Although the results were similar to those in Baki and Gökçek (2007), the interpretations reached in two studies were very different, casting doubt on the validity of conclusions drawn from metaphors.

Oktaç and Vancı-Osman (2013) examined the metaphors used by students and teachers to describe language teacher roles at a university in Northern Cyprus. Fifty-two freshman students of English and twenty-two English language instructors working at an English-medium university in Northern Cyprus took part in the study. The findings revealed that the students and teachers selected the same metaphors ("conductor", "shopkeeper" and "entertainer") mostly, but their ordering was different. Students chose the image of a shopkeeper as their first preference, but teachers chose conductor metaphor as their first choice. Though the metaphor of a "conductor" is usually associated with power and control, the participants associated it with the guidance offered by the teachers rather than strict control. The image of a

"shopkeeper" was perceived as a more learner-centered metaphor because students had to go and get the goods to learn. Although the researchers stated that explanations of students and teachers were similar in their choices, they interpreted the minor ordering difference as a discrepancy between participants' conceptions. For them, while students opted for more learner-centered teaching, teachers had teacher-centered preferences.

Menendez's research (2007) is a dissertation study conducted in UK exploring the implications of England's policies of technical rationality in initial teacher education on a small sample of student teachers' perceptions. The study found that the government policy became more interventionist in the last 25 years moving from a high trust to teachers to low trust. There was more control over teachers' work through accountability measures. According to the macro-analysis of government policies, teaching became more prescriptive and more technical from 1990s on. The influence of these policies was also reflected to student teachers receiving their initial education. The study compared the beliefs of student teachers who followed teacher education programs in early 90s with those that undertook teacher education courses in late 90s. Those educated in late-90s had more technicist tendencies than those educated in early 90s. They were not hopeful about the change they could make in the lives of under-privileged students. The perspectives of education of those trained in late 90s were narrower than the members of early 90s cohort, which indicated that the initial teacher education program oriented student teachers towards a more technical focus in teaching.

Yıldız and Ünlü (2014) explored the transformation of teacher roles through the metaphorical descriptions of 108 practising teachers in Ankara. The participant teachers were elementary school teachers with at least 20 year-experience. They were asked to compare the condition of the teaching profession in the past with the present using metaphors. Findings showed that an overwhelming majority of teachers perceived the transformation in the teaching profession as a negative one. The metaphors were clustered around the following themes: the loss of prestige/a sense of devaluing, decreasing social responsibilities and technicism, and economic impoverishment. The authors concluded that this transformation is in line with the transformation of teaching profession around the world.

Yıldız et al. (2013) investigated the transformation of teacher roles in Turkey by exploring the representation of teachers in seven popular Turkish films. The first four movies (*Hababam Sınıfı* [*The Chaos Class*], *Hababam Sınıfı Sınıfta Kaldı* [*The Chaos Class Failed the Class*], *Hababam Sınıfı Uyanıyor* [*The Chaos Class is Waking Up*] and *Hababam Sınıfı Tatilde* [*The Chaos Class on Vacation*]) that were made before 1980 and the ones shot after 1980 (*Öğretmen* [*The Teacher*], *Hababam Sınıfı Merhaba* [*The Chaos Class Welcome*] and *Hababam Sınıfı Üç Buçuk* [*The Chaos Class Three and a Half*]) were compared. The analysis of two clusters of movies showed that while there was a strong teacher figure called Mahmut Hoca in the movies before 1980, that figure disappeared in the later movies. Before 1980, teachers like Mahmut Hoca were challenging neoliberal policies by saying they were not trades people, they were educators. However, the new teacher characters in the movies after 1980 became a part of the system following the orders of the school principal. In fact, according to the study, students, principals, janitors and parents all start to behave differently under the effect of the neoliberal economy. Thus, the comparison of the images used in movies indicated that neoliberal policies had a big impact on teacher roles in Turkey, as idealist, autonomous teachers became obedient technicians.

CHAPTER 5

METHODOLOGY

This dissertation is designed as a qualitative case study. Taking its frame of reference from critical pedagogy, this case study follows critical research paradigm which is based on the ontological premise that the material world is composed of historically situated structures that influence the lives of individuals living in that society (Hatch, 2002). Based on such an understanding, the first chapter of this dissertation gave an outline of the study while the second chapter located it into its historical, economical and political context. The third chapter provided a broad theoretical framework for the interpretation of the study and the fourth chapter presented teacher education models with relevant research studies. This chapter in turn explains the design of the study, participants, data collection instruments as well as the data analysis procedures.

5.1 Case Study

This dissertation seeks to get an in-depth understanding of the teacher roles in a pre-service teacher education program from multiple perspectives (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The qualitative nature of the study provides the researcher a holistic overview of the context from the standpoints of students, teachers and administrators (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Allowing the use of a theoretical lens to begin a research study, qualitative research is a good fit for this critical study conducted in a natural environment in close interaction with participants (Creswell, 2007). The strength of a case study comes from its focus on real people in real situations enabling the readers to see a specific group of people in their own complexity (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). Offering a detailed and rich description of the situation under investigation, this case study shows the discrepancies or conflicts between different viewpoints (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). The use of classroom observations and interviews with student teachers, teacher educators,

emeritus professors and program administrators provides a holistic perspective into the foreign language teacher education program under investigation. Considering the ability of the reader to relate to a case is more important than the generalisability of the case study (Wellington, 2000), this study offers a thick description of the program, so that readers can draw lessons from it for similar cases.

The case is defined as a "bounded system" (Merriam, 2009). In this study, the case of a foreign language teacher education program in Turkey is investigated. As for the selection of the case, the basic motivation was intrinsic (Wellington, 2000). It was not because the program investigated was unique or special, but because I had an interest in gaining a deeper understanding of the orientation of the program I was teaching at, as I had had a very limited understanding of the program at the time. I also thought the study would provide me with insights about some of the problems I observed the program had. Besides, I believed conducting such a study might help us detect the source of the problems we face and indicate the way out. Finally, I thought the study could also inform similar programs in Turkey and abroad.

5.2 The Role of the Researcher

*"You can't **not** have a position ...*

*Now there is no such thing as **nonpolitical** research."* (Agar, 1996, p. 29)

In critical educational research paradigm, knowledge is socially constructed and is always political (Hatch, 2002). Values and philosophies are a part of the research process, because knowledge is always filtered through the political stance of the researcher (Hatch, 2002). Researchers cannot claim they are objective or apolitical, as the researchers are not detached from the reality they are studying: the standpoint of the investigators inevitably influences the social phenomenon they are studying. The critical matter for researchers is to be reflexive being aware of their own impact on the context and monitoring their own biases and responses (Agar, 1996). Bias is considered as negative for a research study. However, for some qualitative researchers (e.g. Merriam, 2009; Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2013), it is not possible to avoid or exclude it.

To clarify my own positionality in this study, I am a novice teacher educator and a young woman researcher. I was raised in a conservative middle-class family in a small town. I was educated at public schools and worked as a teacher of English at public schools for two years in my hometown. I majored in translation and interpreting and chose to become a teacher of English partly because I could not get by translating books and partly because I enjoyed teaching and I wanted to communicate with real people. Having a hard time in the ideological atmosphere of public schooling giving limited space to students and teachers to exercise their autonomy, I took up a position at a public university in Turkey as a lecturer. Noticing my limited knowledge base acquired through a certification program and self-study, I followed an MA program in Teaching English as a Foreign Language at a private university in Turkey. I was lucky the program did not ask public school lecturers to pay tuition and got one-year of paid absence from my work. In the eighth year of my teaching career, I changed my institution and started to teach at the pre-service teacher education department I am currently working at. I enrolled in a PhD program in English Language Teaching the same year. I have been teaching at the program for five and a half years now (as of July 2015).

Before I decided to conduct this dissertation study, I was already interested in critical theory, but had never explored the depths of it. The process of conducting this study provided me with a chance to go beyond my limited understanding of critical thought and allowed me to develop a more critical lens towards myself, my students, the courses I teach and the world at large. My researcher self was not always happy with my educator self, though, because I started to realize some of my unconscious assumptions about the students and our educational purposes. The transformation I underwent through the process of reading widely on critical pedagogy as well as my interactions with the research participants might have had an influence on the research. However, as Heigham and Croker (2009, p. 71) put it, "to attempt to control for the teacher-researcher's influence would be to decontextualize the case, and this is against the very nature of qualitative case study." The interactions with students and faculty during and after the interviews led us to take some action to bring some immediate change to the department. After a conversation about the peripheral condition of the department on the university campus, we

formed a student group to organize some cultural, artistic and entertainment activities for the students studying at the department.

As for the risks of being an insider, I cannot deny the risks it entailed. For one thing, my conflicting roles as a researcher, as an instructor and as a PhD student embodied some power issues. When I approached students for interviews, it was inevitable that they saw me as an instructor rather than an independent researcher. Some of them did not hesitate to reject participating in the study because of their busy schedules or other reasons. Some of them also openly stated that they wanted to participate in individual interviews, which might mean that they did not feel forced to participate in the study. Yet, others looked happy to talk to me about their ideas on the program and they appreciated being listened to. They openly told me that they hoped these conversations would create a positive change in the program.

On the other hand, my position in the department both as a full-time instructor and as a PhD student was also there in my relationship with the teacher educators and program administrators. Because I was an insider, I did not have any issues as to entry into the field. As I was a familiar face in the department, I was not perceived as a threat by the teachers or the students and they openly shared their ideas not hesitating to trust me. Moreover, as I was an insider, they shared their concerns with me knowing that I would understand them. Yet, I could not avoid all of the risks of being an insider. One important disadvantage was not knowing who I was at times. Especially, during the classroom observations, I was not sure if I was a researcher, a PhD student, or a teacher educator. At some moments of observing classes, I felt like a student learning new material, even to the extent that I got too involved in the content and I nearly forgot my purpose for being in that classroom. When I noticed that, I tried to keep a distance with the content and myself and to better focus on what was going on in the class. In order to find a healthy balance between “going native” and “keeping distance,” I sometimes took one week off from observing classes. During the week I was away from the field, I revised my notes and tried to develop a distant look. Reading the narratives of fellow PhD students doing doctorate in education (e.g. Benjamin, 2002; Johannesen-Brock, 2002), I saw that I was not alone feeling like that. Despite some difficulties, I do not think my familiarity with the context brought inattention as suggested in the literature (Denzin

& Lincoln, 2000). This is because I worked with a critical theoretical lens, which allowed me to see familiar, taken-for-granted concepts in a new light (Hatch, 2002).

Another risk as working as an insider of the program could have been researcher's feeling under pressure to touch upon some possibly controversial issues about the program. In fact, that is a worthwhile concern when the power issues around my own vulnerable position as an instructor and a PhD student is considered. Still, by acknowledging my own stance honestly and revealing my own positionality in this research, I could report the findings without feeling under pressure. This research study is not intended to pass along any judgments as to the character of the program or to the people involved in it. It is meant to get a deeper understanding of the teacher roles underscored in the program and to interpret the underlying influences upon the daily reality experienced by the participants -including myself- in order to discover the means to transform it. Therefore, I am not immune to any conclusions drawn from the study, as I am one of the actors in the day to day running of the program. As for the possibility that I might self-censor some of the findings due to my own interests of presenting a more positive representation of the people and teacher roles in the program, I should say it would be a clear violation of research ethics and it would be against the very idea of carrying out critical research. When it comes to the risk of reading the program from my own stereotypical ideas about the program, I should say that it does not seem to be a great risk because I had had a limited understanding of the FLE undergraduate program before I started conducting this study. I was teaching only first year language proficiency courses at the time and I did not know much about the language teaching courses offered in higher years of study. Besides, I was not educated as a language teacher myself and I did not have any idea about a language teaching undergraduate program. The first year courses I taught provided me with only a vague idea as to the program. With the data collection process, I started to develop a deeper understanding of the undergraduate program or the people involved in it. In some occasions, it took me quite a long time to interpret what students meant to say during the interviews. During the interviews, there were times I learnt some major or minor issues about the program I had never heard before. Some reports of students about the transformative moments in the program or on campus were unexpected for me. Thus, I can say that I

gained a deeper understanding of the program during the process of conducting this study. My knowledge of the undergraduate program was restricted when I began collecting data.

5.3 Participants

Undergraduate students enrolled in the pre-service Foreign Language Education program at a public university in central Turkey between September 2012 and June 2014 make up the participants in this study together with their professors and program administrators. It would not be possible to conduct this study without their agreement in having me as an observer in their classes or their participation in focus group or individual interviews. Both the faculty and the students were generous in admitting me into their classes for more than half of the semester and allocating time and energy to take part in long interviews. Each group of participants will be described in more detail below.

5.3.1 Students

In this study, sophomore, junior and senior year students studying at the pre-service foreign language teacher education program in academic years 2012-2013 and 2013-2014 took part, as they were the ones sitting in the classes that were observed for this study. 275 students in total attended the courses I observed. Partly because no freshman year courses were observed and partly because freshman students have a limited perspective as to the program itself, they were not included in the study. A total of 43 students (21 senior, 16 junior and 6 sophomore students) participated in interviews. 40 students took part in the focus group interviews while 3 students were interviewed individually upon their request. As the majority of the students in the program are female, so were they in the study: 32 female students and 11 male students attended the interviews. Among the interview participants, one student was an international student. The rest were citizens of Turkey coming from Anatolian Teacher Training schools with extra points in the university entrance exams.

In the selection of student participants to be interviewed, purposive sampling, which allows researchers to select participants that can best inform the research study, was used in order to reach a complete understanding of the program (Lincoln

& Guba, 1985). Maximum variation sampling, which includes determining a criterion to differentiate participants, was used in the selection of students so that as much information as possible is attained (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Students were categorized according to their academic success. A relatively fair distribution of students from different achievement levels was reached. When the GPA scores of all students were rank ordered, it was seen that a great majority of students at the department were honor students. Therefore, students scoring higher than 3.25 were considered to be high-achievers, those scoring between 2.75 and 3.25 were considered to be medium-achievers and those scoring below 2.75 were taken as low-achievers. However, because the number of low-achievers was quite low in each grade, low-achievers are quite few in the sample. Freshmen students were not included in the study because they do not take any methodology courses in their first year of study. Because senior students had a more comprehensive look into the program, the largest number of students interviewed was senior students followed by junior students. As sophomore students who just start to take teaching methodology courses have a limited perspective as to the program, only a few sophomore students were included in the study. As the number of participants cannot be predetermined in purposive sampling (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), the student interviews were terminated when the researcher stopped receiving any new information. Table 3 below shows the distribution of student participants according to their year of study and achievement level:

Table 3 The Distribution of Student Interview Participants

The Year of Study	High-Achiever	Medium-Achiever	Low-Achiever	Total
Senior	10	7	4	21
Junior	10	5	1	16
Sophomore	5	1	-	6
Total	25	13	5	43

As for the socioeconomic status of students, the study did not include any such questions. However, it is my impression that students studying at the program generally come from middle-class or working-class families around Turkey. As they study away from their families, most of them stay at dormitories on the campus.

Although they do not pay tuition fees, a large proportion of them have to tutor students or get scholarships to be able to get by as they are university students living on the limited allowances their families are able to send. Compensating for the lack of enough support by their families (either in the shape of private tutoring, extra resources, etc.) with the extra points granted to students at Anatolian high schools, it seems to be no surprise that students have relatively similar socio-economic backgrounds. Given the fact that the profession of teaching is deemed to be a good fit for women whose main function is to nurture kids and make home in Turkey, it is also expected that a majority of the students are women.

These observations as to the background of participant students are also confirmed by a large scale research study on students entering 65 faculties of education in Turkey (Aksu, Demir, Daloglu, Yıldırım & Kiraz, 2010). Of the 18,226 students who responded to the survey developed by the research team 60, 5 % were female. The age of a majority of participants ranged from 19 to 21. About half of the mothers and one third of fathers of entering students had only received 5-year elementary education. 82 % of mothers were housewives while 31 % of fathers were retired, 21 % of them were civil servants, and 18 % of them were self-employed. Based on their comprehensive survey which also inquired the values and educational beliefs of entering students, Aksu et al. (2010) found out that a limited number of entering students had democratic values and suggested that pre-service teacher education curriculum equip students with a democratic culture and involve them in the decision-making processes. Considering the family backgrounds and the values entering students had, Aksu et al. (2010) concluded that the majority of students entering faculties of education had limited cultural capital coming from families with low levels of education, which is in line with earlier research studies conducted in Turkey and abroad.

Though each generalization about student profiles would be limited, it is not possible to give detailed biographical information given the large number of participating students (of 43 students) in this study. Therefore, this study will only provide information about their gender, years of study, academic achievement and career aims in the Table 4 below. When quotations from student interviews are given, brief information about their career aims are given in the chapter of interview

analysis (Chapter 7). To refer to students, a combination of the initial of the word "student" with a number is used (e.g. S1, S2, etc.), so that the reader could follow each students' viewpoints throughout the text. In spite of the fact that assigning participants numbers and codes might be depersonalizing, there was no other way round which both ensured their anonymity and individuality. Considering different associations student names could evoke, assigning participants names was not regarded as a viable option.

Table 4 The List of Student Participants

Student	Interview Group	The Year of Study	Achievement Level	Gender	Aim
S1	Focus G1	Sophomore	High	Female	Scholar
S2	Focus G2	Sophomore	High	Female	University instructor
S3	Individual 1	Junior	Medium	Female	University instructor
S4	Focus G3	Junior	High	Male	Public school teacher
S5	Focus G3	Junior	Medium	Male	Scholar
S6	Focus G4	Junior	High	Female	Scholar
S7	Focus G5	Junior	High	Male	Scholar
S8	Focus G5	Junior	Medium	Female	Private school teacher
S9	Focus G6	Senior	Medium	Female	A different career
S10	Focus G5	Junior	High	Female	Public school teacher
S11	Individual 2	Senior	Low	Female	Public school teacher
S12	Focus G1	Sophomore	High	Female	University instructor
S13	Focus G1	Sophomore	High	Male	Scholar
S14	Focus G7	Senior	Low	Male	Scholar
S15	Focus G7	Junior	Medium	Female	Private school teacher
S16	Focus G7	Senior	High	Female	Scholar
S17	Focus G7	Junior	High	Female	Public school teacher
S18	Focus G8	Senior	Low	Female	Public school teacher
S19	Focus G9	Senior	High	Female	Private school teacher
S20	Focus G9	Senior	Medium	Female	Private school teacher
S21	Focus G6	Junior	Low	Male	No clear aim
S22	Focus G6	Senior	Low	Male	Public school teacher
S23	Focus G7	Senior	Medium	Female	Scholar
S24	Focus G6	Senior	High	Female	Private school teacher
S25	Focus G6	Senior	Medium	Male	Private school teacher

Table 4 (continued)

Student	Interview Group	The Year of Study	Achievement Level	Gender	Aim
S26	Focus G2	Sophomore	High	Female	University instructor
S27	Focus G3	Junior	High	Female	University instructor
S28	Focus G4	Junior	High	Male	University instructor
S29	Focus G2	Sophomore	Medium	Female	University instructor
S30	Focus G4	Junior	High	Female	University instructor
S31	Focus G9	Senior	High	Female	University instructor
S32	Focus G8	Senior	High	Female	University instructor
S33	Focus G8	Senior	High	Female	University instructor
S34	Focus G8	Senior	Medium	Female	Public school teacher
S35	Focus G9	Senior	High	Female	University instructor
S36	Focus G10	Senior	Medium	Female	Private school teacher
S37	Focus G9	Junior	High	Female	University instructor
S38	Individual 3	Senior	High	Female	A different career
S39	Focus G10	Senior	Medium	Female	Private school teacher
S40	Focus G3	Junior	High	Female	University instructor
S41	Focus G4	Junior -interntnl	Medium	Female	Private school teacher
S42	Focus G10	Senior	High	Male	Public school teacher
S43	Focus G6	Senior	High	Male	Scholar

5.3.2 Teacher Educators

Seven full-time and one part-time faculty who were observed in methodology and practicum courses were interviewed for the study. One teacher educator was so kind as to welcome me in two different courses of hers in the same semester. Among the eight teacher educators whose classes were observed one was an associate professor, two were assistant professors and the rest were instructors with PhDs. They were all women. Their years of service in the department ranged between 2 to 20. Five of them received their PhD degrees from the US or the UK universities while three of them had their PhDs in Turkey. Six of them had majored in English Language Teaching in their BA degrees while two of the faculty had other language related majors.

As for the purposes of keeping the anonymity of participants, they were randomly given a letter from A to G. To indicate their position as teacher educators, the initials of "teacher educator" were also added to the beginning of the letter as follows: TEA, TEB, etc. To give the reader a richer understanding of the participants

whose classes were observed, each teacher educator will be introduced below. However, no specific information such as the names of the courses they offered, their title, year of service, etc. will be provided to keep their identities confidential. The descriptions of teacher educators are a synthesis of the information provided by the participants during the interviews and the field notes taken during the classroom observations.

TEA is a very experienced teacher and teacher educator. She worked as a teacher at two different institutions at the tertiary level for years. She describes herself as a very sociable person who has a passion for learning languages. She thinks learning is infinite and she makes use of every opportunity to improve herself personally and professionally. She attends conferences, workshops, seminars very often. She attended two different training seminars to become a trainer herself. One lasted two weeks while the other took one year. But a teacher education course she took when she was a PhD student had the major influence on her perspective as a teacher educator. She often gives English language, methodology and practicum courses. I observed her in a teaching practice course. She mainly used dialogue to interact with the students about their experiences at school and their observations. She also asked students to discuss some issues in pairs and in groups. She frequently gave them some situational descriptions and led a discussion on how to deal with those issues. She also invited guest speakers to class to introduce students to different professionals and a variety of ideas.

TEB is a dedicated teacher and a teacher-educator. But when asked, she says that she sees herself more like a teacher than a teacher educator, because she thinks you are still *teaching* when you are teaching teachers. She has teaching experience at elementary and tertiary level. She followed the COTE (Certificate for Overseas Teachers of English) program as part of an in-service teacher training program at the beginning of her career. She also attended a two-week seminar called "Training the Trainer," which inspired her as a professional. She teaches methodology and practice teaching courses almost every semester. I observed her in two different courses. Her lessons were always very well structured and integrated with a great deal of tasks. Students were following her very carefully and were always on task. She somehow managed to engage the whole class in the lesson. In both courses, she used group

work activities very well. In her methodology course, after a brief lecture, she immediately went on to a hands-on task. Towards the end of the lesson, she often asked students to write an in-class reflection task individually or as a group. It was clear that students learnt the content very well during the lesson. In her teaching practice course, she focused on a different topic each week from classroom management to teaching dialogues. For students to exchange their school experiences, she grouped them and gave them prompts to discuss. After group work, she ran a whole-class discussion.

TEC is an academic who says she adopts a different identity depending on the course she offers. When she teaches English courses, she feels more like a language teacher. While teaching practicum courses, she becomes a teacher educator. She likes teaching these courses as she finds the problem-solving and relationship maintenance processes very dynamic. At the time of the interview, she was feeling more like a researcher-educator as she was giving graduate courses. She has been in the department for a long time now, so it is natural that she goes back and forth between different identities when she offers a wide range of courses. She has teaching experience abroad at the tertiary level. She thinks she had a better interaction with her students when she began teaching. She did not find it difficult to understand her students as their ages were close to her. But nowadays she feels tired and a bit burnt-out to have a deeper interaction with the students. She says everything is good on the surface level with the students. But on a personal level, she does not have a motivation to go further than that. For her, it might be because of this group of students "who have no interest or curiosity to improve themselves." She thinks she is not as lively as she was at the beginning of her career. Yet, when I observed her in her methodology class, I saw a very energetic teacher educator who has a good sense of humor. I frequently laughed at her jokes during the classes. She was always very well prepared and well-organized. Due to the content of the course, she had to give long lectures. But even while doing that, she was always in interaction with students. She tried to benefit from their experiences of learning foreign languages and built her lectures on students' own experiences. She also benefited from multilingual students in the class in the demonstrations of different methods.

TED is an experienced teacher educator who likes teaching and researching. She definitely sees herself as a teacher educator rather than a teacher. She worked as a teacher for four years at a private university, which she thinks is a great advantage for her as a teacher educator. Thanks to her previous experience as a teacher, she says, she is able to understand what would work in real life context and thus she is able to make suggestions to student teachers. She completed the COTE program as part of an in-service training and she also attended a two-week "Training the Trainer" seminar. She believes she learnt how to teach during the COTE program, because her knowledge as to practice was very limited when she graduated from the pre-service teacher education program. Back then, she notes, there were not many practice oriented courses in the undergraduate program. It was all lecture-based. To prevent students facing such a problem, she prefers to focus on practice in her methodology courses and just gives a few guiding principles, as, she says, theory is already covered in foundation courses in the second year of the program. When I observed her in her methodology course, I actually observed that it was really based on micro-teachings. The teacher educator lectured on the basics of how to teach a certain skill for one week and led a discussion on that skill based on students' previous experiences. The following week she demonstrated how to teach that skill through hands-on activities for various stages. The week after that students started doing their demos in pairs. After student demos, there was a long feedback session in which both the students and the teacher educator talked about the strengths and weaknesses of the lesson. Student demos went on four weeks and then the teacher educator introduced another skill.

TEE is a veteran teacher educator. She considers herself more of a teacher than a scholar. For her, the most important part of teaching is not to discourage students, but to encourage them to change their behaviors and their worldviews. She thinks that leading them to question themselves is more important than the content. In her opinion, a good teacher is a good guide or a counselor or even a therapist. She states that teaching is usually considered to be a one man show, but actually teachers should be *listening* to their students in the real sense of the word. She usually gives English language courses and methodology courses in the department. I observed her in a methodology course, in which she displayed her friendly and flexible attitude

towards students. In her classes, students were always seated in a U-shape and she was at the center of the class lecturing or leading a discussion on the course content. Even when she lectured, she related it to students' lives. When she felt students were bored or sleepy in the early morning, she showed them a relevant video on the topic. When students were on stage for a micro-teaching, she sat among students. When the students finished, she approached them gently asking their own opinions first. Before she told her own opinions, she always asked students further questions to encourage them to reflect on the strengths and weaknesses of a lesson. While giving feedback, she referred to some of the essential concepts of teaching English or classroom management.

TEF is a very experienced teacher and a novice teacher educator offering a different methodology course almost each semester. She became a teacher of English because she likes learning languages. She worked as a teacher for years at a private high school. She also taught elementary and secondary level students and assumed administrative responsibilities. She says she learnt a lot about teaching when she started to work at the high school level working with great professionals. After a long time teaching at a private school, she started to work at the tertiary level. When she thinks about her own professional identity, she thinks her teaching self comes before her academic and researcher persona. She thinks a teacher should always be well prepared. She feels she has to make sure students leave the classroom having added something to their knowledge base. She works hard and asks students to work hard by assigning a great deal of homework. She says she spends hours giving feedback to each and every assignment so that she can help them achieve something they would not be able to do on their own. When I observed her in a methodology course, she was always in class earlier than students preparing materials and organizing the seats. She designed her lessons on a variety of tasks which allowed students to get engaged with the material. She did not lecture much, but led students to discover the content by working on tasks. It was almost impossible not to learn the course content in her lessons. She used a great deal of pair work and group work and she closely monitored the students.

TEG is a scholar who has a wide range of interests. She assumed the role of a teacher educator only recently. Before she started to work at the academia, she spent

long years working in diverse fields related to language. She also directed a distance learning course and tutored students for some time. The main motivation in her decision to take up a position at university after being away for a long time was a few professors she admired. She wanted to become a scholar like them. For her, students are of utmost importance so much so that she thinks it is the very reason that brings her to the academia as she thinks one can conduct research away from the university as well. When she started to work in the foreign language education department in Turkey immediately after returning from abroad, she had a nasty culture shock, though. It took her a long time before she got used to the student profile as well as the institutional culture at the university. As many things had changed in Turkey while she was abroad, she could not come to grips with the new face of Turkey until the *Gezi* Park events broke. Still, she says she feels desperate when she sees her students with no hopes as to their futures and with little confidence. Therefore, she feels the need to talk about the importance of having an agency and believing in oneself to create a change in the society. I observed her in a theory-based methodology course. Even in the first class, she talked about "being the change you wanted to see in the world" and speaking out to express one's own wishes. Due to the theoretical nature of the class, she had to lecture, but she frequently asserted that she was not happy with the lecture-based course she was giving. She tried to integrate hands-on tasks, videos, experiments etc. into the classes. However, as she was falling behind the program, she had to rush at times feeling forced to lecture. Still, she designed assignments which could allow students to bring forth their creativity while internalizing the content.

TEH is an academic who offers English language, methodology and applied linguistics courses. She worked as a teacher in various contexts including public schools in Turkey before she started to work as a teacher educator. She thinks theory and practice should go hand in hand in teaching methodology courses, as students need to be informed by theory and recent research in making decisions while teaching a language. She asserts that student teachers need to be aware of educational psychology, as well. In her methodology classes, I observed the importance she attached to theoretical framework in association with research studies to construct a sound understanding of what learning a foreign language entails, especially the

mental processing of a language in learners' minds. She lectured the course content in close interaction with the students giving/showing examples and asking questions. She also referred to the implications of theory for practice in teaching a language. She showed activities for classroom use after the theory is over. She also asked students to teach mini lessons.

5.3.3 Emeritus Professors

Four emeritus professors who have been teaching at the department since the day it was founded in 1982 were also interviewed for their views on the historical development and current situation of the program. Three of them had administrative positions in the department. As for the emeritus professors, the acronym EP is used in the text, e.g. EPA, EPB, etc. As their courses were not observed, only limited information will be provided on them to give the reader some background knowledge.

EPA is the first chair of the department of Foreign Language Education. She became the head of department, as she was the only associate professor of the Language, Literature and Linguistics Section of the Department of Humanities at the time. She is a professor of literature. When she first started teaching in 1960s, she gave English courses at the university. After she gained her PhD, she started to offer elective literature courses at the department of Humanities. She worked as the chair of department for seven years. Having retired a long time ago, she gives graduate courses of literature in the department.

EPB is an emeritus professor of applied linguistics. He was an instructor of English offering English courses at the department of Humanities before the Foreign Language Education department was established. After the program was established, he offered a variety of courses among which were language proficiency courses almost every semester, since he believed that foreign language teacher educators should not stop teaching languages themselves. Retired a short while ago, he offers undergraduate and graduate courses at the department for the time being.

EPC is an emerita professor of English literature. Before the department of Foreign Language Education was founded, she worked at the Department of Humanities as an instructor. She remembers how excited they were when the

department was founded to have their own students. Sometime after the onset of the department of Foreign Language Education, she worked as the department chair for two years. Retired a long time ago, she continued to teach undergraduate courses of literature some more time. She teaches graduate level literature courses for the moment.

EPD is an emerita professor of English literature who got retired a few years ago. She used to work in the department of Humanities as an assistant professor before the department of Foreign Language Education. She still remembers those days when they taught literature to engineering students with joy, as both the students and teachers were learning together. She was also happy when the new department of Foreign Language Education was established. But the pressure on literature courses in the subsequent years from the CoHE and her colleagues made her upset. In the department, she worked as an assistant chair for some time. She gives graduate level literature courses for the moment.

5.3.4 Program Faculty with Administrative Roles

To get an administrative perspective into the program, the department chair, vice chairs and the dean of faculty, who is a professor at the department of Foreign Language Education, were interviewed in June and September 2014. At the time when the interviews were conducted, both the dean and the chair were in office for about a year and a half while the vice chairs had been appointed to office approximately six months earlier. As the classes of vice chairs were observed, they have already been introduced above. Therefore, in this section brief information about the dean and the chair of department will be provided. For the sake of anonymity, they have also been given acronyms in this study such as PA1, PA2, etc. When vice-chairs' are quoted on administrative issues, they will also be referred to as PA in the text.

The PA1 is a professor of English Language and Literature offering literature courses in the department for a long time now. Before she had her teaching position at the department, she worked as an English teacher at the tertiary level in two different institutions. She participated in the COTE program as part of in-service teacher training at the beginning of her career when she says "I had a metamorphosis

in terms of teaching skills." She believes that teacher candidates need a sound basis of methodology so that they are able to teach well. But to educate such teachers, she maintains, "we have to be humble to practice what we theorize as teacher educators." For her, teacher educators need to be willing to spend hours on giving feedback to their students and should not neglect the performative side of teaching.

The PA2 is a professor of English language teaching who specialized in teacher education. She has been working as an administrator at different positions for more than a decade now. She has no experience of teaching at schools of different levels, which she considers a weakness in her career though she tutored many students and worked at language schools for short periods of time. For her, a teacher educator needs to know what happens in reality at schools. Therefore, she tried to bridge that gap by teaching practice teaching courses for many years through which she had a chance to get in touch with teachers and schools. As she has an administrative position now, she considers herself detached a bit from academic life, which she thinks is a pity. Yet, she hopes to be able to teach in the coming semesters if she is able to open some space for a course in her busy schedule.

5.4 Method of Data Collection

Methodological triangulation allows a researcher to collect data from multiple sources to strengthen the trustworthiness of the study (Wellington, 2000). For the sake of triangulation, different data collection methods were used in this dissertation: Official and archival documents were reviewed, classroom observations were conducted in methodology and practicum courses and students, teacher educators, emeritus professors, and program administrators were interviewed. A visual representation of data collection methods can be seen in the table below:

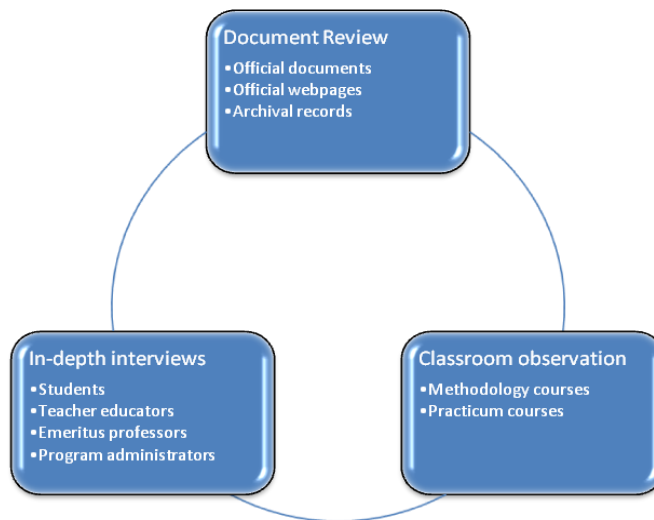


Figure 1 Data Collection Methods Used in the Study

As the classroom observation period took two academic years between September 2012 and June 2014, not all data were collected at the same time. The following chart demonstrates the timeline of data collection excluding the period of document collection, as it did not follow a certain schedule. The course codes used in the table refer to the categorization of courses under Foundational Methodology Courses (FMC), Specialized Methodology Courses (SMC) and School-based Practicum Courses (SPC) (for more information, see Chapter 8).

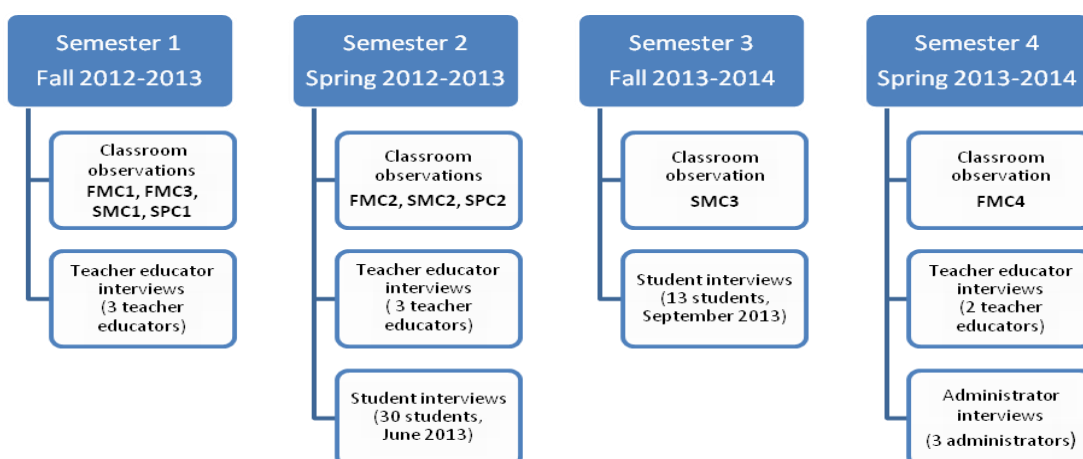


Figure 2 Timeline of Data Collection

5.4.1 Document Review

Seeking to explore the type of teachers educated in a pre-service teacher educator program, this study tries to unearth the type of teacher roles communicated by official documents as well as the type of teacher educated in reality. In order to investigate the teacher roles targeted, this study explored the CoHE documents, the MoNE documents, program descriptions (aims and objectives, philosophy, mission and vision, etc.), course catalogs and official webpages. Considering that official documents and archival records may offer rich sources of information about program goals, all available documents have been collected and organized into separate folders for ease of analysis.

5.4.2 Classroom Observation

Observation as a data collection strategy allows researchers to make sense of the context from the perspectives of the participants and to get a better grasp of the norms and expectations in a setting (Hatch, 2002). It provides researchers real life data from the natural situations and enables researchers to see what really takes place in the classroom. In this way, researchers can compare what participants say and do and realize some taken for granted points participants may never remember to comment on (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). To get an in-depth understanding of the English Language Teaching related courses offered in the program in terms of the teacher roles underscored in those courses, long-term observations of the ELT methodology courses and the school-based practicum courses were made.

The pre-service language teacher education program this study investigates has six course components: language courses, literature courses, linguistics courses, general education courses, ELT methodology courses, and school-based practicum courses. This study, however, concentrates only on two components of the program in the classroom observations due to time restrictions even though all components of the program complement each other (Şallı-Çopur, 2008). Table 5 below lists the courses under each component in the program.

Table 5 The List of Courses Under Each Component of the FLE Program

Methodology Courses	School-Based Practicum Courses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instructional Principles and Methods • Approaches to ELT • ELT Methodology I • ELT Methodology II • Teaching English to Young Learners Teaching Language Skills • Materials Adaptation and Development • English Language Testing & Evaluation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School Experience • Practice Teaching
General Education Courses	Literature Courses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction to Education • Educational Psychology • Instructional Technology & Materials Development • Classroom Management • Community Service • Turkish Education System and School Management • Guidance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction to Literature • English Literature I • English Literature II • Drama Analysis • Novel Analysis
Language Courses	Linguistics Courses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contextual Grammar I • Contextual Grammar II • Advanced Reading and Writing I • Advanced Reading and Writing II • Listening and Pronunciation • Oral Communication Skills • Oral Expression and Public Speaking • Advanced Writing and Research • Translation • Second Foreign Language I • Second Foreign Language II • Second Foreign Language III 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Linguistics I • Linguistics II • Contrastive Turkish-English • Language Acquisition • The English Lexicon

As Cohen et al. (2007) state, observations permit the researcher to collect data on the *physical* setting, the *human* setting (characteristics of the people), the *interactional* setting (type of interactions taking place) and the *program* setting (resources, teaching styles and curriculum). Although each of these settings is indispensable, the main focus was on the program setting, especially the teacher educators' utterances and the content they were delivering. Considering the fact that this study explores the teacher roles a pre-service teacher education program encourages, the program setting was given priority during the observations. However, the interaction between the teacher educator and students, the arrangement

of the physical setting and the characteristics of the people were also crucial, as they were indicative of the type of teacher roles teacher educators assumed themselves.

Researchers' degree of participation in the daily activities of the group moves along a continuum from the complete observer to complete participant (Cohen et al., 2007). As Hatch (2002, p. 73) notes, "The level of involvement does not have to be *either* nonparticipation *or* complete participation." Passive, moderate or active levels of participation could be selected based on the researchers' aims (Hatch, 2002). While too much participation may lead the researchers to lose sight of their research, no participation may hinder researchers from developing an insider's perspective. Therefore, there needs to be a balance. As I was an insider in the program, I did not have a chance to be a full participant as I was well known in many of the classes I observed as an instructor. On the other hand, I was introduced as a researcher in each class and took the written consent of students. Therefore, I mostly acted as an observer usually sitting at the back of the classroom and taking notes. But I didn't stay detached from the classroom events, either. At times, I was asked to participate by the teacher educators or consulted by the students during group activities. As I participated in the classes only when I was asked to do so, my involvement in the research setting could be described as moderate.

As planned, a total of nine courses (seven methodology courses and two practicum courses) were observed. For a methodology course I have been teaching for two years (namely, 324 Teaching Language Skills), I depended on my own self-reflections rather than observing a colleague. The observation periods ranged between seven to ten weeks depending on the situation. As I had limited time and energy because of teaching and researching at the same time, I had to stop observing when a point of redundancy was reached (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). When classroom events started to repeat themselves and the field notes got shorter, I decided to complete the observations. Considering the semester usually lasts sixteen weeks, seven to ten weeks of observation provided a satisfactory understanding of the courses observed. However, if there were no time constraints, it could have been better to go beneath the repetitive cycle to see what was under the surface, as Hatch (2002) suggested. The time I spent for the observation of each course is presented in the table below:

Table 6 Duration of Classroom Observations

Fall Semester Courses	Duration & Time	Spring Semester Courses	Duration & Time
Approaches to ELT	10 weeks 2012-2013	ELT Methodology I	7 weeks 2012-2013
ELT Methodology II	10 weeks 2012-2013	Instructional Principles and Methods	7 weeks 2013-2014
Materials Adaptation and Development	9 weeks 2012-2013	Teaching English to Young Learners	7 weeks 2012-2013
English Language Testing & Evaluation	7 weeks 2013-2014	Practice Teaching	7 weeks 2012-2013
School Experience	7 weeks 2012-2013	<i>*Teaching Language Skills</i>	<i>*Self-observation</i>

Depending on the aims of researchers in observation, types of observation they carry out differ. For this case study, it is not possible to define categories before collecting data, as it is not easy to describe manifestations of teacher roles being encouraged in the classroom just by speculation without focusing on the classroom reality. Even if descriptions of teacher roles are clear, how they are suggested in practice in a program is not evident. Therefore, observations conducted in this study were unstructured relying heavily on detailed field notes.

Field notes are “the written account of what the researcher hears, sees, experiences, and thinks in the course of collecting and reflecting on the data in a qualitative study” (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007, pp. 118-119). The success of the observation is dependent on the quality of the field notes. If they are detailed and extensive enough, it will help researchers make a “thick description.” Whether you are audio-recording the lessons you are observing or not, field notes are crucial revealing what a tape-recorder cannot capture like the tension in the air, smells, impressions, etc. (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). In the field notes, researchers write about the people, events, objects, activities and conversations. However, as large quantities of raw data compile in a short time, it is suggested that researchers organize their notes well (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). All handwritten notes should be typed on a computer and stored in an organized way right away when the memory of the observation is still fresh (Cohen et al., 2007). However, writing up field notes takes almost as much time as the actual lesson if the notes are very detailed. (Agar, 1996).

Despite being a time-consuming job, typing and writing out the field notes help researchers to reflect on the data more deeply (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007).

From the beginning of observations, I started to keep detailed notes describing the atmosphere, teacher behaviors, student reactions, and most importantly the content of the lesson. I filled six notebooks with my handwritten notes in total. I tried to write down all activities going on in the class shortly. During the write-up process, I completed the missing parts from memory. While typing the field notes, I corrected the grammar and vocabulary mistakes of my notes and produced accurate language describing the lessons (for a sample collection of written up field notes, see Appendix B). During the breaks or while students were working on a task, I found time to write my own reflections about the lesson. Writing up the field notes also provided me with a detached look into the lesson and I was able to reflect deeply on the lesson.

5.4.3 Interviews

To get an in-depth understanding of the viewpoints of participants, semi-structured interviews were used in this research study, as they enable crucial questions to be asked while providing room for interviewees to raise other issues of concern to them (Heigham & Croker, 2009). Participants were asked questions about their views on the pre-service language teacher education program they are enrolled in/teaching at, the ideal teacher they have in mind, the teacher type educated at the FLE program, etc. (for a sample of interview questions, see Appendix C). Interview questions were refined by taking two expert views.

As the atmosphere of dialogue and sharing stimulate ideas in a group gathering, focus-group interviews enable researchers to go deeper into the common concerns or conflicts among participants. It also permits reaching a maximum number of participants in a short time (Creswell, 2007). To create an atmosphere of dialogue, 10 focus group interviews were conducted in this study. There were approximately 3 to 5 students in each group which were invited according to their differing achievement levels so that each group is heterogeneous. 43 students took part in the interviews from 60 students invited (participation rate 71 %). As some students did not show up on the interview day although they had promised to join,

heterogeneity was not achieved in most groups. Students who already knew each other were grouped in the same cohort so that they would feel at ease in sharing their ideas. The interviews took place in a naturalistic atmosphere with tea and cookies and genuine dialogue atmosphere was created among students and the interviewer.

In addition to focus group interviews, personal interviews were conducted with students, faculty and program administrators. Three students were interviewed individually, as they either said they would feel more comfortable expressing their views when they were alone with the interviewer or they were not able to attend the focus-group meetings due to their busy schedules. Individual interviews usually took about half an hour while the focus-group interviews lasted approximately one hour. Most of the student interviews were conducted in May and June 2013 as planned. However, as some students did not find the energy, morale or time to attend interviews after the *Gezi* Park events broke out in June 2013, a few focus group interviews had to be cancelled. Some of them were rescheduled in September 2013.

Besides, individual interviews were conducted with all teacher educators whose courses were observed. Three administrators of the FLE program were also interviewed to get their perspectives about the teacher roles fostered in the undergraduate program. These interviews also took place in a genuine atmosphere of conversation with tea and cookies. The distribution of all interview participants is displayed in the table below:

Table 7 The Distribution of Interview Participants

Participants	Number
Students	43
Teacher-educators	8
Emeritus professors	4
Program faculty with administrative roles	2
Total	57

To make sure the interviews would flow like a daily conversation, I deliberately conducted interviews in Turkish, the mother-tongue of almost all participants except two who had native-like Turkish. But there was a great deal of

code-mixing and code-switching in all interviews. The vignettes taken from interviews were all translated into English by me unless they were uttered in English by the speakers themselves (the parts uttered in English are underlined in the quotations in data analysis). All interviews were audio-recorded with the permission of the interviewees so that a complete transcript of the interviews could be held. The transcription of teacher and administrator interviews was made by myself as transcribing research data enables the researcher to engage with the material deeply (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006). However, as there was too much recording (about 29 hours in total) to be transcribed, I had most of the audio-recordings of student interviews transcribed (for a sample transcript of focus-group interviews, see Appendix D).

5.5 Data Analysis

The qualitative nature of this dissertation study requires careful management of data (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Program documents were collected and filed according to the institutions they belonged to. Course documents and materials were collected and filed separately. Field notes were written up in a chronological order and filed. Interviews were transcribed and organized according to participant profile.

Data collection and analysis procedures complement each other in qualitative studies. For Merriam (2009), "Analysis begins with the first interview, the first observation, the first document read ... It is an interactive process throughout that allows the investigator to produce believable and trustworthy findings" (p. 151). The data collection and analysis stages went hand in hand in this study, as well. Throughout the data collection process, I studied the data I gathered roughly before collecting further data. In this process, I highlighted the points which looked significant for the teacher roles investigated in this study as well as the mission of the program. I also wrote down my reflections in memos (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). When data collection process came to an end, I had already "immersed myself in data" (Wellington, 2000). Still, for the sake of following a systematic order, the staging suggested by Wellington (2000) for qualitative data analysis was used. Wellington (2000) described qualitative data analysis procedure as "messy and complicated" and suggested a cyclical process of analyzing: "To put it crudely, it

involves taking all the data in, digesting them, taking them apart, then putting them together again and sometimes returning to collecting more" (pp. 134-135). A graphic representation of Wellington's (2000) stages can be seen below:

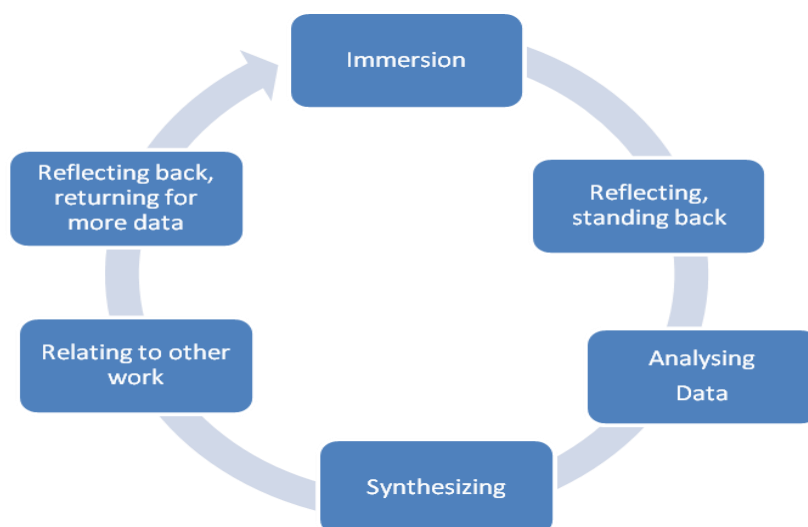


Figure 3 General Stages of Data Analysis (Wellington, 2000)

Wellington's staging (2000) of data analysis starts with immersion in which the researcher reads and rereads the data taking notes and underlining. In the stage of reflection, the investigator stands back and looks at the data from a distance. In the third stage, analysis, different components of the data are separated into chunks and each category is named. New units of data are also added to make new categories. In the synthesis stage, the classical method of constant comparison is used. Similar categories are merged; some large categories are broken into two different categories. Contrasts and paradoxes are found. Then the categories are constantly refined and checked if the categories cover all data and whether different categories overlap. Then data is compared with similar data in the literature. At times it is necessary to go back to reflecting on the data for the missing parts.

Following Wellington's staging, when the interview data set was ready for close inspection, I started reading the interview transcripts and categorizing responses either according to interview questions or frequently emerging themes. Once I finished reading and underlining the parts referring to teacher roles or

program aims, I generated overall categories. Thereafter, I reread all interview transcripts and checked if there were any parts that went unnoticed according to the emerging categories (immersion). In the second reading, some other categories emerged. Then I stood back and reflected on the categories (reflection). I saw that some categories were similar and I combined them. Then the first draft of the category system came out (analysis). After that I prepared an electronic chart in an office program (see Appendix E). In the chart, the main categories were listed. For each category, I wrote the code of each student who made a remark about that category. When the log of student remarks was made, the scope of each category appeared clearly. It should be noted that categories are abstractions made by the researcher from the data (Merriam, 2009) not representing the data itself thoroughly. The naming of the categorizations came from the interview questions, participant responses or the researcher's interpretations, as suggested by Merriam (2009). Thereafter, I began comparing and contrasting the data under each category to group similar responses under sub-categories for the ease of analysis (synthesis). I used the constant comparative method (Merriam, 2009). The comparison was made both within the same category to find sub-categories and across categories.

While the research report was being written, the prominent utterances from each category were reviewed for each categorization. As Savin-Baden and Howell Major (2013) put it, "Researchers choose which data are the most significant and influential and typically are conscious of this when reporting findings." (p. 14). They also acknowledge the fact that this process is mostly intuitive. Still, the frequency and relevance of items informed my selection of quotations. The clarity of the participants in expressing their viewpoints was another criterion I used. I chose more telling extracts, as suggested by Wellington (2000). Yet, I also paid attention to choosing differing views on the same matter from the perspectives of each participant group. If two participants expressed similar views, I chose to reveal the voices of those participants who were not directly quoted earlier in order to reflect the voices of a greater variety of participants. When I finished the synthesis part, I related the findings with the earlier research (relating to other work). After that I went over the whole data one more time to check if there were any parts that were not included in the report (reflecting back). A similar procedure was used for the

analysis of field notes while the analysis of documents followed a simpler cycle of reading the documents, underlining relevant parts and reflecting on them.

5.6 Quality Criteria

To ensure that interpretations and conclusions arrived at in a study are trustworthy, some measures should be taken (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Miles & Huberman, 1994). In this study, categories suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985) for qualitative naturalistic inquiry were used instead of those of traditional positivistic research. One of the most crucial quality control mechanisms in qualitative research studies is the *validity* or *credibility* of findings; that is, to what extent the findings are valid for the situation at hand. To be able to do justice to the context researchers are investigating, they should make sure that they stay in the field for a long period of time. In this way, they can build trust and minimize distortion to the participants. They also have a chance to provide a thick description of the setting (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this study, this criterion was addressed, as the researcher spent at least seven weeks observing classes each semester. Besides, the use of data triangulation increased the authenticity of the account: different groups of people (students, instructors, emeritus professors and administrators) and different data collection instruments (observation, interviews, document review) were used. Peer examination is another strategy to address credibility. Two fellow PhD students enrolled in the ELT program who work as research assistants in the department for five years read and commented on the final draft of this dissertation. Because they assist teacher educators in language methodology and school-based practicum courses, they are very familiar with the undergraduate program investigated in this study. Both of them found the analyses and interpretation of the study as revealing the day to day reality they observed in the program.

Another criterion for quality control is *confirmability*. Researchers need to make sure that they describe the methods and procedures of the study in detail both for later scrutiny purposes and for other researchers who may want to replicate the study (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In order not to miss any details about the study, I kept detailed notes throughout the process. All data was arranged in a well-organized manner for a possible reanalysis by others. The researcher's position and bias were

also acknowledged not to mislead the readers taking into account the possible role of the researcher's personal assumptions, values and beliefs in the study.

As for *dependability* or *reliability*, the issue is not whether the same results will be found if the study is replicated. Because human behavior is not fixed, it is not possible to have the same results if a similar study is conducted. However, it is important that the results of a research study should follow from the data collected: they should be consistent and dependable. Since the current study is conducted by just one researcher, stability or reliability of field-workers is not an issue. Although I cannot make a case for the *transferability* or *generalisability* of the study, I can make a thick description of the context so that an interested reader can make comparisons with other contexts. Because thick description is the inherent goal of the study, people studying or working in similar pre-service teacher education programs may transfer the conclusions to their own situations to the degree they are relevant.

5.7 Ethical Considerations

A major concern in qualitative studies is ensuring the protection of participants' rights and identities while trying to reveal their life worlds to a large audience. For this purpose, research studies are under scrutiny in major research universities around the world. The proposal for conducting this study was also sent to the Ethics Committee of the university and it was granted permission. In this study, the researcher's identity was revealed together with the general purposes of the research to all participants. Informed consent of them was taken (see Appendix F for a sample informed consent form). Their rights and dignity have been respected. The confidentiality of the people providing information has been protected. Any means of identifying people like names or other means were masked. As this case study is conducted in a single program where the identity of participants may be revealed with the information provided on them especially in classroom observations, any specific names that could reveal the identity of participants were eliminated in the dissertation.

CHAPTER 6

DOCUMENT ANALYSIS

This qualitative case study investigating the teacher roles teacher candidates are prepared for addresses the following research questions:

- 1) What teacher roles are conveyed by the documents generated by different educational institutions (namely the CoHE, the MoNE, the university, the faculty of education and the foreign language education department)?
- 2) What teacher roles does the FLE program prepare teacher candidates for?
 - a) What are student, teacher educator and program administrator views about the teacher roles the FLE program fosters?
 - b) What teacher roles are fostered in methodology and school-based practicum components of the FLE program?
- 3) What are the political-economic, socio-cultural and institutional reasons behind the support for and the adoption of these differing teacher roles?

To answer its research questions, this study used document review, classroom observation and in-depth interviews as the method of data collection. This chapter providing the analysis of document review will provide an answer for the first research question of the study.

This chapter will first present the findings from the documents of the Council of Higher Education and the Ministry of Education followed by the university, faculty of education and departmental documents. While the macro perspective of the documents of educational authorities will reveal the expectations of the state authorities for teachers to be educated, the micro perspective of the documents of the particular university, faculty and department will demonstrate the specific aims of the FLE program.

6.1 The Council of Higher Education Documents

As discussed earlier (see Section 2.2), the Council of Higher Education is the superior body of higher education in Turkey. As the authority of higher education, it has a big impact on all higher education institutions. However, its influence is more direct on faculties of education because it provides them with the curricula they are going to implement.

6.1.1 2007 Council of Higher Education Program

In the year 1997, with the financial support of the World Bank, Turkey started to undertake a project called the Development of National Education (CoHE, 2007b). Under this project, one subcategory was Pre-Service Teacher Education targeting to increase the quality of teacher education. To this end, a new teacher education program was introduced by the CoHE. Following this attempt, a new constructivist and student-centered curriculum was introduced into primary and secondary schools in Turkey in 2006. To meet the demands of this new curriculum, teacher education programs were updated in 2007. The program introduced in 2007 by the CoHE is currently being implemented in 2015.

The 2007 program included subject matter courses (50%), subject specific teaching methodology courses (30%) and general knowledge courses (20%) including the History of Turkish Education System, the History of Science, Research Methods, Introduction to Philosophy, and Effective Communication Skills (CoHE, 2007a). In this program, departments were accorded 25% flexibility in making modifications in their programs. The number of electives was increased. The new program also introduced a community service course so that teacher candidates can get into the contact with the school community and prepare projects to detect problems of that community suggesting solutions (CoHE, 2007a). While explaining the rationale behind the increase in the ratio of general knowledge courses, the CoHE document (CoHE, 2007a) described the characteristics of the teacher to be educated as follows:

The number of general knowledge courses was increased in the new program in order to equip teacher candidates with the background knowledge expected from an intellectual. A teacher who possesses a

certain degree of world knowledge and who owns the skills of using information technologies will be able to meet the requirements of the contemporary education systems. Such a teacher should be able to conduct research and to benefit from the findings of research studies ... The new program aims to educate intellectual teachers who are able to solve problems and to teach learning to learn rather than educating technicians who implement what they are told (CoHE, 2007a, pp. 2-4) (translation belongs to me).

As can be seen in the above quote, the CoHE document describes the teacher to be educated as a problem-solving research-oriented "intellectual" rather than a passive "technician." Though this could be regarded as clear manifestation of the intentions of the CoHE as for the teachers the institution aims to prepare, doubts have been raised as to how the program is going to meet that ideal. Considering the fact that general education courses such as the sociology of education or curriculum development had been removed from the program with the 1997 teacher education reform, it was not seen as likely to prepare teachers who had an understanding of the sociological factors in education or who knew how to engage in curriculum development efforts (Okçabol, 2005b; Özsoy & Ünal, 2010; Taşdan & Çuhadaroğlu, 2006; Yılmaz, 2014).

When the 2007 program proposed by the CoHE for English Language Teaching programs is analyzed, it can be seen that language teaching methodology courses and English language courses make up the majority of the courses. The table below demonstrates the courses divided according to the sub-components of the program. As can be seen, there is a great variety of teaching methodology and English language courses in the program of 2007. Yet, the general knowledge and general education courses are still very limited despite the above mentioned goal of creating "intellectual teachers" through general knowledge courses added to the program. On the other hand, despite the findings of earlier research studies which indicated that school-based practicum courses should be increased and organized better (Enginarlar, 1997; Seferoglu, 2006), it is seen that the number of practicum courses were decreased in the 2007 program. In fact, the limited space allocated to practicum courses show the technicist nature of the program which prescribes student teachers how to teach first and then ask them to implement what they are taught rather than allowing them to learn to teach by doing it. In the technicist view of

teacher education, teaching practice is delayed until student teachers get enough content knowledge. This is actually what happens in the CoHE 2007 program. Only two practicum courses are offered in the program only in the senior year of study. The 2007 curriculum does not offer much space for situated learning in the field, either, except for the new community service course added to the program.

Table 8 The List of Courses Under Each Component of the 2007 CoHE Program

Methodology Courses	School-Based Practicum Courses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Approaches to ELT I • Approaches to ELT II • ELT Methodology I • ELT Methodology II • Teaching English to Young Learners I • Teaching English to Young Learners II • Teaching Language Skills I • Teaching Language Skills II • Literature and Language Teaching I • Literature and Language Teaching II • Materials Adaptation and Development • English Language Testing & Evaluation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School Experience • Practice Teaching
General Education Courses	Literature Courses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction to Education • Instructional Principles and Methods • Educational Psychology • Drama • Instructional Technology & Materials Dev. • Classroom Management • Community Service • Turkish Education System and School Mang. • Guidance • Special Education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • English Literature I • English Literature II
Language Courses	Linguistics Courses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contextual Grammar I • Contextual Grammar II • Advanced Reading and Writing I • Advanced Reading and Writing II • Listening and Pronunciation I • Listening and Pronunciation II • Oral Communication Skills I • Oral Communication Skills II • Lexical Competence • Oral Expression and Public Speaking • English-Turkish Translation • Turkish-English Translation • Second Foreign Language I • Second Foreign Language II • Second Foreign Language III • Research Skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Linguistics I • Linguistics II • Language Acquisition

This inference as to technicist orientation of the CoHE 2007 program from the distribution of courses is also supported by the course contents. A survey of course descriptions of English Language Teaching methodology courses (see Appendix G) shows that teacher candidates are expected to follow the current teaching trends and to select the appropriate ones from among the pool of methods rather than theorizing themselves. They learn the techniques of teaching four skills to different groups of students including young learners' and are encouraged to integrate technology into language teaching. They are directed to carry out action research in one course and expected to follow professional journals and conferences. They study how to select and adapt materials. They learn how to test students. They also take two English literature courses in connection with language teaching. From the course descriptions of these courses, it seems clear that literature courses were intended to be a tool for teaching/learning English rather than a means of interpreting the world.

When the course descriptions of the methodology component of the 2007 CoHE program are critically analyzed, it is seen that basic concepts of reflective teaching or critical applied linguistics do not find their place in the program. A simple search for some of the keywords of reflective teaching like "reflective, autonomy, intellectual, beliefs, values, reflection, culture" find no matches in the course contents in the overall program (CoHE, 2007c). Neither do the key words of critical pedagogy like "democracy, human rights, social justice, quality, social responsibility, critical citizenship" or the basic concepts of applied linguistics such as the "spread of English, linguistic imperialism, World Englishes, post-method condition, non-native teacher," which demonstrates that there is no reference to any of those in the course descriptions. The course contents do not describe any tasks to encourage students to reflection or questioning their assumptions. Students are not asked to critically analyze the spread of English, the implications of World Englishes, their own status as non-native teachers of English or teacher autonomy. Nor are they asked to question the hierarchy between academic experts and teachers or the language teaching policies in the country, as almost no critical content is available in the 2007 CoHE program. The following vignette from two course contents clearly reflects there is no reference to post-method in a course surveying language teaching methodologies:

Approaches to ELT I

Basic issues and processes in ELT course design; the difference among approach, method, and technique and the significance of these concepts in course design; an overview of important methods and approaches in ELT: Grammar Translation Method, Direct Method, Audio-lingual Method, Silent Way, Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia, Communicative Approach, the Natural Approach.

Approaches to ELT II

Current issues and practices in ELT course design, appropriate approaches suitable to learner needs based on current distinctions such as ESL, EFL, EIL, ESP, EAP; current foreign language teaching trends such as constructivist approach, content-based instruction, task-based instruction, problem-based teaching, multiple intelligences, whole language approach and corpus-based applications of language teaching; culture and classroom second/foreign language learning, technology use in language classrooms, and communicative and intercultural competencies for the language learner and teacher of the globalized world.

The course descriptions of other methodology courses do not have any reference to post-method, either (see Appendix F). In spite of the program's claim to educate intellectual teachers rather than technicians, it is not clear how teachers educated with this program will be able to go beyond "implementing what they are told" with these course contents directing them to follow the common practices in the field without leading them to question their appropriateness for their own contexts. Besides, without being encouraged to reflect on the classroom events from a macro perspective or being motivated to develop their decision making skills, it does not seem possible for student teachers to become problem-solver intellectual teachers. Because current educational issues are left out of the CoHE program, it is quite uncertain whether teacher candidates will be able to critically evaluate the materials they are assigned to teach or their identities as teachers let alone language teaching or education policies imposed on them. Thus, despite the claims of the CoHE to educate "a problem-solving intellectual" teacher, it seems difficult to do so with the technicist program it provided.

6.1.2 National Qualifications Framework for Higher Education in Turkey

In 2001, Turkey became a member of the Bologna Process, which aimed to establish a European Higher Education Area by the year 2010 (CoHE, 2014; European University Association, 2014). The European Higher Education Area intended to connect the higher education systems of European countries so that they create mechanisms to recognize each other's degrees and academic qualifications (European University Association, 2014). The Process centered on developing descriptions of learning outcomes. Each member state was required to write its national qualifications frameworks, which meant "what a person achieving any higher education degree is supposed to know, do and be competent about" (CoHE, 2014). The process of developing the national qualifications framework in Turkey started in 2006 and concluded in 2010. The table below demonstrates the qualifications which a holder of a bachelor's degree should have. As Table 9 below demonstrates, a university graduate in Turkey is expected to have a sound theoretical and professional knowledge, to analyze and solve problems, and to conduct studies individually and in groups. What is more, according to the framework, Turkish university graduates should be able to evaluate their own learning from a critical perspective and be ready to improve themselves. Besides, graduates of Turkish universities should be able to develop projects in line with their social responsibilities and they should have awareness about social rights, social justice, worker's health and security, cultural values and environment protection.

When these qualifications are compared with the attributes of teacher roles explored in this study, it is seen that the national qualifications for higher education covers most of the teacher characteristics this study surveys. The technical and theoretical knowledge of a teacher is addressed as well as the reflective skills such as problem-solving, self-evaluation and research. In addition, social responsibilities and social consciousness of a transformative intellectual are addressed in the qualifications though there is no direct reference to the "transformative" potential of a graduate. By looking at the national qualifications, one can infer that Turkish universities target educating graduates as transformative intellectuals. This seems to be one step further from the problem-solving intellectual aimed in the 2007 CoHE program.

Table 9 National Qualifications Framework for Higher Education in Turkey (CoHE, 2014)

NATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS FRAMEWORK FOR HIGHER EDUCATION IN TURKEY (NQF-HETR)						
6. Level (Associate's) Qualifications						
NQF-HETR LEVEL	Knowledge -Theoretical -Conceptual	SKILLS -Cognitive -Practical	COMPETENCES			
			Competence to Work Independently and Take Responsibility	Learning Competence	Communication and Social Competence	Field Specific Competence
6 BACHELOR'S <hr/> EQF-LLL: 6. Level <hr/> QF-EHEA: 1. Cycle	- Possess advanced level theoretical and practical knowledge supported by textbooks with updated information , practice equipments and other resources.	-Use of advanced theoretical and practical knowledge within the field. -Interpret and evaluate data, define and analyze problems, develop solutions based on research and proofs by using acquired advanced knowledge and skills within the field.	- Conduct studies at an advanced level in the field independently. - Take responsibility both as a team member and individually in order to solve unexpected complex problems faced within the implementations in the field. - Planning and managing activities towards the development of subordinates in the framework of a project.	-Evaluate the knowledge and skills acquired at an advanced level in the field with a critical approach. -Determine learning needs and direct the learning. -Develop positive attitude towards lifelong learning.	- Inform people and institutions, transfer ideas and solution proposals to problems in written and orally on issues in the field. - Share the ideas and solution proposals to problems on issues in the field with professionals and non-professionals by the support of qualitative and quantitative data. -Organize and implement project and activities for social environment with a sense of social responsibility. -Monitor the developments in the field and communicate with peers by using a foreign language at least at a level of European Language Portfolio B1 General Level. -Use informatics and communication technologies with at least a minimum level of European Computer Driving License Advanced Level software knowledge.	- Act in accordance with social, scientific, cultural and ethic values on the stages of gathering, implementation and release of the results of data related to the field. - Possess sufficient consciousness about the issues of universality of social rights, social justice, quality, cultural values and also, environmental protection, worker's health and security.

6.2 Ministry of National Education Documents

The document review has revealed no documents belonging to the Ministry of Education indicating the roles teachers should play or how teachers should be educated. Still, it is possible to deduce the expectations of the Ministry of National Education from the generic and subject-specific teacher competencies which were developed to clarify the goals of "teachers' personal and professional development." The generic teacher competencies consist of six main categories (MoNE, 2008):

1. Personal and professional values - professional development
2. Knowing the student
3. Learning and teaching process
4. Monitoring and evaluation of learning and development
5. School-family and society relationships
6. Knowledge of curriculum and content

There are 31 sub-competencies and 233 performance indicators under generic teacher competencies. To give the reader an idea about the contents of each generic teacher competency, sub-competencies under each main category will be demonstrated in the Table 10 below. As the main categories and sub-competencies reveal, the type of ideal teacher implied by generic competencies seems to be a professional teacher who values students and treats them as individuals. She recognizes their cultural and personal differences (sub-competence A1 and B1). She actively evaluates herself, her own biases and assumptions, as the Performance Indicator A1.13 indicates: "Does not behave prejudiced towards students regardless of their backgrounds and socio-economic status." (MoNE, 2008, p. 13). She aims to develop students' self-confidence and supports students in solving problems that cause learning difficulties. As a person who respects the constitution and democratic principles as well as human rights and children's rights (sub-competence A3), this ideal teacher supports international cooperation and peace. She does not engage in discrimination against any nation, individual or belief (performance indicator A3.1) and she has democratic student-centered teaching practices being open to suggestions of her students. In addition to universal human values, she is respectful to national and cultural values of her own society. She takes active responsibility in developing the school and making it a social and cultural centre for the community.

Table 10 Sub-Competencies under Generic Teacher Competencies (MoNE, 2008)

A) PERSONAL and PROFESSIONAL VALUES - PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	B) KNOWING THE STUDENT
A1. Valuing, understanding and respecting the students A2. Believing that students can learn and achieve A3. Attaching importance to national and global values A4. Making self-evaluation A5. Ensuring personal development A6. Following and making contribution to professional developments A7. Making contribution to improve and develop the school A8. Following professional laws and realizing tasks and responsibilities	B1. Knowing the developmental characteristics B2. Considering interests and needs B3. Valuing the student B4. Guiding the student
C. TEACHING AND LEARNING PROCESS	D. MONITORING AND EVALUATION OF LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT
C1. Planning the lesson C2. Preparation of materials C3. Organizing learning environments C4. Organizing extra-curricular activities C5. Diversifying education by taking into account the individual differences C6. Time management C7. Behavior management	D1. Identifying testing and assessment methods and techniques D2. Testing student learning by using different testing techniques D3. Data analysis and interpretation, providing feedback on student learning and development D4. Reviewing the teaching-learning process according to results
E. SCHOOL, FAMILY AND SOCIETY RELATIONSHIPS	F. KNOWLEDGE OF CURRICULUM AND CONTENT
E1. Knowing the environment E2. Making use of environmental opportunities E3. Making the school a culture centre E4. Knowing the families and impartiality in relationships with families E5. Ensuring family involvement and cooperation	F1. Objectives and principles of Turkish national education F2. Knowledge of subject-specific curriculum and practice skills F3. Monitoring-evaluation and development of subject-specific curriculum

Besides, this teacher organizes extra-curricular activities in cooperation with families and non-governmental organizations (sub-competence C4 and E3). She makes home-visits to get to know the socio-economic and cultural characteristics of students' families. Aware of her competence and individual power, this teacher knows how to deal with difficulties and stress (performance indicators A5.1 and A5.5). She is open to learning from her colleagues and responsible for her professional development (sub-competence A6). She can conduct action research and

follows professional journals, conferences and in-service training seminars in her field. As a professional, "the teacher should know the legislation related to his/her tasks, rights and responsibilities, and he/she should be able to act accordingly" (sub-competence A8). Moreover, she knows "fundamental values and principles that Turkish National Education System is based on and its objectives, and should be able to reflect them on education-training activities" (sub-competence F1, MoNE, 2008, p. 41). The participation of the teacher in the decision-making processes is only referred to in only one performance indicator (A6.6) to be conducted in cooperation with teachers' organizations.

As is seen, these teacher characteristics are more or less in line with the reflective teacher model in Kumaravadivelu's (2003) categorization and the teacher ideal as an "intellectual" set in the 2007 CoHE program. Apparently, the MoNE and the CoHE shared a common teacher ideal who is an active life-long learner able to create a good learning atmosphere for her students. Yet, this teacher has limited role to play in the decision-making processes or curriculum development.

Subject-specific teacher competencies are parallel to generic teacher competencies. English language teaching has five main competency areas:

- Planning and organizing English teaching processes
- Developing language skills
- Monitoring and assessing students' language development
- Cooperation with school, parents and the community
- Monitoring one's own professional development

As Table 11 below demonstrates, the ideal English teacher according to the specialized field competencies is expected to follow the methods and techniques suggested by the resource books of the field (sub-competence 1.4), rather than developing her own teaching strategies according to the demands of the situation. In addition to her general professional duties such as planning and organizing the process of teaching English, using appropriate materials, tests, and technology, guiding students in discovering their own learning styles, and developing four skills, she is given a mission of being a community leader who cares and works for

addressing the economic, social and educational needs of the community (sub-competence 4.6) in the specialized field competencies.

Table 11 The List of English Language Teacher Competencies*

1) Planning and organizing English teaching processes	2) Developing language skills
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To be able to make plans appropriate to teaching English 2. To be able to design learning environments appropriate to teaching English 3. To be able to use materials and resources appropriate to teaching English 4. To be able to use methods and techniques that are appropriate to teaching English 5. To be able to use technological resources 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To be able to help students to develop effective language learning strategies 2. To be able to enable students use English accurately and intelligibly 3. To be able to develop students' listening/watching skills in English 4. To be able to develop students' speaking skills in English 5. To be able to develop students' reading skills in English 6. To be able to develop writing skills in English 7. To be able to make adaptations in teaching English considering students with special needs and students who need special education
3) Monitoring and assessing students' language development	4) Cooperation with school, parents and the community
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To be able to identify the goals of the assessment and evaluation practices in English language teaching 2. To be able to use assessment and evaluation tools and techniques in English language teaching 3. To be able to interpret the results of the assessment tests that identify students' language developments and to provide feedback 4. To be able to make use of the results of the assessment tests for improving students' weaknesses 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To be able to collaborate with parents about development of students' language skills. 2. To be able to collaborate with relevant institutions, organizations and people to make students grasp the importance of using a foreign language. 3. To be able to make students aware of the importance of the national festivals and ceremonies and to encourage their active participation 4. To be able to organize and manage national festivals and ceremonies 5. To be able to collaborate with the community in order to render school into a culture and learning centre 6. To be able to work as a community leader
5) Monitoring one's own professional development	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To be able to determine professional competencies 2. To be able to monitor one's own personal and professional development in English language teaching 3. To be able to utilize scientific research methods and techniques in professional development practices 4. To be able to reflect their research on their teaching practices 	

* The translation of the competencies into English was adapted from Balıkçı and Karaman (2013)

To make sure these teacher competencies are internalized by teachers, *School Based Professional Development Manual* was prepared by the Ministry in 2007 following similar practices in the EU. It aims to integrate teacher professional development with the efforts to develop schools. The practices suggested in the manual center around learning more about the students and ensuring their learning. With the manual, teachers are asked to make a career and professional development plan setting time aside to evaluate themselves based on generic and specialized field competencies and continue to develop themselves professionally. The guideline aims to establish the notion among teachers that every student can learn, based on which they should develop learning environments and materials to cater for individual needs. It describes teachers as "learning" teachers. In the framework of School Based Professional Development (SBPD), teachers are regarded as leaders for their schools, as seen in the quotation below (original in English):

Teachers working in those schools become the director and a part of change and development in their schools. SBPD enables teachers to take a driving role in the process of improvement of the school and development of the successful practices. It also promotes the cooperation between teachers and the development of a sharing culture of studies and professional knowledge as a result. Furthermore, it supports the enhancement and development of the school standards (p. 10).

As is seen, teachers are described as responsible for change in their schools. The document has reference to the importance of reflection in continuous professional development. SBPD system is planned to work in a systematic way by aligning student needs with teachers' professional development needs. Teachers are provided with a framework to carry out their self-assessment in relation to student learning in a systematic manner. First, they determine the problem areas and then they prepare an action-plan to carry out the professional development needed. They evaluate the plan at the end of the school year to see if they achieved their professional development aims based on teacher competencies. The aim of SBPD is expressed as such: "to achieve a school culture based on continuous learning, development, sharing, determination and mutual reliability" (p. 47).

In the SBPD document, there is a heavy emphasis on the changing teacher roles according to the constructivist model of learning in which both students and teachers are described as active learners. Learning-teachers continuously engaged in professional development means learning-students, according to the guideline. In line with the generic teacher competencies, teachers are encouraged to take active part in school development efforts working in close collaboration with colleagues, parents and community members. They are directed to understand and respect individual differences by getting to know students and their families better. Cooperation among teachers, parents and the community is also highlighted in the manual of teacher development.

The details given in the subject-specific competencies and the SBPD are all parallel to generic teacher competencies. The learning-teacher model described in all these MoNE documents matches with the general description of a reflective teacher. In these documents, teachers work as problem-solving professionals who are able to evaluate the needs, backgrounds and interests of students and shape their lessons accordingly. This teacher is engaged in professional development, able to follow recent research and conduct action research. She is also a part of the school development efforts assuming leadership in the community. However, she has no role to play in curriculum development, educational policy making or creating a just system of education.

6.3 University Documents

The university this study was conducted in is a technical research university. Being one of the most prestigious institutions of the country, it has assumed an innovative leadership role among the universities of Turkey. Given the fact that the program being investigated in this study operates under this university, the influence of the general atmosphere of the university on the program should not be ignored. Therefore, relevant documents of the university including the mission statement, basic principles and the manifesto of the university are surveyed in this section to give the reader an idea about the general aims of the university (The name of the university is masked for ethical purposes both in the text itself and in the references).

The university declares its mission on its webpage as follows:

The mission of the ... university is to reach, produce, apply and promote knowledge, and to educate individuals with that knowledge for the social, cultural, economic, scientific and technological development of our society and humanity. This is to be done by bringing teaching, research and social services up to universal standards.

As is seen in the mission statement, the university assumes responsibility in the advancement of the country as well as the humanity and sets universal standards for itself. According to the basic principles of the university available on its website, the university attempts to create an environment which encourages research, fosters creativity and self-development to reach these standards. It also works for the development of humanistic values, leadership skills, life-long learning habits and open-mindedness among its students. As the university attracts students from many parts of the world, it has a multicultural and multilingual campus environment which appreciates diversity. The main campus of the university hosts a diversity of artistic, cultural and academic events every year.

The manifesto of the university broadcast in 2012 describes the students and graduates of the university as follows:

The students and graduates of this university do not recognize any limits or restrictions. They think freely and express their thoughts freely. What makes them students/graduates of this university is the culture of the university that motivates them to succeed and to make a difference. Students/graduates of this university are never satisfied with the available information. They question, they investigate, and they develop. They strive to create new knowledge, apply it, and share it. They do not see their responsibility limited to their immediate surroundings. They involve themselves in the issues of their country and the world, and seek solutions. That's the essence of the spirit of the university. This spirit is sometimes called "idealism" and sometimes "revolutionism". We simply call it the spirit of the university community. It is with this spirit that—starting with our immediate surroundings-- we believe we can change the whole world. Together, we can change the world (adapted from J. Bear's translation, personal communication, March 24th, 2012)

Though this manifesto was originally prepared for a TV commercial to publicize the university to attract prospective students, it actually refers to an established notion among the public about being a member of this university known for its opposition

or "revolutionism." I believe that this so-called "spirit" of the university does really exist among the university community. The program under investigation in this study is part of such a university atmosphere intending to educate transformative intellectuals.

6.3.1 Undergraduate Common Program Outcomes

In line with the university's strategic plan for 2011-2016 and as part of the Bologna Process, the university set out to review its undergraduate programs in 2012. The educational planning council of the university prepared a roadmap to be followed by all the departments of the university. The plan included each undergraduate program writing its own curricular objectives and outcomes and reviewing its course outlines. The process started with the education council's preparation of the common program outcomes consulting all departments. After a process of revising and editing the draft outcomes, the final version of the outcomes was reached, which was accepted by the university senate in January 2014. The table below taken from the university website shows the common program outcomes:

Table 12 Undergraduate Common Program Outcomes

Graduates of Undergraduate Programs:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • have the ability to actively conceptualize, apply, analyze, synthesize, and evaluate information (Critical Thinking), • creatively produce innovative/new ideas and products (Creativity), • have the ability to develop and apply strategies to identify, define, and solve problems (Problem Solving), • have the ability to effectively communicate (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) using both Turkish and English languages (Communication Skills), • have the skills of leadership, entrepreneurship, and self-direction (Leadership and Entrepreneurship), • are sensitive towards global, societal, and environmental problems; put efforts individually or as part of community for the solution of these problems; produce and present the solutions when necessary (Global, Societal, and Environmental Awareness), • give importance to ethical values and principles, behave accordingly in professional and societal life (Ethical Behavior), • have the skills of working independently and in a team (Teamwork and Independent Work); • are open to lifelong learning to develop their knowledge, skills, and competencies (Openness to Lifelong Learning), • understand the need for information; define and reach the information; use it effectively and share with others (Information Literacy), • use information and communication technologies effectively; share their knowledge and experience using technology and visual aids (Information and Communication Technologies Literacy).

The analysis of common program outcomes demonstrate that the graduate of this university is expected to have creativity, problem-solving and communication skills, critical thinking skills, leadership and entrepreneurship skills, and information and communication technologies literacy. The graduates should also be open to work individually and as a group and they should be open to lifelong learning. What is more, they should be knowledgeable about ethical behavior and have awareness of global, societal and environmental problems. When these outcomes are compared with the other university documents presented above, it is seen that they overlap with one exception: the focus on the graduates to change the world in the university manifesto is not underlined in the outcomes.

The common outcomes of university graduates are also consistent with the CoHE's national qualifications framework discussed above (see Section 6.1.2). Similar qualifications such as problem-solving, independent and group-work, life-long learning, etc. are included. Both frameworks have statements about ethical behavior and awareness of social and environmental issues. The lack of emphasis on the university graduates' roles as change agents is also shared in both documents. Still, one can claim that both the CoHE and the university have broad goals in educating university students with a critical awareness and social responsibility.

6.4 Faculty of Education Documents

Founded in 1982, the Faculty of Education is described as "the youngest faculty of the university" in the latest General Catalog of the university (2013-2015). In the same catalog, the faculty is depicted as an important component of the university with its contributions to educational improvement at the university. The faculty includes six departments including the department of computer education and instructional technology, the department of educational sciences, the department of elementary education, the department of foreign language education, the department of physical education and sports and the department of secondary science education and math education. According to the catalog, "The primary mission of the Faculty of Education is to educate qualified teachers for elementary, secondary and higher education in various disciplines." In the earlier catalogs of university (1983-1999), however, the mission of the faculty was put forward as educating teachers for

secondary levels. Reflecting the impact of the 1997 Teacher Education Reform, catalogs between 1999-2003 defined the mission as "to train teachers for elementary and secondary education." After 2003, general catalogs set the mission as educating teachers for all levels of education including higher education.

The web page of the faculty also defines its aim as to "train teachers and educators qualified to teach at every educational level." The information about the faculty on its webpage indicates that the theoretical and applied courses offered at the faculty "enable prospective teachers to become professionals who are constantly in touch with recent scientific and technological developments and who have the willingness and capacity to apply these developments to their own teaching activities." Though this description makes a reference to teacher candidates' ongoing professional development, the focus is more on their passive implementation of the results of scientific and technological developments. There is no reference to the creativity or autonomy of the teacher or the demands of the context. Such a description as to the aim of teacher education is closer to a notion of a teacher as a passive technician in Kumaravadivelu's (2003) categorization. Just as in the technicist model of teacher education, the graduates of the faculty are supposed to implement the findings of research studies into practice in this understanding.

In fact, neither the website, nor the official documents of the faculty of education includes information about the philosophy or the mission of the faculty of education except for the limited information given above. The website of the faculty includes some position papers on the educational issues of the country. When they are analyzed, it is seen that the faculty of education is against the alternative routes to teacher education such as the short-term certification programs arguing that quality teachers cannot be educated in such short-term programs. The faculty also released opinion papers on the highly controversial educational reform called 4+4+4 indicating the issues of concern in the reform package. Even though the faculty of education did not refrain from advocating a certain stance in educational issues of the country, no detailed information is available in the official documents of the faculty about the characteristics of teachers to be educated in the faculty.

6.5 The Department of Foreign Language Education Documents

Because this dissertation is an investigation of a pre-service teacher education program, departmental documents are critical in this study. In this section, first documents describing program aims and outcomes will be surveyed. Then, the FLE curriculum described in the general catalogue will be analyzed. Finally, the history of the department will be explored through a survey of university catalogs. Such a historical background of the program's evolution over the years will provide the reader with a deeper understanding of the modifications made in the program.

6.5.1 Program Aims and Outcomes

As for the characteristics of the teacher to be educated in the program, neither the official webpage, nor the program documents provide any explanation. There is no philosophy or mission statement of the program, either. The description on the webpage states that “students are provided with a solid foundation in the English language, English literature, methodology, educational sciences and linguistics in order to make them fully qualified teachers of English in primary, secondary and tertiary educational institutions.” While this description explains what students study at the program and where they might work when they graduate, there is no information on the characteristics of teachers educated in the program. The program description on the webpage also notes that the FLE program “had much broader objectives” than the CoHE program from the beginning. However, these “broader objectives” are not presented. The reason of this broad perspective is stated as the “multi-disciplinary staff” in the program. There is also reference to the inclusion of literature and linguistics courses as essential components of the program, as the following excerpt from the program description displays:

The Department has always considered itself fortunate to have a staff consisting of specialists not only in the field of foreign language education, but in literature and linguistics as well. Hence, literature and linguistics were not relegated to a secondary position, but were seen as constituting an essential part of the professional formation of language teachers.

As the above statement demonstrates, literature and linguistics courses are presented as vital components of teacher preparation in the departmental webpage.

There have been some efforts lately to write the aims and outcomes of the program imposed by the university administration to all faculties and departments. Though it was not formulated as a bottom-up curriculum development effort, this top-down process brought the faculty - including me - together to formulate the general goals of the program. This process of writing program goals was informed by the views of students, alumni and employers of graduates gathered through a systematic data collection process. The end-product written according to the guidelines given by the university administration included program educational aims and outcomes. The educational aims described where the graduates of the program are employed as teachers (elementary, secondary, post-secondary, and higher education levels in a variety of national and international educational contexts) and in which positions (material and test development, educational and language research, educational leadership, teacher training, translation, and instructional design). It also stated they may follow an academic path in Social Sciences and Humanities. As for the program outcomes, it listed what graduates of the program should be able to do in fourteen items, as seen in the Table 13 below.

As can be seen from the FLE program outcomes, graduates of the program are defined as professionals who are able to make decisions according to the context and cultural and social backgrounds of their students (items 1 and 2). The graduates are expected to become reflective teachers engaged in ongoing professional development and capable of conducting research projects (items 5 and 12). They are also expected to teach in a culturally responsive manner (items 6 and 14) and develop a critical stance towards the materials they select. However, there is no reference to graduates' taking part in curriculum development efforts, which might be considered normal as the undergraduate program does not offer any such courses. Neither is there any item related to graduates' roles as community leaders in school development efforts or in their relationship with parents unlike those in the MoNE documents which assign such roles to teachers. In a parallel vein, the critical stance the graduates are to develop is defined only limited to their professional sphere in the document not related to critical citizenship. There is no specific reference to graduates' ability to analyze the sociopolitical issues in language teaching or the policies of (language) education, either.

Table 13 FLE Program Outcomes

Graduates of FLE program should be able to:
1. Make appropriate pedagogical decisions in accordance with their particular English teaching context (i.e. age, setting, location, and learner background) based on a contemporary repertoire of language teaching approaches and methods.
2. Critically analyze linguistic, literary, cultural, and historical issues when selecting, developing, and using course materials.
3. Based on their familiarity with educational sciences, literature, and linguistics, establish cross-disciplinary connections and develop critical intellectual curiosities as inquiring language educators.
4. Identify and generate solutions for specific language-related problems which learners of English may face at different proficiency levels.
5. Individually and collaboratively design, conduct, and report small-scale educational research projects by employing relevant research methods in the investigation of language with teachers from local, national or international contexts.
6. Demonstrate awareness of individual, (multi)cultural, and psycho-social diversity in learning environments and adapt to different local contexts.
7. Analyze and address professional challenges based on an awareness of global systems and comparisons of educational systems.
8. Fluently and accurately use all receptive and productive English language skills at an advanced level for effective daily and academic communication.
9. Effectively translate a diverse set of English and Turkish discourses considering context-specific elements.
10. Utilize experiences of learning a foreign language other than English for developing an awareness of language learning processes.
11. With self-confidence, effectively communicate with students and other stakeholders in educational settings.
12. Engage in reflective teaching, self-evaluation, and ongoing professional development.
13. Select and utilize appropriate instructional technologies and information literacy skills to increase the effectiveness of foreign language teaching.
14. Promote creativity, understanding, cooperation, and equity to establish a positive classroom environment.

One possible reason behind the lack of attention on teachers' roles as community leaders or as critical citizens might be attributed to the fact that some of these characteristics were already covered in the university's common program outcomes and the CoHE's National Qualifications Framework. Another factor might be the limiting framework provided by the university administration. Having been a member of the faculty meetings on writing learning outcomes, I remember concentrating mostly on the learning outcomes of the courses I taught rather than thinking about a holistic purpose. I also remember feeling confused between focusing on the ideal outcomes we wanted to achieve or the outcomes we were able to achieve with the current set of courses. Because the faculty members had to operate within a predetermined framework in a limited time, the process of writing program aims might not have reflected the true spirit of the philosophy of the

program. Even though it was created in a top-down manner under some constraining factors, it is still the only document which might give a hint into the FLE program's aims. Based on the wording of this document, it is possible to argue that the FLE program's main focus of attention is preparing reflective practitioners.

6.5.2 The FLE Program in Service

Taking advantage of the flexibility accorded by the Council of Higher Education in the 2007 program, the FLE department changed the number of courses in different components, as can be seen in Table 14 below:

Table 14 Comparison of Course Components

Course Component	2007 CoHE Program	FLE Program
Methodology Courses	12	8
Practicum Courses	2	2
Education Courses	10	7
Literature Courses	2	5
Language Courses	16	12
Linguistics Courses	3	5

As the above table demonstrates, the large number of ELT methodology courses in the CoHE program was reduced in the FLE program. While the CoHE program offered two separate courses on approaches to ELT, teaching young learners' and teaching language skills, the FLE program combined those subsequent courses in single courses. Two methodology courses called Literature and Language Teaching I and II were replaced by Introduction to Literature and Novel Analysis courses in the FLE program. Thus, the number of literature courses in the CoHE program more than doubled in the FLE program. One methodology course called Drama for Language Teachers in the CoHE program was transformed into a classical literary drama course in the FLE program. The program also increased the number of linguistics courses. One linguistics course called Contrastive Turkish-English was added to the program. What is more, a language course called Lexical Competence, which is a first year course in the CoHE program was moved to the fourth year and turned into a linguistics course called the English Lexicon. The FLE program also

had a cut in the number of language courses. While the CoHE program offered two subsequent courses on Listening and Pronunciation, Oral Communication and Translation each, these courses were turned into single courses (see Table 15 below).

Even though the number of methodology courses was reduced in the FLE program, the course contents were mostly the same as in the 2007 CoHE program. For some courses (e.g. Instructional Principles and Methods, Approaches to ELT, ELT methodology I and II, Teaching Language Skills), course descriptions were directly taken from the CoHE program; and for others (e.g. Teaching Young Learners', Materials Adaptation and Development, English Language Testing & Evaluation), they were adapted from the CoHE program. As the course descriptions were more or less the same with the CoHE program, they did not include references to reflective or critical language teacher education, either.

As the number of practicum courses is quite limited in both the 2007 CoHE program and the FLE program, students do not have a chance to link what they learn about teaching with their teaching practice. They start having real-life experience of teaching only in their senior year visiting schools once a week (4-6 hours). They have a minimum requirement of teaching three times throughout the semester. If their mentor teachers allow them to teach more, they are lucky. As the distribution of practice teaching courses in the program reveal, student teachers learn what to do first and implement those later on rather than experimenting teaching themselves at first hand. Their interaction with real-life teaching contexts, practitioners and school communities is very limited. They are not given much opportunity to develop an enhanced understanding of teaching discussing the issues of concern to them with their peers or professors. Due to the limited space allocated to practice teaching, it is quite uncertain if student teachers' ability to theorize their teaching experience develops. In the limited time available, it seems possible only to test what they learnt in theory.

Table 15 Comparison of the 2007 CoHE Program with the FLE Program

	2007 CoHE Program	FLE Program
Methodology Courses	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Approaches to ELT I 2. Approaches to ELT II 3. ELT Methodology I 4. ELT Methodology II 5. Teaching English to Young Learners I 6. Teaching English to Young Learners II 7. Teaching Language Skills I 8. Teaching Language Skills II 9. Literature and Language Teaching I 10. Literature and Language Teaching II 11. Materials Adaptation and Development 12. English Language Testing & Evaluation 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Instructional Principles and Methods 2. Approaches to ELT 3. ELT Methodology I 4. ELT Methodology II 5. Teaching English to Young Learners 6. Teaching Language Skills 7. Materials Adaptation and Development 8. English Language Testing & Evaluation
Education Courses	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Introduction to Education 2. Instructional Principles and Methods 3. Educational Psychology 4. Drama 5. Instructional Technology & Materials Development 6. Classroom Management 7. Community Service 8. Turkish Education System and School Management 9. Guidance 10. Special Education 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Introduction to Education 2. Educational Psychology 3. Instructional Technology & Materials Development 4. Classroom Management 5. Community Service 6. Turkish Education System and School Management 7. Guidance
Literature Courses	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. English Literature I 2. English Literature II 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Introduction to Literature 2. English Literature I 3. English Literature II 4. Drama Analysis 5. Novel Analysis
Linguistics Courses	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Linguistics I 2. Linguistics II 3. Language Acquisition 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Linguistics I 2. Linguistics II 3. Contrastive Turkish-English 4. Language Acquisition 5. The English Lexicon
Language Courses	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Contextual Grammar I 2. Contextual Grammar II 3. Advanced Reading and Writing I 4. Advanced Reading and Writing II 5. Listening and Pronunciation I 6. Listening and Pronunciation II 7. Oral Communication Skills I 8. Oral Communication Skills II 9. Lexical Competence 10. Oral Expression and Public Speaking 11. English-Turkish Translation 12. Turkish-English Translation 13. Second Foreign Language I 14. Second Foreign Language II 15. Second Foreign Language III 16. Research Skills 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Contextual Grammar I 2. Contextual Grammar II 3. Advanced Reading and Writing I 4. Advanced Reading and Writing II 5. Listening and Pronunciation 6. Oral Communication Skills 7. Oral Expression and Public Speaking 8. Advanced Writing and Research 9. Translation 10. Second Foreign Language I 11. Second Foreign Language II 12. Second Foreign Language III

In addition to the must courses listed above, the FLE program offered four departmental electives and two non-departmental electives. The division of departmental elective courses according to their course components is displayed in the table below:

Table 16 The Number of Elective Courses Offered in the FLE program

Course Component	Language	Literature	Linguistics
2012-2013 Fall	1	2	3
2012-2013 Spring	1+2	3	3
20013-2014 Fall	1	2	2
2013-2014 Spring	1+1	3	3

* 1+2 means 1 English proficiency course + 2 foreign language courses

Given the number of courses under each component, it is clearly seen that the number of elective linguistics courses offered in the program outnumbered the literature and language components. As for language courses, only a single English course was offered under language component each semester. The other courses were German elective courses. As seen in the table, there were no English methodology or practicum courses under the electives offered in the program during the period this study was conducted, which indicates that the electives did not address the above mentioned weaknesses of the program.

In conclusion, based on the course distributions and course contents, it might be argued that the FLE curriculum was not able to move beyond the technicist orientation of the CoHE 2007 curriculum at least on a documentary level. Despite the fact that linguistics and literature courses were increased, critical education courses were not added to the program. Neither were there critical additions in the course contents announced in the course catalogues. Still, the classroom practices in the day to day reality of those courses will be revealed with the observation analysis in Chapter 8.

6.5.3 The History of the FLE Program

Before the foundation of the Department of Foreign Language Education under the Faculty of Education in 1982, there was a Department of Humanities at the

university, which offered elective language, literature and linguistics courses along with history, logic, philosophy and history of science to all undergraduate students, which aimed to "enrich the general culture of the student and to increase his [*sic*] intellectual capacity." (General Catalog, 1981-1983, p.181). The Department of Humanities also had an MA program in English Language Teaching. A great majority of the academic staff teaching at this program were professors of literature and linguistics. After the FLE department was founded by the CoHE, the teaching staff working at the Department of Humanities was given the responsibility to run the new program under the Faculty of Education.

The first FLE program was the one prepared by the Council of Higher Education. That program had an abundance of language courses (there were 30 different English courses including 14 translation courses, 6 grammar courses, 6 composition courses, and 4 spoken English courses). It also included literature, education and linguistics courses (See Table 17, below). However, there was only one English language teaching course and one practice teaching course (General Catalog, 1983-1984). As one emeritus professor (EPA) asserted, this program was found "too poor" by the faculty and it did not last long. The department prepared a new program the following year (1984-1985) in which the number of English language courses was reduced (4 translation courses, 3 grammar courses, 2 reading courses, 2 spoken English courses, 4 composition courses). English teaching methodology courses and practicum courses were still very few (only 2 methodology courses and 1 practicum course). The limited number of ELT methodology courses might not come as a surprise, as the faculty educating teachers were actually specialized in literature and linguistics. The first head of department was also a professor of literature. One emeritus professor of literature (EPC) remembers she had to teach practice teaching, as there was no educationalist in the department in those years.

In the following years, the Council of Higher Education did not intervene much in the curricula of faculties of education, and they were free to change their programs as they wished (EPA). As Table 17 below clearly demonstrates, the program changed almost every year between 1983 and 1999 until the intervention of the CoHE to uniform all teacher education curricula in 1997:

Table 17 The Distribution of Course Components in FLE Programs*

General Catalog Year	Language Courses	ELT Courses	Education Courses	Literature Courses	Linguistics Courses	Practicum Courses
1983-1984	30	1	8	12	8	1
1984-1985	15	2	8	8	6	1
1985-1987	16	2	5	18	4	1
1987-1989	21	1	5	9	4	1
1990-1992	22	1	5	9	4	1
1992-1994	24	2	5	9	2	1
1995-1997	14	3	6	8	2	1
1997-1999	14	3	6	8	2	1
1999-2001	14	6	7	8	5	3
2001-2003	14	6	7	8	5	3
2003-2005	14	6	7	8	5	3
2005-2007	14	6	7	8	5	3
2007-2009	9+3	8	7	5	5	2
2009-2011	9+3	8	7	5	5	2
2011-2013	9+3	8	7	5	5	2
2013-2015	9+3	8	7	5	5	2

* Data gathered from General Catalogs of the university between 1982 and 2015.

As most of the faculty in the department specialized in literature, there was an extra weight in literature courses in the early programs. In the program of 1985-1987, there were 18 literature courses in the curriculum. The first chair of department (EPA) believed that a language was best learnt through its culture; and literature is the greatest source for gaining access to the culture of a language. Another emeritus professor of literature (EPD), who was among the faculty in the foundation years, thought literature courses enabled four skills to be taught in an integrated manner. Besides, they believed that "literature courses allow students to have a broader worldview, as students have to think about the reasons behind the characters' acts" (EPC). The early programs also included a large number of language courses as the faculty aimed to provide teacher candidates with a good mastery of English in addition to a good knowledge of English literature. The programs introduced later decreased the number of literature courses. What stayed the same over the years was the very limited focus on the pedagogy of teaching English until the intervention of the CoHE in 1997. On the other hand, the linguistics courses started to increase after

1997 though the number of those courses in the CoHE program was not as many as that of the FLE program. This could be linked to the changing nature of the specialization of the faculty at the department.

Despite the fact that the number of courses in the education component of the program was increased after the CoHE program of 1997, there was a dramatic change in the characteristics of the education courses offered in the program after 1997. As Table 18 below displays, teacher candidates were provided with a more holistic perspective into the field of education in the early years with foundational courses like educational sociology and curriculum and development. However, after the curriculum renewal of 1997, these courses were removed from the program leaving their place to classroom management. This shift from a holistic view of education to a restricted understanding of education is indicative of the changing roles accorded to teachers. While the earlier program included courses which would give a deeper understanding of the student behaviors locating them in a social sphere, the later programs omitted those courses and reduced education to a matter of behavior management. The teachers educated in the earlier programs were also given courses to provide them with the basic knowledge about the development of curriculum. However, teacher candidates educated after the curriculum renewal of 1997 were not expected to have such skills as they would be provided with a readymade curriculum top-down.

The historical survey of the FLE programs demonstrates that these programs were implemented under the shadow of the CoHE by the faculty working at the department. Though the relative weight of the influence of the CoHE on the programs changed over the years, it is apparent from the fluctuation of the number of courses in different components that the FLE programs also carried the impact of the specialization areas of the faculty teaching at the program. When the majority of the academic staff was composed of professors of literature, the literature component of the program had the larger number of courses. When the linguistics professors increased in number, so did the number of linguistics courses. However, the fate of methodology and education courses was mostly left to the intervention of the CoHE. Yet, there were also cuts by the FLE program in the number of these courses suggested by the CoHE to the advantage of literature and linguistics courses.

Table 18 The Distribution of Education Courses in FLE Programs*

General Catalog Year	Intro to Educat.	Educat. Sociology	Educat. Psychol.	Curric. Develop.	Measurment and Evaluat.	Educat Technol.	Guidance and Counsel.	Educat al Administ.	Commun. Service	Classro. Manag.
1983-1984	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-
1984-1985	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-
1985-1987	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
1987-1989	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
1990-1992	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
1992-1994	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
1995-1997	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-
1997-1999	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-
1999-2001	+	-	+	-	+	++	+	-	-	+
2001-2003	+	-	+	-	+	++	+	-	-	+
2003-2005	+	-	+	-	+	++	+	-	-	+
2005-2007	+	-	+	-	+	++	+	-	-	+
2007-2009	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+
2009-2011	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+
2011-2013	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+
2013-2015	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+

* Data gathered from General Catalogs of the university between 1982 and 2015. (The signs used in the table represent the following: + one course available , ++ two courses available, - no course available)

6.6 Summary of Document Analysis

The analysis of documents for teacher roles conveyed by different institutions indicated that there are conflicting messages given by various institutions influential in teacher education. The table below will provide a summary of findings:

Table 19 Summary of Document Analysis

Institutions		Teacher Roles
CoHE Documents	2007 Program Aims	Reflective practitioner
	2007 Curriculum	Passive technician
	National Qualifications Framework Targets (2010)	Transformative intellectual
MoNE Documents		Reflective practitioner
University Documents		Transformative intellectual
Faculty of Education Documents		Passive technician
FLE Documents	Program Aims and Outcomes	Reflective practitioner
	FLE Curriculum	Passive technician

As is seen from the above table, while the Council of Higher Education openly stated that it aimed to educate "problem-solving intellectual teachers," the Ministry of Education defined an ideal teacher as a learning-teacher who would continuously be involved in professional development. Though one could argue that the type of teacher both institutions wanted to educate is a reflective teacher, the medium they used, namely the CoHE program of 2007, to reach their aims did not have the diversity of courses or course contents to equip teacher candidates with the necessary knowledge base to become intellectual teachers. In fact, the documents of the CoHE are contradicting each other because the type of a university graduate aimed to be educated by the CoHE is not in line with the teacher type it targets or the curricula it offers.

Similar contradictory statements could be found in the university documents, as well. Although the university documents declared that their students and graduates share the spirit of idealism or revolutionism and the university aims to create change agents, the common program outcomes prepared by the university does not underline the mission of changing the world as described in the university manifesto. The faculty of education documents do not seem to comply with the broader goals of the university, either, since the ideal teacher candidate is assigned a passive role in

implementing scientific developments to their practices in these documents. In fact, the very non-existence of a clear statement on the teachers to be educated in the faculty of education documents seems to reveal the lack of a certain direction in the school.

As for the Foreign Language Education program documents, they refrained from describing a type of teacher educated in the program. Yet, the latest document expressing the aims and outcomes of the program implied a reflective teacher who is able to make informed decisions according to the demands of the context and who engages in professional development. Still, it is quite unclear whether the current composition of courses and course contents inherited from the CoHE program and modified by the FLE program will lead teacher candidates to assume those roles. Because the FLE program was not able to transcend the technicist orientation of the CoHE program at least on paper, it might be difficult to reach those aims of educating reflective practitioners.

In summary, the document analysis in this case study demonstrated that there are conflicting messages in the documents of different institutions. Even different documents of the same institution imply differing goals. When institutions describe their goals, it is quite clear that they claim to educate reflective practitioners or transformative intellectuals. However, the teacher education programs offered or used by the same institutions do not seem to fit in very well with this aim. The following chapter will indicate the views of student teachers, teacher educators, emeritus professors and program administrators as to the teacher roles fostered in the FLE program.

CHAPTER 7

INTERVIEW ANALYSIS

Having analyzed the documents for the teacher roles they convey and having thus provided the answer of the first research question of the study, it is now necessary to explore the participant views about the teacher roles. This chapter will present the findings gathered from in-depth interviews with students, teacher educators, emeritus professors and program administrators and will give an answer to the following research question of the study:

2.a) What are student, teacher educator and program administrator views about the teacher roles the FLE program fosters?

In this chapter, a synthesis of the responses of different groups of participants will be provided in a thematic order so as to give the reader a grasp of viewpoints of different parties on a particular topic. To link the history of the FLE program presented in document analysis with the narratives of emeritus professors on how that curricular change took place, first stories told by the emeritus professors will be shared. Thereafter, aims of the program as perceived by the interview participants will be surveyed to see if they match with the findings gained from the document analysis. After that, ideas of the participants on the characteristics of the teacher prepared in the program will be presented. Finally, the roles teacher educators assume will be discussed.

7.1 The Story of Change in the FLE Program

Because the historical background of a program has a great influence on the current shape that a program has taken, four emeritus professors still offering courses in the department were consulted for their views on the evolution of the FLE programs. As the review of documents indicated, FLE program changed many times

in the last three decades. According to the emeritus professors, the curricular change in the program was not systematic. In the words of an emeritus professor who has taught in the program since its foundation (EPB):

We weren't happy with the CoHE program. If you ask me why, it is difficult to answer that question. We didn't do anything to analyze or correct the problems. No needs analysis or anything like that. The department never conducted a systematic study on curriculum development. The program was prepared according to the faculty profile. Depending on the experience or interests of the faculty, we decided to include a composition or a literature course. The professors of literature wanted to have a larger number of literature courses while the professors of linguistics tried to have as many linguistics courses as possible. We never sat down and worked on a program to educate the ideal teacher we had in mind, if any.

While these changes were being made, one emeritus professor (EPC) said, the composition of the department started to change, as well. Both the student body and the profile of the teaching staff changed. On the one hand, graduates of English Language Teaching programs started to be hired as full-time faculty to teach at the program. On the other hand, student profile began to become more and more homogenous. In the early years of the program, EPD asserted, there was a heterogeneous student body coming from different types of high schools from various parts of Turkey as opposed to the homogenous student profile today almost all of whom are coming from teacher training high schools. As EPC remembered, the number of students admitted to the program was around 20 at the beginning. After four years of operation, the number of students increased steadily. At one time, EPC said, when the department was preparing to reduce the number of students admitted to the undergraduate program, the CoHE increased the number of students allocated to this department from 70 to 100 without asking for the opinions of the department or the university administration.

In fact, the interventions of the CoHE on the program were a major issue which emerged a couple of times during the interviews with the emeritus professors. They frequently talked about "the pressure" of the CoHE or how they felt "scared" of the CoHE. EPB stated that the experience or expertise of the academic staff had no value in the eyes of the CoHE. He remembers the last program implemented before

the CoHE intervention in 1997 was a good one, "but it was sent to the rubbish bin." He also stated that he found it hard to understand why the CoHE threw away those courses like educational sociology once introduced by the Council itself. In a similar vein, EPD noted that they never composed a mission or a vision of the department themselves. It was always shaped by the CoHE.

The department was founded on the philosophy of the CoHE. We were never consulted. We were excluded from the process. We just had to implement the curriculum imposed on us top-down (EPD).

The feelings of discontent with the CoHE's manipulation of the program in the above quotation were shared by EPC, as well, who noted that the mission of the CoHE was to implement the policies of the governments.

The policy of the government today is to educate people who do not think. They want to bring up a religious generation who follows orders without thinking. That is what they want. The Council of Higher Education is an agent of the government. These policies are not new. That has been the case for many years. But the situation is getting worse today. We can oppose the practices of the CoHE in a covert manner, though. It is possible. In the past, we could not find the courage to change the course names, so we used to change the course contents (EPC).

The physical position and status of the department of foreign language education were not immune to the constant change in the program. While the programs and the student profile admitted to the program changed, the status of the program also regressed over the years, as two emeritus professors (EPC and EPD) indicated regretfully. For one thing, as EPD indicated, the physical isolation of the department from the rest of the campus was crucial in this process:

Students felt excluded from the university as the department moved to a remote part of the campus too far from the library or the center. We were given the status of a vocational higher school within the building of the vocational higher school (EPD).

As mentioned by EPD in the above quotation, after the Faculty of Education was founded, the department of FLE was moved from the Department of Humanities,

which was in the very center of the campus, to the building of the Faculty of Education constructed at a distant part of the campus. Sometime later, that building could not meet the needs of the growing departments because the CoHE opened new programs and increased the number of students admitted without consulting universities. Therefore, the Faculty of Education had to look for alternatives to solve the problem. The faculty administration learnt that vocational higher school would move out. Thus, those departments which were willing to move out left the main faculty building and moved to those buildings which were even further from the centre of the campus. The department of FLE was one of those departments who wanted to move thinking that the vocational higher school was going to leave the building soon. However, the vocational higher school never moved out. The department of FLE ended up at an isolated part of the campus sharing the same building with the vocational higher school. Unfortunately, EPD said, this physical isolation brought intellectual isolation from broader educational goals. EPD thought that the department is perceived like a vocational higher school which trains practitioners who do not think critically. Likewise, EPC believed the program should educate students who think about why they take these courses and why they learn a specific subject matter:

Students should be encouraged to think critically rather than just being told how to teach. I am utterly serious about this. It is really sad to see that we are training such students (EPC).

EPD and EPC were not alone in their ideas about the need to foster critical thinking among teacher candidates. EPA and EPB also agreed. For instance, EPA mentioned the impact of consumer society on the new generation of students who are used to reaching everything readymade without any effort. She noted that they should be encouraged to read and to think. On the other hand, EPB stated that our world needs people who are able to think more than people who can speak English. Therefore, he stressed the importance of developing critical thinking and reading skills in teacher candidates, who should be knowledgeable on social and political issues.

The deep concern of the emeritus professors for the negative transformation of the program from educating thoughtful teachers to training teachers who are told

how to teach might be indicative of the transformation of teachers educated in the program. They thought that this is the result of the CoHE's interventions on the faculties of education from their manipulation of the curriculum to the increase in the number of students enrolled in the program by the CoHE. Another reason was the changing nature of the student profile with the extra points accorded to graduates of teacher training high schools. They also believed that the university administration had a role to play in this transformation by physically marginalizing the department founded by the CoHE. Another factor raised by EPA and EPB in this transformation was the lack of agreement among the faculty on the distribution of courses across different components of the program.

7.2 The Aims of the Program

The lack of agreement on the components of the program among the faculty was partly because of diverse fields of specialization of the faculty (i.e. literature, linguistics, language teaching, and teacher education). Though the program description asserted that the multiplicity of perspectives in the program was an asset (see Section 6.5.1), these varying viewpoints seem to have led to a lack of common purpose in the program, which was a common theme in the interviews. One emeritus professor (EPB) questioned the existence of a shared understanding among the teaching staff:

I can't see a common purpose among the faculty, not even educating a good teacher of English. What is our primary function? If you ask that question, I don't think most people think that that's our function. The program was made according to the profile of academic staff. Our program was never based on a curricular study. We never designed the program according to the ideal teacher type we had in mind (EPB) [underlined parts uttered originally in English].

Like EPB, a novice teacher educator (TEG) expressed her concern about the situation when asked what kind of a teacher is educated in the program:

Do you think we are thinking of that? There is no such concept in the department. We don't sit down and ask ourselves the type of teacher we are educating. There are courses here and there ... there is this department ... and things are going somehow ... there is no systematic order or a

coherent body. I think this key question was never considered: What kind of a teacher are we educating? Are we educating a teacher? I don't know... (TEG)

This pessimistic view about the lack of direction in the program is widespread among the program faculty. One teacher educator (TEC) believes this lack of a shared understanding is due to the diverse backgrounds and philosophies of the teaching staff working at the program, who are far from reaching a consensus on several issues. She admitted that the program has a problem not having a kind of checklist on the characteristics of the teachers to be educated in the program. Reminiscent of what the emeritus professors said about the lack of systematic curriculum development in the department, another teacher educator (TED) stated that the program is shaped according to the faculty profile; it is not developed based on a mission or a philosophy. For her, there is no room for the program to develop a philosophy anyway, as the Council of Higher Education does not permit departments to have one.

In fact, when they were asked a question about the mission of the program, most of the teacher educators laughed including the program administrators to imply there is no concrete mission of the program. Still, they tried to express the covert target of the program as they interpreted it after hesitating for a while. One teacher educator (TEB) first stated that there is no mission of the program and if there is, she is not aware of that. Then she said she should not be that pessimistic, and asserted that the mission of the program is to educate teachers. Yet, she thought the academic staff served their own interests rather than being concerned about the aims of the program.

As for the program administrators, rather than expressing the institutional view, they asserted the mission of the program they thought the program had, as seen in the quotation below:

Rather than giving an institutional response to that question, I could give my personal opinion on the issue. Our mission is to focus on the institutional good, which is based on quality management. As for our philosophy of teacher education, I think we have the philosophy of educating qualified, competent teachers equipped with necessary knowledge, skills and competencies to work in any kind of context with

love and passion. This philosophy is valid both for our FLE program and the rest of the faculty of education (PA2).

As the above quote demonstrates, the program administrator (PA2) underlines the fact that she thinks the program aims to educate professional teachers who have the necessary knowledge base and willingness to work at diverse contexts. Yet, when asked if all professors share this philosophy, she (PA2) responds: "Unfortunately, not. Some faculty has different priorities. Some give more importance to their academic studies than educating teachers." Other program administrators also conveyed their ideas about the program goals in similar terms:

The mission of our program is to educate teachers who are able to use their reasoning skills and creativity. They should know how to conduct research. We would like to educate teachers who also have background knowledge in literature and linguistics in addition to their educational knowledge base in educational philosophy and psychology. They should be up-to-date teachers who are competent in using technology. They should be caring for the needs of the society, and respectful for different ideas. They should prioritize inquiry to everything else. They should be aware of the fact that every individual is unique and has different needs and learning styles (PA3).

As seen in the above quote, PA3 described a creative reflective teacher who takes into account the needs of the students and respects different ideas. In a similar vein, PA1 made reference to a pluralistic atmosphere in the class, as seen below:

The real mission of the program is to educate teachers that are able to teach English in the classroom setting. Most importantly, we should educate teachers who have a sound knowledge base in teaching methodology. Our graduates should be able to go beyond grammar translation and have an eclectic approach. They should perceive students as individuals and respect their autonomy. They should be student-centered and teach learning to learn. They should respect the pluralistic atmosphere in the classroom. They should not only teach English, but also contribute to their students' intellectual formation. But if we only educate intellectuals who are able to think critically and who are able to perceive the realities of Turkey but ignore their teaching skills, it is also a problem... First of all, they should be good teachers. If we think there is a problem in their teaching skills, we should try to improve them. Sometimes I try to bring these issues to the departmental meetings but I can't get enough reaction (PA1).

The quotations above demonstrate the ideal teacher the program administrators would like to educate while also referring to the problems in practice. PA1 used the word "intellectual" for the teachers to be educated and also mentioned that the graduates should be able to direct the educational policies of the country. Though the statement of three program administrators had many common points, they were not identical naturally because they were expressing the goals they thought the program had instead of stating the institutional goals. Despite the fact that the FLE program outcomes presented above (in 6.5.1) were written collaboratively with the participation of all teaching staff, apparently they remained on paper, but not internalized by the program faculty. This was probably because the statement of program aims and outcomes was prepared out of a bureaucratic necessity imposed by the university administration top-down.

Ironically, the responses of the faculty about the program not having a clear aim were echoed by the students. When they were asked about the mission of the program, one student explicitly asserted that the program had no clear projection for its purposes similar to what some emeritus professors and teacher educators expressed. The following lines from the interview transcripts indicate the student was able to read the confusion in the program:

I think the department has something missing in its mission. It is not clear what they are trying to do. It is established to educate teachers of English. So should it follow a linguistic or an educational path? If the purpose is to educate teachers, there should be some limitation in literature and linguistics courses. What I mean by limitation, they should be thinking how to implement these in language teaching... But if they think that they are not educating teachers, but doing some linguistic stuff here, then this program is good, and could even be better ... Some professors think we are going to be teachers. The others say "no, you have other alternatives." We get confused ... The vision of the department is blurred. We don't know what the department is trying to do ... I think the program administrators should sit down and make a radical decision about the aim of the program because the course range is neither enough to educate teachers, nor satisfactory for linguists (S5).

When the fact that the student quoted above (S5) wanted to pursue a career in linguistics is taken into consideration, his remarks gain more significance. Other

students also talked about the same phenomenon, but some of them took it as an advantage as they thought the program provided different career options to students. The following quote displays the ideas of another student (S6) who also wanted to have an academic career:

What strikes me as interesting in the program in general is the fact that it is not directed towards educating teachers for public schools. It gives you a chance to have graduate studies in other fields of study including literature and linguistics. This is what I like best about this program when I compare it with other programs at different universities which focus only on educating teachers of English (S6).

Though some students like S6 quoted above took the variety of courses at the program as an advantage for those who wanted to follow other options than becoming a teacher, the students who wanted to become public school teachers did not agree, as seen in the quotation below:

I believe we are oriented towards academic studies under the name of English language teaching. I think those literature courses are too many, perhaps because I don't like those courses. But I'm going to be a teacher of English at a public school. What I am going to do with the knowledge I received in literature courses in those schools? I know they are beneficial, but only to a certain extent. It is the same for the linguistics courses. They are not that necessary for those who would like to teach at public schools. OK, it is important to have some knowledge in these, but their benefit is limited (S4).

The student quoted above (among many others) believed that the program's focus on the academic studies to the neglect of practical real-life teaching skills was a disadvantage for those students who wanted to work at public schools. At first sight, one might think that these students have a narrow perspective into public school teaching because they do not seem to attribute much sense to deepening their intellectual knowledge. However, upon close analysis, one might interpret what these students meant to say. When S4 stated that "their benefit is limited," this student and many other students who expressed similar views might have been prioritizing the courses according to their needs as teacher candidates. They might have implied that

they needed educational courses much more than a great many literature courses because for addressing diverse needs of students at public schools, they needed a different source of knowledge.

For some students, the academic footing of the program was an advantage to be implemented only at university settings, as seen below:

I think the department has a thing to direct us towards becoming an academic. We have literature and linguistics courses which we enjoy a lot, but how can I make use of what I learn in these courses if I teach at a state school? I believe the place where I can do justice to what I have learnt here is the university setting being an instructor of English. When we go teach at a public school, it is not certain how we can put what we learn here into practice (S1 - aims to pursue graduate studies).

As seen from the above excerpts (from S4 and S1) representing many other student voices, many students believed their studies at the program directed them to work at higher education institutions. It is apparent from the quotations above that these students thought they could only make use of what they learn in the program only at such institutions. They do not believe the content of some of the highly theoretical courses they take would help them as a public school teacher. While this might indeed indicate a restricted understanding of public school teaching, it might also be referring to the reality of teaching to the standardized tests at public schools.

As a matter of fact, many students stated that there were too many must courses on literature and linguistics which presented a far too advanced knowledge of these fields. They believed that those courses offering an advanced knowledge of a special field of study should be offered as elective courses for those who would like to expand their knowledge in those areas. As the following vignette shows, they were in the view that only foundational courses should be given as must courses in literature and linguistics:

To be honest, I think literature and linguistics courses are helpful in developing yourself. But they could be offered as elective courses for those who do not want to take them (S7 - aims to become a scholar).

As can be seen from the above excerpts (belonging to S1, S4 and S7), many students agreed that a basic knowledge of literature and linguistics is crucial for their personal

and professional development though they had conflicting ideas about the number of linguistics and literature courses offered in the program. On the other hand, some students perceived such courses as a privilege:

I believe what makes us different from graduates of other universities is perhaps these courses [meaning literature and linguistics]. I always thought these courses are unnecessary. I hated these courses until very recently. But now I realize this is what makes me different, versatile. There are no other teacher candidates in Turkey more qualified than us, which makes us superior (S8 - aims to work as a private school teacher)

Reflecting the competitive culture of the time, this student (S8) as well as S2 considered themselves and their peers at the program as "superior" rather than problematizing the fact that their privilege is at the cost of other teacher candidates' deprivation. This remark is actually an unconscious reflection of these students' internalization of the operation of the system assigning different roles to students educated at different institutions. Another student (S11) expressed that they felt lucky because there were different job prospects for the graduates of this particular program such as becoming scholars, linguists, or translators, not restricted to becoming teachers or instructors. This idea seems to reveal the underlying thought patterns of these students. They are happy not being restricted to doing the profession of teaching, which has a lower prestige in the society.

Apart from an orientation towards academic studies, most students stated the program prepared them for private schools rather than for public schools, as seen from the excerpts below:

I think the program pushes us towards private schools which have great facilities. We learn how to teach with those facilities. If there is no projector in the classroom, we don't know what to do (S9 - aims to follow a different career other than teaching because she doesn't like teaching).

The remark of S9 above concerning their inability to teach without using technology was shared by all student participants of the study. They emphasized that they know what to do under ideal conditions of a private institution or a higher education institution. They stated that they did not know how to teach if they had to teach using

limited resources especially at public schools situated in the disadvantaged neighborhoods, or at vocational high schools. The following vignette might give a clue about the reasons for the gap between the program's focus on idealistic conditions and the student teachers' concerns:

Here we are educated to teach the children of upper level families. We assume that every student or teacher candidate has a computer or a laptop. For the teacher, it could be difficult to prepare materials based on technology unless she owns it herself. The school might not have technological tools. While making lesson plans, we take into consideration the possibility that computers might not work, but we never assume that there is no computer (S11 - aims to work as a public school teacher, but doesn't consider herself competent enough).

The voice of S11 is quite remarkable, as she reminds the reader the possibility of students, student teachers or classes not having access to computer technologies. In fact, until I heard S11's remarks, I think I had never thought about the possibility that some student teachers enrolled in the program might have not possessed a personal computer. This sort of unconscious assumptions about student teachers and their possible workplaces in our minds as teacher-educators might have had a role to play in the participants' remarks about the orientation of the program towards directing students to work at private schools. The stated overemphasis on private schools or highly selective public schools might also have to do with the teacher educator profile in the department. Among the participants of the study, only one teacher educator other than me had experience teaching at public schools, which might have resulted in the fact that most examples we give as teacher educators come from private schools, university settings or highly selective public schools. Yet, this common perception of participating students might have other roots than our tacit beliefs, as indicated by the student's comments below:

In our department, there is this notion that it is just as if all graduates of the department will become teachers in private schools. The public school teachers are looked down on. OK, there are many problems in public schools, and they have limited professional knowledge when compared to private school teachers. But we don't have to belittle them (S10 - looks forward to working as a public school teacher).

The perception of S10 was shared by other students. Some of them were also unhappy about the negative attitude towards public schools. I also observed that even student teachers themselves think that teaching at public schools is not prestigious enough. This might also be related to public opinion about the inefficiency of state schools and their teachers. Student 25's views are a case in point:

Even the name of the university or the views of people around us have an impact on us. Our friends or our family ... they can't even imagine studying here ... this affects us ... the pride of being a student here ... These things direct us to work at private schools or higher institutions like universities rather than in state schools. I think this does not have anything to do with the program or the department, but it is related to the university (S25 - aims to work at a private school).

As is seen, S25 links the situation to the expectations of the society from them, as graduates of a highly prestigious public university. For him, it is the general order of things which leads them to prestigious institutions instead of the program itself.

Another factor might be the fact that teachers educated at prestigious universities would only find themselves at ease at similar prestigious schools. Some students like S26 think that they might face resistance and exclusion at public schools, as they will teach in a different manner:

Our methods are different. Therefore, there might be exclusion in public schools. I studied at public schools and I know the system there. If I try to teach in the way we learnt at this university, I will most probably be excluded. That is why I am planning to work at a private school or become an instructor at a higher institution, since universities have more freedom. The graduate of this university means a free-thinking individual. I know that I am talking like the university commercial (laughs). I believe that is the reason why we are directed into becoming university instructors (S26).

As the excerpts above imply, some students like S25 and S26 felt that it is the system which led them to believe they deserve better work conditions than their peers who seem to accept their lower positions in society. Having acquired top scores in the university entrance exam and having been selected to one of the best universities of the country, they are directed to believe that their place is a prestigious institution.

This common notion among students is also stated by a program administrator (PA1) in the following lines in relation to the mission of the university:

I don't know if our students can go and work at a remote village school on the outskirts of a mountain. Our students are students who have always been successful and who set high targets for themselves. Of course, they should go and teach at those schools. But if that happens, they may overreact or they may think that it is not fair. If we question whether or not we teach them survival skills to go and teach at a remote area, I don't think we do. Should we teach them those skills? It's another big issue. That might be in conflict with the mission this university set for itself. In fact, the mission of this university determines the career aims our students assume. They are told that they are going to be researchers and they are going to work at institutionalized places. So I don't think it is realistic to say that they will be able to work at villages. They don't even go to small towns any more. Even if they go, they just resign after some time. It is not about language teaching, it's about their worldviews (PA1).

As is seen from the above quote and the remarks of above quoted students, the function given to this prestigious public university in the general division of labor among higher education institutions seems to be to educate a qualified workforce to be employed in the top institutions of the country. Yet, one student admitted the risks of overestimating the prestige of the university, as is seen from the student voice below:

Everybody knows that the logo of the university gives us an extra benefit. We are the students of such a good university. Sometimes we don't want to do some things that we need to do thinking that we are already superior. But our fellows in small cities might be working harder than us. The logo of the university is hindering us. We assume we are good anyway (S8).

Acknowledging the risks borne by overestimating oneself, this student (S8) recognizes the importance of an honest self-evaluation. As the quote above demonstrates, the conscious or unconscious categorization of the university as an prestigious one might be a trap for students to develop feelings of "superiority" disguising the unjust system of education. Paradoxically, although private institutions are constructed as prestigious institutions, their work conditions are usually worse

than those at public schools. Public school teachers usually have more benefits (lifelong job security, longer breaks, more free time, and the right to unionize) than private school teachers. On the other hand, despite the perceived or constructed hierarchy between higher education institutions and elementary and secondary schools, the work conditions and salaries do not seem to be radically different for university instructors, as long as they do not assume higher academic positions.

One other reason behind the emphasis on teaching at prestigious institutions might be related to the fact that the profession of teaching started to be devalued compared to the value of an instructor or an academic in the hierarchy of professions. The following excerpt from a teacher educator's report might give a hint into this common perception amongst students:

Some of our students have a wrong attitude like "I am a graduate of such a prestigious university. I shouldn't become a teacher of English." It is about the status of the teaching profession. We need to underline the fact that teaching is a respectable job (TEA).

In fact, some teacher educators (TEB, TEF) complained that this lack of respect for the profession of teaching is disseminated by some staff teaching at the department, as the following lines suggest:

I regret to say that the profession of teaching is scolded or mocked by some professors in this department. Our students come to this department to become teachers of English. When the profession of teaching is looked down on, students get confused ... If you scold this profession, you educate unhappy teachers, which would have a negative impact on their students and on the teaching of English in general (TED).

Such belittling view of teaching the teacher educator (TED) reported above as existent among the faculty in the program supports the view that the program does not have a common purpose of educating teachers. Teaching seems to be regarded not as respectful as being an academic, as another teacher educator stressed below:

In recent years, our department has an increasing focus on research. I have heard some professors say things like "You are a graduate of this department, and you shouldn't waste your energy on teaching English.

You should become a linguist." Is it something bad to be a teacher?
(TEE)

As is seen from the vignettes above, the notion of a disregard for the teaching profession seems to exist among the education faculty.

In summary, analysis of the interview data clustered around the theme of aims of the program demonstrated that the program does not seem to have a clear mission. The reports of interview participants showed that there is not even a common ground on the main function of the program to educate teachers or academics, which might have to do with the nature of the university. Working at a research university, some faculty might be according a higher significance to educating scholars than teachers. Students seem to get their share from the confusion of the program. Studying at a prestigious public university, many of them hesitate to work at non-prestigious institutions as teachers because they are well aware that they are educated to teach at top institutions, not equipped to address the diverse needs of students at non-elite schools. This finding is actually at odds with the aim of the program declared on the official documents to educate teachers to work at various levels and contexts.

7.3 The Characteristics of the Teacher Educated by the FLE Program

Participants were asked to describe the characteristics of teachers educated by the FLE program. Their answers had a rich variety, which is why the findings will be categorized under four sub-headings.

7.3.1 An Active Reflective Teacher

When asked about the characteristics of teachers educated in the program, many students defined an "active", "versatile" and "idealist" teacher placing the emphasis on the language teaching methodologies they used in teaching English:

I think we are trying to destroy the myth of an English teacher who teaches grammar in a boring way. Our instructors are teaching us how to attract the attention of students and how to teach without forcing or boring the students. In the micro-teachings, professors say that this might bore the students or they may not understand it (S7).

The statement of the above student which is shared by all participant students reveals that the program is oriented towards educating a teacher of English who tries to engage students to learning English in a meaningful manner. The remarks of another student (S19) below, which were expressed by other interview participants, indicate that a student-centered communicative way of teaching English is preferred in the program:

While we are making lesson plans, we always try to make something different instead of a true-false or a fill-in-the-blanks activity. We use methods not very many people know. We try to activate students. We have student-centered teaching and use a great deal of group and pair work and games (S19).

The vignette above displays the distance of the program from the traditional way of teaching English. The stress on using the target language and encouraging student teachers' creativity in making lesson plans is revealed in the following quotation below:

We are braver. We don't have a fear that students won't understand if we speak English. We say they will begin to understand eventually. We like dynamic lessons. Nobody wants to have a standard lesson (S20).

The quotation above shows that the program encourages students to prepare creative interesting lessons, which might be interpreted as the inclination of the program to direct student teachers to move beyond what is prescribed in textbooks by using their creativity. In addition to encouraging students to prepare dynamic lessons, some students reported that the program also develops their analytical thinking skills, as seen from the excerpt below:

Our analytical skills are developed seriously. It is the same in all sorts of courses. Our professors want us to think on everything. Free thinking, reflecting on some things, analyzing ... these are very important for a teacher. I think we will be doing the same thing, encouraging our students to think, because this is what we have seen here (S2).

The above statements indicate the reflective focus of the program. Another student (S24) stated that they are directed to questioning in the program, which sets them a model for their future career as teachers:

Rather than saying what this is, our instructors ask us why it might be like this. So we are used to thinking the underlying reasons for something. I think we will be leading students to think critically as well, because this is what we have seen here (S24).

Although some students like S2 and S24 noted that they are directed to think and question and I observed in almost all classes that reflection occupied a large part of classroom discussions and assignments, it did not find its way through focused interviews as a concept as much as I expected, perhaps because students were not conceptually aware of the reflection process they went through. Some students, however, talked about their ability to solve problems as the graduates of this university. They sensed that the university spirit equipped them with the self-confidence to deal with challenging situations.

On the other hand, a large number of students stated the self-reflective transformative moments they experienced in the program when they talked about some insights they gained through assigned readings or class discussions. Some students stated that they have changed their worldviews, especially with the help of the literary works they read and discussed in literature courses, as the quotation below suggests:

If we consider the literature courses, they contribute a great deal to the personal development of students. My worldview is changing, which might be the reason behind the existence of these courses in the program. Before and after the literature courses, my understanding of people has totally changed. These courses helped me see people from a different angle. Before I came to this university, I was more religious. When I looked at people, I used to see different things. I learnt to set people free in my own mind (S10) [underlined parts uttered originally in English].

It is seen from the above statement that the student quoted above had transformed some of her beliefs with the help of the literary readings. She also made the

connection of the insights she gained with teaching. She stated that as a teacher she would not allow LGBT students to be bullied remembering the indifference her teachers had when she was at high school. This student (S10) was not alone reporting such a transformation with the influence of some courses she took in the program, as the quote below displays:

Because I come from a more conservative place, I used to think that everybody must be like me. You think that all other ways of life would be wrong. But now we read something about homosexuality almost in every literary work we read or we see things about the psychology of people, about their paralyzed conditions. This broadens your horizons and you come to realize people do not have to be the same (S8).

In a similar vein, S8 indicated that her worldview became broadened. She also thought that she would approach her students recognizing the differences they had because she learnt to respect difference in this university. There were other students who expressed similar views. S27, for instance, talked about how she learnt to think deeply in literature courses while S28 stated he benefited a lot from literature courses, which also had an impact on his life. Likewise, S15 stated she started to understand literature when it was integrated with history and sociology.

Similarly, other students said they learnt to think critically in advanced reading and writing courses, as seen from the student voice below:

Advanced reading and writing courses were like a turning point for us in our freshman year. Those courses supported critical thinking. We had whole class discussions and group discussions before starting to write. We learnt to think. I didn't know much about politics or art when I came here. If our professor talks about sex openly, it is a transformative, revolutionary act (S2).

The student quoted above (S2) stated that the different range of topics they encountered in the freshman reading course together with the class discussions introduced them to a world of critical ideas. Another student (S26) reported that the same course motivated her to do further research about the topics they read, as seen below:

I used to search what we read in our reading pack from different resources. They were about the current topics in the news. You have to think about the daily issues and form your ideas to be able to write original ideas. Otherwise, it is copy and paste, which is disapproved in our department. In that course, the instructor did not impose on us some ideas. She presented an issue and we thought about that (S26).

The quote above demonstrates that some students were exposed to daily issues in the reading courses, which encouraged them to reflect on the current issues. Some students (S19 and S20) also indicated that education courses helped them a great deal in understanding classroom reality and they thought there should be more education courses in the program. Likewise, some students (such as S3, S16, S17, S33, and S34) stated they had deep insights from some instructors in education courses. The following excerpt is a clear description of the impact of the professor on the student (S16):

In educational sciences, there is an instructor who is an activist. She takes senior students to the revolution stadium on the campus to ensure the persistence of the tradition. She finds amazing videos. She shows some parts from movies. They are just like made for the course. When you link them with the course, you become enlightened. It is just perfect. She educates us as transformational leaders. She teaches us the dialogue, communication, motivation and organization at the school setting. There is another professor in educational sciences that had a high inner energy. She awakened the helping person inside me and I started to think about how to help other people (S16).

While the student quoted above was very enthusiastic about those courses, she was highly critical of the departmental courses she took except a few. She emphasized that she did not get much from methodology courses in terms of cognitive development or value adding. Yet, some other students (like S7 and S10) in the focus group interview said they never met such inspiring professors in educational courses. S10 stated that they covered very superficial and non-academic material in those courses. She thought the strategies taught in classroom management course floats on the surface and they should go deeper. S31 stated similar opinions and argued that these classroom management courses are contrived and full of superficial content.

While S16 asserted she did not gain much from methodology courses except a few, some students noted that they changed their perspective about language teaching in some methodology courses, as seen from the excerpt below:

I can say that one third year methodology course was the turning point in my education life. One of the most important things that I learnt from that course is that we teachers have the freedom. In this course I met a lot of different, scholars, terms, studies about ELT which I had not heard of until that time. To confess, until that time I thought that there was nothing worth studying academically in ELT out of ignorance. Until that course, I was not very conscious about what kind of teacher I should be. The consciousness I gained in this course led me to attend different conferences in Turkey. I even presented a paper of my own with a partner in an ELT conference. All of these things broadened my horizons. I know that if I had not taken that course, none of these things would have happened. Also, I believe learning more about ELT affected my success in practice teaching and school experience courses in which we met students in a real classroom because in contrast with other methodology courses, it was quite realistic. Our instructor gave us feedback about whether our lesson plans would work in a real class or not, gave us the independence we needed and wanted us to be creative. So, when we met real students, it was not very difficult (S10).

As the above quotation indicates, some students (such as S10, S30) changed their views about language teaching when they met some academic reading material and given space to demonstrate their creativity.

Returning back to the characteristics of the teacher prepared in the FLE program, the views of a teacher educator is like a summary of what participant students indicated above:

First of all, our student teachers are going to be the graduates of this university. What does it mean? If they benefit from the opportunities on campus, our graduates will have diverse interests and a relatively more flexible worldview. They will seek their rights. There are also some students who have restricted worldviews. I don't know whether they undergo a radical change here, perhaps to a certain extent. As a teacher of English, we try to educate teachers as up-to-date as possible. I think we focus on current issues more than other faculties of education ... In general, I think our graduates will enjoy teaching English, they will take their profession seriously and they will be well-prepared for their lessons. I think they will be way much better than students graduating from other departments of foreign language education (TEE).

As the above quotation displays, the teacher educator (TEE) clearly expresses the type of teacher the program tries to prepare. Though she states that the transformation students will have depends on the students' background, she believes every student will go through a process of change on this campus. This observation of TEE was shared by the student teachers themselves. The larger campus atmosphere full of diversity was influential in changing students' worldviews, as the following lines show:

When we were in our prep year, we were moving past the stands of LGBT almost every day. It was the first time we saw such a thing, a group of people who stood for their identities. On the World Aids Day, they distributed condoms, for instance. We were so surprised to see such a thing then. Now it is quite normal. Seeing such an atmosphere changed us a great deal. We even participated in their parade last year (S12).

Apparently, this student (S12) as well as many others learnt to respect difference by being exposed to diverse people and activities on the campus. As a matter of fact, the issue of LGBT emerged very frequently in the interviews probably because many students (like S36, S13, S1) were able to overcome their prejudices about LGBT, which is still a taboo in Turkish society, after they came to this university campus. There were other students who also shared such views on how they learnt to respect others, as seen from the excerpt below:

I was a judgmental person before the university. I had a great deal of prejudice. This university opened me a new world. It broadened my worldview. It changed my view of other people. It showed me people do not have to be the same (S9).

Quite a lot of students talked about starting to acknowledge difference and accepting people as they are on the university campus, as seen above. Another related theme was having an ease at making friends from among the groups about whom they had previous stereotypical thoughts.

One of my friends told me she used to have stereotypical views about those girls who wore mini-skirts or a lot of make-up. So at first she had had a negative first impression about a classmate who likes wearing mini-skirts... But now those two girls are best friends. She says she finds it quite normal now. In other words, we had many taboos before we came here. But now we respect those people whose ideas we don't share (S26).

Like S26 quoted above, most participant students (like S3, S8, S20) stated that they learnt not to judge other viewpoints. Some students also said they realized their stereotypical views about people from different ethnic groups after they started their studies at this university:

When I first came to university, I had some prejudice, but then I had many Kurdish friends. It was really nice to meet these people in terms of overcoming prejudice (S28).

Likewise, many students (such as S31, S36, and S42) emphasized that they can sit down and discuss any idea on this campus in a free discussion atmosphere. The quotations above indicate the earlier prejudgmental attitude of many students against "the other," which is transformed with the influence of the so-called spirit of the university. Many students strongly believed that the content of the university manifesto (see Chapter 6.3) reflected an existing reality.

7.3.2 A Semi-Qualified Teacher

In spite of the fact that the program aims to educate "idealist" and "competent" English teachers in participant students' words, it is not able to reach its aims according to quite a number of students. For S4, who is a high-achieving junior student aiming to become a public school teacher, the program wants to create an idealist teacher, but they are not at that level. S22, who is a low-achiever, also thinks he is not competent enough to teach at a public school. He thinks this is not his fault because he had to take literature courses even as electives, because he had no other chance. S21's remarks below indicate similar opinions:

The teacher the FLE program prepares is supposed to be competent in all fields. She is able to deal with student problems. She can use new technology. But the program is far from realizing these aims, because

there are five literature courses, but only one classroom management course (S21, who is a low-achiever, does not have a clear aim).

S21 directs attention to the fact that they need more educational courses to address the needs of public school kids. The shortage of educational courses was not the only reason for the students' perceived weaknesses as teacher candidates, though. Many participant students expressed their weaknesses in English, which they thought stemmed partly from the inefficiency of freshman speaking courses, and partly from the limited number of spoken courses in the program. Some of them also stated that they should not expect everything from the program and they should take initiative in improving their English. Still, a great number of participant students agreed that it would be better if the proficiency courses in the program were taught more effectively or the number of these courses was increased.

One senior student (S11) who wanted to be interviewed individually openly admitted that she suffered from feelings of low self-confidence, as seen below:

As many other students in this department, I also have low self-confidence. I am scared of making mistakes, so I don't do anything. When I first came here, it was too difficult for me to see professors speaking English all the time. I normally ask a lot of questions, but as I had to ask questions in English, I couldn't. After some time, I couldn't catch up. I thought of leaving the school. I started to dislike English. It took me a long time to collect myself together. I'm going to graduate soon, but I don't feel myself competent. I just have some grammatical knowledge. A teacher of English not able to speak English ... I didn't do anything to improve myself because I was sick and tired of English. To be a good teacher, you need to read a lot of books, follow the news, etc. It is not enough to know math to be a math teacher. You need to know a lot about life. You need to be very knowledgeable. But I don't read. In the past, I used to read a lot. But this university made me reluctant to read. The courses were too heavy and too intense for me. But many of my friends read and they attend many activities (S11).

The quotation from S11 above demonstrates the level of detachment this student experienced from the program. She obviously had a limited spoken proficiency in English as a freshman student and could not manage to cope with it on her own. My personal impression from the long in-depth interview we had was that the reason behind her failure was not only her limited English skills. Coming from a lower-class

family and not having the cultural capital, the linguistic and cultural skills required from university students (Bourdieu, 1983/2001), she most probably did not know how to play "the game" at the university setting (Grenfell & James, 1998). As discussed in Chapter 3, as a student coming from a disadvantaged background, she was doomed to fail. What is worse, she seemed to blame herself for her failure, which might show that she has been exposed to a sort of "symbolic violence."

The issue of some student teachers lacking enough competence in English was also raised by some participating students who had better spoken and written English skills (such as S31 and S35). They complained that some of their classmates do not work hard enough: they do not even correct their simple grammar or pronunciation mistakes. S31 also stated that they just care for becoming a public school teacher and do not value literature courses which would broaden their horizons. Though these comments may have a point, these students who probably had a higher cultural capital necessary to survive at the university setting seem not to take into account the lack of facilities and opportunities those coming from disadvantaged backgrounds might have had. The unconscious reaction of those privileged students to the disadvantaged others might not come as a surprise when one considers the ideological masking of the inequalities of the system and the dominance of the view that one can overcome his/her disadvantaged position no matter what.

The influence of the cultural capital on student perceptions could be seen in the following student's comments about the homogeneous nature of the student profile in the department:

On Thursdays we go to Spanish courses. After that, we come to the department. So many things change from the Spanish classes to departmental classes: the viewpoints, the aura of the place ... The mindset of people is so different. There everybody speaks out loud, but here people speak with a low voice, they are embarrassed. A friend of mine said the other day that she is trying to *complete* her university education. These people have the notion of getting rid of the university as soon as possible rather than benefiting from this atmosphere and doing their best ... The notice boards of other departments are full of flyers, but we have only academic flyers. People do not even bother to come here to publicize their events thinking that nobody will care. But if there were diversity here, people would start to notice things (S13).

The excerpt taken from student 13 is a good description of the atmosphere in the department. Situated in a remote corner of the campus, the department is mostly isolated from the social and cultural events happening in the center. As the majority of students is coming from small towns and raised in conservative families with lower levels of education, there seems to be quite a number of students unsure of themselves. Their relative lack of self-confidence might be related to their lower cultural capital. This observation is actually validated by Aksu et al. (2010) described in Chapter 5, which indicated that a great many of students studying at faculties of education had limited cultural capital coming from families with low levels of education.

The same phenomenon was described in a different manner by student 38, who referred to the student profile in the department as "a closed passive group of people who do not want to take risks by being open to meeting different people outside or going after different opportunities." Apparently, those students who were more confident in themselves put the blame on the disadvantaged students for not taking enough initiative and showing the courage to get out of their comfort zones. The reason behind these students' concerns with the weaknesses of their peers in the department was probably because they thought their peers had a negative influence on the image of the program on the campus. One student (S31) stated that she hated the "loser" status of the department, which was mocked by the students of different majors on the campus. This was actually a widespread complaint among the participant students (such as S40), who felt vulnerable to the so-called degrading behavior of engineering students towards them. Although they were not able to conceptualize it, the participant students seemed to be reacting to the "symbolic violence" they faced as students of the faculty of education. Because the faculty of education had attracted students from disadvantaged families with the bonus points the graduates of teacher training high schools were granted at the university entrance exams, the faculty had a "bad" image on campus, as reported by the students. This probably stemmed from the fact that a majority of the students of education were not good at playing "the game" as well as the students majoring in other fields. Their way of talking, acting and clothing were different. Internalizing the dominant

ideology of the time in which they were led to believe that everyone had equal chances in getting ahead in life, these privileged university students were not critically evaluating their own attitudes towards their peers.

The views of the above quoted students about the weaknesses of their peers were also largely shared by some teacher educators, as the excerpt below indicates:

The graduates of this department have no distinguishing characteristics. They have some proficiency in English and a limited knowledge of methods. Yes, they accumulate some cultural background living on the university campus and having joined a few student clubs. But in general they are living in small worlds and looking forward to throwing themselves into small, limited spaces when they graduate. They are obsessed with standardized exams like KPSS [a standardized test for teacher candidates to get teaching positions at public schools]. Some of them are able to get admitted to master's programs. Others find positions at private universities, which force them to improve themselves ... This program is just like an intermediary institution for supplying teaching degrees ... Our program does not have a lasting impact on them. The lasting effect on our students comes from their high schools. They come here thinking that they will speak a little English in the classroom and that is going to be it. The main source of their ideas originates from their secondary and high schools. We just give them a degree and send them away. Of course they learn some new things here, but not much (TEC).

The ideas of the above quoted teacher educator (TEC) is reminiscent of the views of Okçabol (2012) quoted earlier (Chapter 4.1.3). In fact, she was not alone in having a pessimistic view of the graduates of the department. A program administrator (PA2) also thought the same. For her, "It is unfortunate to see students do not improve their English much in four years. For the last 15 years or so, I observe that the students enrolled in our program are not open to learning, they do not ask for more." Apparently, these teacher educators believed that the educational background of the students who come from Anatolian teacher training high schools was the main reason behind the weaknesses of these students. In fact, it is actually a well-known fact that the schooling system in Turkey does not prepare students well for university education. Besides, it has been argued widely that teacher training high schools in Turkey are used as a tool for training students with a restricted worldview. Yet, in the

opinion of other teacher educators, these factors were not explanatory enough for the failure of the student teachers, as seen below:

There is a mission of the program, but the question is: do we serve that mission? If it is to speak good English, are we happy with our students' level of English? Let's ask that question to the professors in this department. I'm sure 90 % will say no. That means we couldn't achieve our first mission. The second question: are we happy with our students' teaching skills? I'm pretty sure about 40 % will say no. What about linguistics or literature? We are not happy with their English, we are not happy with their teaching. Then what are they going to teach? Everybody should give a second thought to the question whether we are serving our mission or not. I think the problem with this department is that everybody serves their own interests (TEB).

In the excerpt above, the teacher educator (TEB) agrees with the earlier mentioned opinions that teacher candidates in the program have serious problems in terms of their language proficiency and their teaching skills. Unlike the professors quoted above (TEC and PA2), she accuses the educators for the failure of students and she makes a strong claim about the faculty as serving their own interests rather than contributing to the development of the teacher candidates. Whether or not this is true, it would not be a surprise if FLE professors were not able to dedicate enough time and energy for the education of their students working under heavy workloads and put under pressure to publish.

The perspective of another teacher educator (TEG) concerning the teacher the FLE program educates is as follows:

The teacher we educate is totally a traditional one. It is not even traditional. It is just strange. Totally depending on the student's individual effort, she could be a good teacher. She was a good student, anyway. But our graduate could turn into a teacher who does what is asked from them or someone who doesn't care. There is no consistency. Things don't hold together in the program and this is reflected onto our students. We expect students to connect different components of the program. But they can't do it on their own (TEG).

The remarks of TEG imply that those students who already acquired some cultural and linguistic abilities would benefit from the program whereas those who had

limited skills would not make the most of what the program had to offer, reminiscent of the discussion of cultural capital above. For her, it was the teacher educators' responsibility to help those students who were not able to make the necessary links. Yet, she clearly asserted that she was not blaming anyone, because she said the faculty had too much teaching load when compared to the academic staff in other faculties. What is more, she believed the problem was so complex it did not have a single answer.

For some students, though, the problem stemmed partly from the approach of some teacher educators towards students. They (S10 and S31) asserted that some professors were indifferent to students and they were not approachable. Other students (S9, S18 and S34) claimed that some of their professors insulted them. There were also students who directed attention to the lack of communication among the academic staff, as seen from the following excerpt:

Professors have no ideas about what is happening in other sections or in other courses. They always assume that some things are taught in the other courses. We tell the instructor that we haven't seen the stages of grammar teaching for instance, and she asks how come? (S33)

In fact, as S33 stated, the lack of consistency in different sections of a course was a common theme in student interviews. Many students complained that they did not learn similar things even though they took the same course stating that the quality of the course depended on the instructor. Some of them thought "it was not fair" (S10) while others stated "it violated the equality of opportunity" (S29). The perceived lack of communication among the faculty and the lack of enough dialogue between the faculty and the students could be explained with alienation (see Chapter 3.1.2). Because of the intensification of their workload (Apple & Jungck, 1990), one might argue, the academic staff might have become alienated to their activity (teaching), their product (students) and their peers (colleagues).

As for the lack of resources and the quality of facilities in the department, some students (S1, S12 and S13) were highly critical. They thought that the grey atmosphere in the department, the lack of beautiful objects on the walls, and most importantly the location of the department on the campus were factors that

demotivated them. This complaint was actually common amongst education faculty students, as shown by earlier studies (Eret, 2013; Sarı, Karakuş & Çuhadar, 2014). The participant students believed that if the physical and social atmosphere of the department were different, the learning atmosphere in the department would be totally different. Some of them stated that they should not accept the situation as it is. They also said that they had organized a canteen boycott for protesting the high prices and the lack of concern for hygiene the previous year, but it had not gathered enough response from the majority of students at the department. They thought that the academic staff and the department administration shared the responsibility for the conditions in the department, as expressed in the following quotation by one student (S13):

I believe the instructors are also passive. They don't have the mentality of asking for more. They are happy with what is at hand. They don't have the notion that they deserve better conditions. They just take it for granted. They came to believe that nothing will change (S13)

The outcry of students reported above affected me so deeply that our focus group interview ended in an extended conversation as to what we could do to better the physical and social atmosphere in the department. The end result of this conversation was the formation of a social group consisting of students and instructors. This group founded by the members of this focus group interview has been active for the last one and a half years organizing social gatherings in the department discussing short stories, poems, music videos, movies, or social theories. The group has also organized outdoor activities such as city tours, museum visits, and parties. I also shared these students' demands with the department administration, which immediately took action to adorn the department with a few plants, and pictures. We also placed a bookshelf in the departmental hall where people can share used books. Even though these efforts do not mean a radical change occurring in the social and physical climate of the department, it was an introductory step partly initiated with the influence of the in-depth interviews conducted in this study.

7.3.3 A Single-Size Teacher

According to the interview findings so far, student teachers in the FLE program are prepared to become active reflective teachers, but not all of them have the necessary English language proficiency and/or teaching skills to acquire full competence in teaching depending on their social backgrounds. Though a great majority of student participants had indicated that they were directed to boost their creativity in lesson planning, some students (such as S3, S6, S12) asserted that a single, standard way of teaching was being imposed on student teachers in some methodology courses without taking into consideration the probable needs of students. The following lines express what some student teachers think clearly:

I find the CoHE program very dull. I think they are trying to educate ordinary teachers. They are trying to restrict the way we teach. I should teach it my way, I should put something into teaching from my own. It is just like they are trying to curtail it. Everybody takes the same courses. They are educating a calm, narrow-minded teacher. This teacher should not go beyond certain patterns. Methods and techniques, again and again. In fact, there are various other ways to teach something. But nothing changes. I don't think the program has such an aim to educate independent, creative teachers. There are some teachers and courses aiming at that, but it is not like the whole program has such an aim (S13).

As can be seen from the above quotation, S13 acknowledged that not all courses or teacher educators put barriers on their creativity. However, he said the program did not have a broader goal of educating creative autonomous teachers, either. This claimed tendency of the program to limit student teachers' creativity could be verified by the statements of other students (S12, S15, S17), who said that they were directed to follow a prescribed way of teaching, and they were punished if their plans did not fit in the schema in the instructor's mind. Some of them (S7, S10, S30) also stated that they had thought that language teaching is a restricted, boring area until they took some methodology and practice teaching courses which allowed them to use their creativity and see the classroom reality from a different perspective. There were some students who went so far as to claim that methodology courses "suffocated them" (S14) or they had "existential problems" (S16) in those courses. One factor influential in students' reactions could be the insistence of some teacher

educators about the clothing style student teachers should follow in micro-teachings. Some student teachers (S12, S13, S16) said that the success of their teaching was reduced to the appearance and clothing of the student teacher. They thought that receiving feedback based on one's clothing and hair style did not make sense.

For some students, micro-teachings were overused in some methodology courses in which students spent the whole semester observing each other. One student (S6) remarked: "You can't spend three years making lesson plans. There are many other things to learn." Although a great many of the participant students admitted that writing lesson plans was necessary, they were not happy with the abundance of lesson planning in addition to the strict rules of lesson plan writing in the program. Some students (such as S3, S16 and S17) said they had to write every minute detail in the lesson plans. What is more, many participants believed that the lesson plans they prepared for micro-teachings were too artificial, even utopian for the real life atmosphere. They stated that doing micro-teachings offered little help in developing their teaching skills because they were behaving as if they were teaching their classmates. For them, due to the contrived atmosphere of micro-teachings, they did not learn much. Instead of micro-teachings, they believed they should have more chances for practice teaching. This finding is also in line with those of earlier studies, which indicated that the gap between theory and practice should be bridged through increased practice teaching opportunities (Enginarlar, 1997; Eret, 2013; Sarı, Karakuş & Çuhadar, 2014; Seferoglu, 2006; Şallı-Çopur, 2008).

Another common concern of the participant students was ignoring the classroom realities, as seen from the student voice below:

The program aims to educate a very active teacher who spends a great deal of time and energy on the lesson plan. She will move heaven and earth to teach during the class time. She will use every sort of material in a 40 minute lesson. You need to address all intelligences. It is a teacher model who works in utopian conditions. When we go to schools for practice teaching, we see that this teacher model is not realistic, and we try to find our own methods (S18 - aims to become a public school teacher).

The quotation above shows that there is a mismatch between the ideal dynamic teacher educated in the program and the realities of Turkish classrooms. Some

students (S12 and S20) thought that the problem stemmed from the fact that micro-teaching lesson plans were prepared for idealistic classrooms which would include a small number of attentive, highly motivated students whereas the harsh realities of Turkish public schools were not similar to these scenarios in their minds. Another student teacher noted that they should get ready for the real life conditions earlier, as seen below:

The program is oriented towards more communicative, more inductive methods of teaching English. It is educating an idealist teacher in language teaching. Everything must go well in the class and everything should be as efficient as possible. This is good in terms of targeting the best, but we need to see the reality as well. OK, we should aim for the best, we can learn the most current methods used in the USA, but we should get to know the classroom reality earlier not to get shocked or disappointed. We assume that all students are like private school students in Turkey (S6 - aims to pursue an academic career).

This remark by S6 echoes the earlier student remarks about the purpose of the program to educate teachers for distinguished institutions discussed in this chapter (in Section 7.2). Another revealing comment about the gap between the idealistic teacher educated in the program and the classroom reality can be seen below:

There were such utopian things in our classes that I wanted to tell the professor to come back to the real world. Can I implement them in elementary schools or high schools in Turkey? It's impossible (S9 - aims to follow a different career path).

When I first heard such comments during the interviews, my immediate reaction was that these students were educated in a teacher-centered manner at public schools and they were not able to imagine using communicative language teaching methodologies at public schools. It took me a long time to understand what students might have really meant after I got engaged in deep reflection with their transcripts. They might have been talking about the social and economical conditions at diverse schools of Turkey. One such remark is quoted below:

We stay away from what happens in real life. Yes, what we do is appropriate in theory. But what is happening outside? What are the socioeconomic and psychological conditions of the young people in Turkey? In community service, I went to an isolated area and I was shocked. It is totally different from the times we were students. Or we weren't aware of those kinds of communities when we were students. What we cover in methodology courses are American sources. But how are things going to work out in Turkey? Classroom management becomes more important in those schools. Whatever you do, your students don't care. Lesson plan or other things are secondary. Like Maslow's pyramid, basic needs should come first. We need to motivate those students first. They have no aims in life. Neither work, nor school. Just look at the difference between Science High Schools or Teacher Training High Schools and Vocational Higher Schools. What are we going to do at a vocational higher school? The principal of the school has a stick in his room. This is the situation in Turkey (S5 - aims to follow an academic career).

The last four vignettes above (belong to S18, S6, S9, and S5) among other views stated by other students (S22) demonstrate that there might not be enough attention on the social, economical and cultural realities of the country in the FLE program. Students also stressed that they do not know what to do in remote towns with limited facilities teaching students from different ethnic backgrounds. Student 12 gave an example from a Turkish movie (*İki Dil Bir Bavul [On the Way to School]*) they watched in a literature course. It is a documentary about a novice teacher's experience of teaching at a public school in which almost all students spoke Kurdish as their mother tongue whereas the teacher had no knowledge of Kurdish. She questioned how the methodology courses they took would help them in such a context. Similarly, some other students stated that they might have difficulty working in the slums:

It is really difficult. If we work in the slums, we don't know the living conditions of people living there, for instance. OK, we have an image in our minds, but most probably it is a false image or it has many missing parts. First of all, we will try to understand these people before starting to teach English. We will discover their expectations and living conditions, and then we may teach some things (S20 - aims to become a private school teacher).

As the above lines suggest, some students developed a notion of approaching diverse people from different settings. Actually, they frequently asserted that the program cannot do much about the diverse situations they may find themselves in, as there are many distinct settings and conditions in Turkey. They expect to learn how to approach diverse groups by teaching in those conditions. They think an in-service training would offer more help depending on the demands of the situation.

As for working at public schools with limited facilities in a remote part of Turkey, some students especially from middle class backgrounds (S2, S26) said it would be very hard - even painful - for them to work under such conditions, as they are used to working with technology and enjoying the city life. On the other hand, a great majority of students who stated they grew up in similar conditions (S4, S10, S22, S29, and S43) indicated that they would have no difficulty. Some even stated that they would find it easier to work in small communities where they are needed than working at a private school setting, as people in small towns respect teachers more than those parents sending their children to private schools.

Apart from socially and culturally diverse students, teacher candidates also needed support in addressing students with special needs. Some students (S32, S34) indicated that they felt traumatized when they saw the conditions of disabled students at their special education schools as part of their community service and they did not know how to help them or how to solve their structural problems. More than half of the students expressed an urgent need for a course on educating students with special needs, as seen from the quotations below:

I don't know how to approach students with special needs. We don't get enough training on that. I know only the ways of reaching these people via the student clubs or voluntary organizations. I didn't learn much about this in the courses I took. But the student clubs contributed to me a lot. I have had one such student in practice teaching year this year. As she was not certified for special education, she has to be treated like the other kids. The teacher ends up saying there is nothing to do. There has to be a course. We don't know what to do. We are just approaching the student with our instincts because we weren't educated in this (S38 - aims to become a scholar).

The critical reflections of participant students about their lack of knowledge about teaching students with special needs are crucial in doing justice to the needs of those

students in need. A similar finding was found by Eret (2013), which also showed that student teachers did not know how to address the needs of students with special needs. The lack of attention on the education of special students is particularly significant when the fact that English Language Teacher Competencies introduced by the MoNE has a special item addressing this issue. (see Table 11 in Chapter 6.2).

As the above analysis shows, there seems to be a big gap between the students' perceptions of real life and the imaginary school conditions in the minds of teacher educators. This might be related to the disparity between the social, cultural and educational backgrounds of students and teacher educators. While all the participant teacher educators had previous teaching experience at prestigious institutions and more than half of them studied at private high schools, nearly all participant students came from public high schools. Therefore, it is only natural that their constructions of reality are different. Still, the distance of the program from the daily realities of public school life cannot be explained solely by the socio-economic differences between teacher educators and student teachers. Çakıroğlu and Çakıroğlu (2003) asserted that this gap stems from the fact that teacher education programs usually focus on Western-based theories and educational materials, which are not appropriate for the Turkish context. They maintained that the realities of the Turkish school system were not addressed in the teacher education programs let alone the local intellectual movements. Another factor influential in the ignorance of the real life might be related to the nature of the technicist teacher education program, which is based on the notion that teaching methodology is learnt in one place, it is observed and practiced in another place and developed in a third place (Johnson, 2009). The participant student teachers' call for more chances of practice teaching informed by the realities of classroom life in Turkey could only be addressed by a radical transformation of the teacher education system which would include situated learning. If the teacher education program continues in its normative framework with minor changes in it, it will not solve the problems of student teachers, as shown by the earlier studies (Coskun & Daloglu, 2010; Enginarlar, 1997; Seferoglu, 2006; Şallı-Çopur, 2008).

Another dimension of the program's detachment from the social, economical and cultural realities of the country can be seen in some students' reports that even

major political issues which directly affect the lives of student teachers such as police using tear gas on university students during a political protest on campus do not find their way through the class discussions:

We are at the university here. For four years, I don't remember having discussed the current daily events in our country in any course - except a few. I'm not talking about imposing ideas. We can just exchange ideas. In our English lessons, we always have warm-up activities, for instance we talk about the weather. We could do the same thing in higher education institutions: instead of the weather, we can talk about what happened throughout the week. We say the weather is fine, but in fact it is full of tear gas. We never talk about it. There is an elementary school student who came to school with black chador (*kara çarşaf*) last week or so. We can talk about what we would do in such a situation in the classroom management course. We talk about disruptive behaviors, educational psychology, and the development of abstract thinking after the age of 11. There is a little girl with black chador and her family. We need to talk about that. We are totally isolated dealing only with the topic of *am, is, are* (S32 - aims to become a scholar).

As seen from the above quotation, political issues, even if they are burning issues in the daily lives of students, do not find much space in the class discussions. At least I did not encounter any such issue in the classes I observed. This might have to do with the mainstream understanding of education which attempts to be neutral. Assuming that lessons should be devoid of politics, teacher educators might refrain from bringing political issues to the classroom context. It might also stem from the pressure on teacher educators to stay detached from politics.

The analysis of interview transcripts has shown so far that the program is oriented towards educating active, dynamic, creative teachers to a certain extent. Still, there seem to be some elements in the program which curtail students' creativity prescribing them to teach in a certain manner. The reports of student teachers indicate that while they are spending time focusing on preparing lessons for non-real classes, they are not developing their real teaching skills addressing real-life problems. While it may look like a contradiction in terms for students to define the program as educating single-size teachers prescribed to teach in a certain way on the one hand and as semi-qualified active, reflective teachers, it may be interpreted as

two sides of the same coin. In some courses, students may be directed to adopt passive teacher roles. In some others, they may be encouraged to be more active enjoying their creativity. If that is the case, that shows that the program does not have a specific orientation, as discussed earlier.

7.3.4 An Individualistic Teacher

In addition to directing attention on the program's detachment from social and political realities of the time, some students also talked about the program focus on the personal development of individual students, rather than any stress on the social responsibilities of the teacher candidates. The following sequence from a focus group interview is enlightening:

S37: In the faculty of education, there are a few student clubs visiting disadvantaged neighborhoods to teach. But in our department, there is no such thing or such a perception. We think we should gain some experience, but where? Either in a private tutoring course or by giving private lessons so that we can earn money at the same time. Apart from that, there is not much emphasis on the transformative role of a teacher in the society in our program. There is a great deal of emphasis on the teacher's development of her content knowledge. When it comes to teachers' social roles, we are a bit isolated.

S7: I have never seen a social campaign or anything like that to offer help to disadvantaged students in our department. We are oriented more towards personal gains. We are concerned with what we can do for our own career, so there is not much time left for these kinds of things. Our departmental culture does not have anything like that. It is just as if a culture of getting a good position somewhere prestigious is imposed on us. The examples professors give us are always like that. So we feel like we should follow those examples.

S37: Nobody talks about a graduate who went to a village school and formed a drama club.

The student reports quoted above indicate that student teachers are directed to having personal gains rather than being encouraged to work for the public good. One student teacher (S32) also said that they learnt to be selfish in this age of individualism not caring about their social responsibilities. Let alone seeing any political content or protests in the department, I also never saw a campaign or project organized for disadvantaged students in the department during or after the period I collected data.

There were, however, students working with voluntary organizations within the scope of the community service course. There were also teacher candidates who joined voluntary activities to work with disadvantaged students. The following lines show participant students' experience in such work:

I was in an education club which visits boarding schools across the country. We went to schools and gave students books and tried to motivate them to read. We tried to raise their consciousness. We told them we were like them and they could also be like us. You see the change there when those students gain the habit of reading (S35 - aims to become an instructor at the tertiary level).

The above quote illustrates the influence of such an experience on the student teacher (S35). Another student teacher tells the story of teaching English to a kid coming from a poor family in the following quotation:

We go to support economically disadvantaged families in our team of volunteers. I have been to two different homes. One of the children there was hyperactive. The teachers at school always complained about him. So neither the mother, nor the kid wanted to go to school. I did something different. I told him the subject matter like a story. The following week I saw that the kid did not forget, he learnt. By using the method of Total Physical Response, I told him to sleep, to wake up, and I said good morning when he woke up. Then I wrote those things in his notebook (S26 - aims to become an instructor).

As seen from the excerpt above, the student teacher gained an invaluable experience while the student started to enjoy studying English. If more student teachers were encouraged to take part in such projects, their perceptions about teaching could radically change. However, in a cultural sphere in which individualism is the dominant ideology, the focus on individualistic gains is not unexpected.

When it comes to the social responsibilities of teachers, many participant students agreed that teachers had such a mission. They added that such a purpose should be owned by every educated person in the society. Yet, some thought that teachers had a better chance of raising awareness as they worked with people:

We are actually at a position to reach people in a direct manner. A teacher can influence 30 people all at the same time, which means that "you need to be the change yourself" so that you can inspire people. I'm not talking about imposing some ideologies on students, just raising their consciousness or teaching them something useful (S31 - aims to become an instructor at the tertiary level).

The vignette above points to the role of teachers in creating awareness on their students. The following quotations also demonstrate how serious some teacher candidates are about the role of a teacher for the transformation of the society:

Raising some hot issues in the classroom setting could be risky, as there is a covert restriction of the topics you are allowed to talk about in class. But if you are a teacher, you need to stand against such pressures and you should be stubborn. You are a teacher and if you don't teach some of these issues, those students may never realize them. It is as simple as that. There is censorship on the internet, there is censorship everywhere. Some books are banned. If you don't give students those bits of information, they don't have a chance to reach that. You know there was an expression like "enlightening the darkness" in the past. Now we need such a thing (S32 - aims to become a scholar).

The mission of teachers enlightening themselves together with their students was shared by other students as well (S18). Yet they also realize it might be risky in a country in which freedom of expression is restricted. One student also talked about moving beyond the limits of the system of education as a teacher and resisting external pressures, as seen below:

A teacher does not have to become a part of the system, you can take a radical step and follow the path you find true. A teacher should do what s/he thinks is true and should not be afraid of anyone (S5 - aims to pursue an academic career).

The courage to take action expressed by the above quoted student (S5) might be related to the university spirit. Many students stated that they graduate with the idealistic spirit of this university having the inner strength to achieve the targets they set for themselves. In fact, a great number of students (such as S19, S24, S31, S38) asserted that they believed that they can handle any difficult situation considering the amount of challenge they were able to meet as university students. Thus, they seem

to be open to assuming leading roles. Students think that the mission of changing the society is something they inferred themselves, since they said they never discussed the issue of changing the world explicitly in any course. In fact, some participant students (S5, S13, S28, and S32) stated that the transformative role of teachers was not addressed in the program, as expressed by one student below:

I think only a few instructors have such a transformative aim. But other than that, I don't think the program educates transformative teachers that would change the society. The program addresses the questions of how to be a good, modern and competent English teacher who is able to manage the class very well. I have no criticism against that. However, many social factors are not taken into account. For me, it would be better to educate teachers who would direct students to think and to criticize and who are sensitive to social differences (S28 - aims to become an instructor at the tertiary level).

The vignette above underlines the lack of stress on social issues in the program. Another student remarked that they can go no further than raising the students' consciousness; they are not ready for taking action to become true transformative intellectuals. These reports indicate that the program does not have a transformative mission. Yet, many students talked about transformative moments they experienced individually after they came to this university as well as a few transformative teacher educators they had. However, the existence of these moments or people do not seem to be enough to claim that the program educates transformative intellectuals who would work for building a more just and equal society. When the above discussed results of this study are considered, one would not expect a program oriented to educate teachers to work at distinguished institutions to prepare student teachers for challenging the system of education which created different types of schools for members of different classes.

7.4 The Roles of Teacher Educators

When asked about the characteristics of an ideal teacher, most interview participants indicated that there is no "ideal teacher," as it might change from person to person. When the question was paraphrased as the characteristics of a good teacher, participants came up with some defining characteristics. The answers

participant program faculty gave to this question are crucial because it would lay the ground for the conception of a teacher in their minds. Therefore, this section will review the responses of professors who participated in the study. After that this section will survey the roles participant teacher educators assumed themselves.

One teacher educator (TEB) indicated that good teachers respect their profession as well as their students and parents. For her, good teachers should look around and see everything in the environment as a teaching material. She also added that good language teachers should have sound language proficiency. Another teacher educator (TEA) thought that a good English teacher is a teacher who takes her profession seriously. She should also have good content knowledge, and a good command of English. She should also be a little bit humanistic. One other faculty (TEC) noted that a good teacher for her is a competent person who leads students to think critically, who will engage them in the subject matter and arouse their curiosity. She also stated that a good teacher should look neat, tidy, and clean and smell nice. She should speak English well and she should use her body language as well as her verbal language. Another (TEG) said that a good teacher is a person who loves her/his profession and who is able to make connections among different domains of teaching: affective, cognitive and psychomotor while one other stated (TEF) the ideal teacher in her mind is as follows:

For one thing, a good teacher is a person who works hard and loves her job. Her students should appreciate her as a person. She should be aware of her responsibilities. She should never be late for class. She should be well-prepared with her materials. She should make sure she teaches something to the student (TEF).

The ideal teacher in the minds of program faculty is significant for understanding their conceptions of a teacher. Apparently, the academic staff's definitions of a good teacher focus mostly on language proficiency, subject knowledge, and developing respect for the profession. The ideal teacher described also pays attention to her looks, and her teaching identity. She is also respectful towards the students and the school community and is humanistic. She is able to make connections between different domains, create materials of her own and engage students by leading them

to think critically. One faculty (TEH) also underlined the fact that a good teacher should be able to make decisions according to the student profile:

A good teacher is a teacher who adapts herself to the demands of the situation and to the student profile. She should be able to make decisions according to her student profile. She should have knowledge about her students. She should know that every student has the capacity to learn. She should know which positive characteristics she could pay attention to. She should be able find some characteristics in each student she should praise. In our culture, positive feedback is scarce. There is little appreciation of what is good, which should be improved. A good teacher should know this and be respectful to different ideas (TEH).

As can be seen above, the characteristics of a teacher as a decision-maker, as a problem-solver, as a counselor and as a humanist are emphasized by TEH. Yet, the prospects of a teacher as an intellectual, a curriculum developer, a knowledge producer and a change agent are not among the ones that come to the teacher educators' minds in the first place, which indicates that the ideal teacher in their minds is probably a competent practitioner who is able to address the needs of the learners and the situation by following the collective wisdom of the profession. Yet, the image of an ideal teacher in an emeritus professor's (EPB) mind is different, as can be seen below:

Our graduates should have a good command of English. That's taken for granted. But I also want our students to have a curiosity for language. They should also know language teaching methodologies, educational sociology, and educational psychology. Being a teacher comes before being a teacher of English. Before everything else, you are a *teacher*. A teacher is not only a person who just transmits the subject matter. I think a teacher is a person who is not comfortable with the status quo. I know that every graduate of our program will not necessarily change the whole education system in Turkey or the world. But this notion of discontent, which is now called critical thinking, should become a habit. A teacher should have doubt. Deep down one becomes a teacher for that reason. I am a *teacher* before I am a teacher of English. I want to change or improve something (EPB).

As can be seen, this emeritus professor's (EPB) notion of a teacher as a person is quite different as he constructs a teacher as a person who questions the existing order

of things. Two other emeritus professors were of the same idea with EPB, as seen below:

I think we should educate intellectuals who are able to understand and interpret what they read. They should be aware of what is going on around the world. They should be able to oppose and criticize current practices. These are what we need most these days (EPD).

We should be educating teachers who are able to think in the real sense of the word. They should be able to express their own opinions. They should not be obedient individuals who would act what they are told without questioning (EPC).

The focus of emeritus professors on educating intellectual teachers who have critical thinking skills and who use those skills to improve the world is different from the descriptions of many teacher educators' except for one teacher educator (TEG) who defined her most important mission as helping students gain agency. This difference in perceptions might be related to the generation teacher educators come from. While the old generation of academics were educated in an atmosphere of more democratic and academic freedom in 1960s both in Turkey and around the world, the new generation of faculty were educated in an increasingly neoliberal world in which the technicism became the norm, which seem to have informed their perceptions of a good teacher.

The roles the program faculty assumes for themselves are also indicative of the teacher education approach they have. In this dissertation, participant teacher educators asserted diverse roles for themselves. While some gave priority to being a role model to student teachers, others regarded stimulating self-evaluation in student teachers and contributing to their professional identity as their most important mission as teacher educators. On the other hand, there were also instructors who believed their most important role was to help teacher candidates realize their own agency.

Some participant teacher educators assumed the role of a coach to direct students to think about their profession. One teacher educator (TED) stated that her most important role is to develop a liking for this profession in student teachers and

to ensure that student teachers empathize with their learners. Another (TEA) asserted that she wants to raise student teachers' consciousness, help them develop an introspective perspective and let them gain a teacher identity. She wanted to guide them in their transition from being a student teacher to becoming a teacher. She said she directs students to question themselves and their practices as a teacher in the post-conferences to broaden their perspectives and to make them think critically. For her, the ultimate aim of teacher-education is to create autonomous teachers. In a similar vein, one teacher educator (TEB) thought that the most important goal of a teacher educator is to make sure student teachers question themselves after a lesson about what went well and what went wrong. She also added that she should be able to give suggestions to the student teacher based on her experience, as student teachers are very much in need of those suggestions. For her, a teacher educator must have teaching experience at a primary or secondary institution to be able to educate prospective teachers. While she thought that one part of her job was to lead students to reflect on their practice, she also believed that another equally important part was to work as a role-model giving suggestions.

Though the role of a facilitator was on the forefront in some participant teacher-educators' responses, some others underlined their roles as a role-model. One faculty (TEC) said that she wanted to be a good role-model with her stance, appearance and manners. She noted that she danced and moved around the class just to be a model to the students. Another instructor (TEF) agreed with TEC, as she said she tried to wear her most proper clothes when she taught teacher candidates. For her, a teacher educator should be an expert in her field. She should have a vast knowledge and the openness to fill the gaps in her knowledge. She should also know the students, the real classroom setting, and English very well. One other faculty member (TEE) also believed a teacher educator is a good model and a good teacher, as can be seen in her voice below:

For one thing, a teacher educator is a good model and a good teacher. You need to pay attention to every minute detail, to your clothes and to timing. You should start and finish on time. You should be a good person. Those of us who teach these courses should like this profession and should not regard these methodology or practice teaching courses as a burden. Besides, a teacher educator should be constructive, not

someone too strict. She should be flexible and be able to listen. She should not be mean in appreciation. It is so easy to criticize and focus on the weak points. Feedback is crucial. If you listen to the students, they are already aware of their weak sides. A good communication with students and being patient are two important parts of teaching (TEE).

As can be seen, this teacher educator emphasized having good communication skills. While these roles teacher educators assumed based on teaching technical knowledge or developing professional skills/identity were emphasized, the notion of a teacher educator developing a critical consciousness in students did not appear as much in teacher educators' responses. One professor (TEG) believed her most important mission is to help students perceive themselves as individuals who can express themselves by being active. She thought she should encourage students to believe in themselves and in their ability to make a difference, as seen in the quotation below:

I have never seen a group of people so hopeless of their own futures. I really feel sad about this. Most of them come from small towns and they have grown up under pressure. They feel so insecure. We don't know what is happening in their lives. They come to university having been ruined by the university exam. We need to think about what we can do for them. Some professors seem to have given up on them. If you think that these students are not good enough, nothing happens. Life ends there. Students feel this attitude and they are so fragile. They are here to learn. All of them are different. Each semester. No one is stable. People may change even in one class time let alone four years they spend here. When they come here, they are people who have just stepped out of their hometowns. When they graduate, they have spent four years in a big city. We have an important mission to make them question themselves about who they are, what they want to do. We need to give them agency; we need to help them develop their confidence. This is on top of everything else (TEG).

While the above quoted teacher educator deemed her mission as boosting students' confidence and helping them realize their own agency, some other program faculty had different ideas about their missions. While some (TED and TEF) stated that they did not have big missions in education, others (TEA, TEB and TEH) asserted it is to educate autonomous professionals who respect their profession. There were also other professors (TEB and TEE) who expressed that the mission of a teacher educator is grander than teaching the subject matter.

One instructor (TED) who asserted that she didn't have any grand mission for herself in education said that the central focus in her life was her profession. While talking about her teaching philosophy, she pointed out that she wanted her students to respect her as a teacher. She also wanted them to know that she could listen to them. She also added:

They should also be aware of the fact that I will have the final word so that they learn to respect authority and management. This does not mean that they will not question, they may question. (TED)

The notion behind this statement seems actually to be indicative of the how respect for authority is usually considered as a value to be taught to future generations. Another faculty member (TEF) considered her mission as educating teachers who are honest and who have morals. One other teacher educator (TEB) stated that her mission is to serve the country by contributing to the young generation of her country so that they become more open-minded, democratic and respectful to diversity in society. However, she did not think that this is something teachable. For her, you can only be a role model to your students in this respect.

Another professor (TEC) stated that she did not believe she had a mission to transform her students, because she thought she already had enough missions in life and she would not take any more. She maintained that she couldn't transform them, anyway. She said that she used to talk about political issues in the past, especially when she was abroad. But now she does not talk about politics in the classroom, but she is not happy about that. Her voice below is quite revealing:

I don't think my students will understand. Actually, I am quite sure they will be against my political opinions. Anyway, I know that they do not even have a clue about most political matters. Some of them will be totally disturbed by my ideas and the others will look at me with suspicion. So I say to myself "Why bother?" or "Why get into trouble?" Still, sometimes I can't help saying "What are we going to do with this government?" and things like that in the class. You know, the big brother is watching us everywhere. Sometimes I raise issues like abortion or death penalty in my reading classes and I tell my own opinion. But I never ask if Kurdish should be an official language except for my PhD courses. I do not ask what they think about the governmental policies, because I can predict their responses. Some are too conservative, some

are pro-government party, and some are indifferent. Most probably there are four or five students who are able to think critically in our classes. And I say to myself “Let them think on their own” (TEC) [underlined parts uttered originally in English].

When asked about the possible reasons behind her avoidance of political issues, she said she didn't feel like she had the freedom of speech except among her own circle of family and friends and she preferred to adopt a neutral stance at school. She made it clear that it is not actually what she preferred. However, she added, she had a family to support, she worked at a public university and she was a full-time professor, which she could not risk in the politically hostile environment in Turkey. In terms of professional development, she believed she was able to create a change in her students, but she did not think that she was able to succeed in educating open-minded, modern individuals. In her opinion, it was not possible to transform the undergraduate students enrolled in this program whatever you do, as they got used to being lazy in the Anatolian Teacher Training High Schools they graduated from:

These students have a scarcity of knowledge, cultural background and understanding. They are not open to developing themselves, and this bothers me a lot. Their English is terrible and they do not show any effort to improve it. They are so lazy. We are in a desperate situation. Whatever we do, we can't do much with this group of students. We lose half of them before they come here. So I think neither their English, nor their viewpoints will get any better. The spirit of this university does not hold true for our students any more. (TEC).

As the above lines indicate, TEC was not happy with this student profile and she felt a bit burnt-out. She did not want to build a close relationship with these students and she openly asserted that she did not make any effort to do that. As she had no hopes, she did not engage in any effort to transform them. In contrast, one other instructor (TEA) believed that teacher educators should believe in the potential of the student teachers and encourage them to develop themselves no matter how limited their background knowledge is. She noted:

Otherwise, you lose that student and they stop trying. But if the teacher candidate sees that you trust him/her, she makes an effort. They should

feel that they can do it. It is really important for them. Their ego is very fragile (TEA)

For her, the most important thing a teacher does is to show that she is genuinely interested in her students and she values their opinions. She deems it important to direct students to question their strengths and weaknesses as a teacher, as we live in a culture where the weaknesses are hidden and people are not used to thinking critically:

Some of us are able to think critically without any guidance, but some of us need more guidance in this process. First, students need to learn to question themselves and then they should make an action plan to solve their problems or to compensate for their weaknesses. In this process, I try to give continuous feedback and I work as a coach. It is a time-investment, but I strongly believe it is a worthwhile effort (TEA).

Maintaining a close relationship with students and guiding them as a coach is significant for TEA. Another faculty member (TEE) also thinks that a teacher's or a teacher educator's most important responsibility is to approach a student gently so that you are able to change their behaviors or viewpoints and help them question themselves. A teacher needs to work as a guide, as a consultant, and even as a therapist at times for her (TEE).

As can be seen from the above discussion, participant program faculty defined differing roles for themselves. While some believed that they are role-models, others asserted that they are guides or facilitators for teacher candidates. Some professors did not think they have any other missions than preparing good quality teachers whereas a few others noted that educating teacher candidates to develop self-confidence and to respect others are more important than pedagogical content knowledge. Still, the theme of educating students or student teachers with critical consciousness was not a dominant theme in the teacher educator interviews except for those with the emeritus professors, which might reveal that the aim of the World Bank project for transforming teacher education in Turkey was achieved to a great extent. As described in Grossman et al. (2007), the new generation of teacher educators became "products of a totally different approach to teacher education in Turkey" which "change[d] the hearts and minds of teacher educators" (p. 139). In a

teacher education system where teacher educators are mostly far from setting transformative goals for themselves, it does not seem likely to encourage teacher candidates to assume such roles. From the constructions of teacher educators, the teacher role in their minds seems to range from passive technicians to reflective practitioners. While the emeritus professors described transformative aims as educators for themselves, only one teacher educator (TEG) asserted her mission was to work for the empowerment of teacher candidates. Some teacher educators also felt social responsibility (TEB, TEC and TEE), but they did not believe that they could do much to transform teacher candidates.

7.5 Summary of Interview Analysis

The analysis of interview findings indicates that the FLE program does not seem to have a clear target for preparing teachers in practice. As the participant reports show, it is not even clear if the FLE teacher education program prepares *teachers*. For a great majority of students, the FLE program is designed to prepare researchers or instructors to work at higher education institutions. Even if the program educates teachers, participants asserted, these teachers are prepared to work at technologically equipped private schools or the highly selective public schools. The student participants stated that they are not prepared to teach at schools with limited resources. They also added that they do not know how to approach students coming from culturally and socially diverse backgrounds or students with special needs.

When it comes to the characteristics of teachers educated in the FLE program, they are educated to become active reflective teachers. Yet, they do not feel competent enough to achieve that aim. For some participants, the program prepares standardized teachers who would only implement what they are told. This teacher is directed to care for personal career gains rather than thinking about the public good, reflecting the dominant individualistic culture of our times. The program does not seem to have a transformative mission. Even though the participant students are aware of the fact that they have social responsibilities, they admit that they do not feel ready to take action except for raising their students' consciousness.

When the interview findings are interpreted according to Kumaravadivelu's (2003) categorization of teacher roles, it is not possible to say that the teacher type prepared in the FLE program fits in well within a single category, which might be a natural consequence of the lack of a specific mission in the program. While the technician nature of the program introduced by the CoHE seems to produce single-size individualistic technician English teachers, the tendency of some teacher educators to direct students to think critically implies teachers are encouraged to become reflective teachers. However, the lack of competence and confidence on the part of the teacher candidates shows that teacher candidates might not be developing the necessary educational understanding or teaching practice in the program. Though students were able to transform some of their presuppositions with the help of their coursework and the atmosphere of diversity and tolerance at the university campus, they do not seem to have a larger aim for becoming agents of social transformation.

In summary, the analysis of the interview data demonstrated that the FLE program does not have a specific focus. Teacher candidates are at times prescribed to act within a limited framework and they are at times encouraged to show creativity. Therefore, based on interview findings, it is possible to argue that the program oscillates between educating passive technicians and reflective practitioners.

CHAPTER 8

OBSERVATION ANALYSIS

This dissertation study exploring teacher roles in a pre-service foreign language teacher education program used document reviews, interviews and classroom observations. After presenting the findings of document and interview analyses, it is now necessary to analyze the field notes taken during the classroom observations. This chapter will provide an answer to the following research question of the study:

2.b) What teacher roles are fostered in methodology and school-based practicum components of the FLE program?

In this chapter, the findings of classroom observations carried out for four semesters between September 2012 and June 2014 will be presented. All courses in the methodology and school based practicum components of the program were observed for seven to ten weeks except for Teaching Language Skills course I was offering in the program. For that course, I wrote my self-observations. For ease of analysis, methodology courses were separated into foundational methodology courses, which lay the background for language teaching, and specialized methodology courses, which provide further information based on that background knowledge. Table 20 below demonstrates how courses were categorized.

To prevent revealing the identities of the teacher educators teaching those courses, each course will be given a code name in this study. Courses under Foundational Methodology Courses will be referred to with the initials of this category: FMC1, FMC2, etc. while Specialized Methodology Courses will be called SMC1, SMC2, etc. Practicum courses will be named PC1, and PC2. Numbers given to the courses will be random not following the order of the courses offered in the program.

Table 20 Categorization of Observed Courses

Foundational Methodology Courses	Specialized Methodology Courses	School-based Practicum Courses
Instructional Principles and Methods	Teaching English to Young Learners	School Experience
Approaches to ELT	Materials Adaptation and Development	Practice Teaching
ELT Methodology I	English Language Testing & Evaluation	
ELT Methodology II		
Teaching Language Skills		

For the analysis of observations, first field notes were read and the significant points for teacher roles were underlined. In the second reading, the field notes for each course were read closely and common patterns in different lessons of the same course were noted. After that, a basic general description of the course was written. In the third reading, the field notes were reread to check if the description made sense. To give a thick description of the course, classroom artifacts collected in each course were reviewed. The course outline was consulted for the course syllabus and the course description. After the basic features of each course was written, each course was reviewed to see the implicit or explicit messages the course conveyed in terms of teacher roles. The analysis of these course descriptions were made according to the teacher education models described in Chapter 4. The teacher education approach followed in the methodology and practicum courses naturally implied the teacher roles fostered in different courses explicitly or implicitly. To remind the reader of the characteristics of these models of teacher education, a comparison table of teacher models is presented below in Table 21.

As the course descriptions below reveal, there was not direct reference to teacher roles in many of the courses. However, it was possible to make inferences about the dominant teacher education model followed in each course (see Chapter 4.1) based on the course contents, interaction patterns and classroom discussions. For one thing, the attitude of teacher educators towards students was indicative of the teacher education models they adopt. For instance, if the teacher educators

concentrate more on teacher candidates' weaknesses rather than acknowledging their prior knowledge and experience, one might think they might be following a technicist education model (see Table 21 below). If they try to build their lessons on the student teachers' prior experience and they attempt to direct students to reflect on their own values, beliefs and assumptions, they might be following a more reflective approach. Teacher educators who adopt a critical perspective might, however, try to show their students' the impact of the dominant ideology on their self-perceptions. On the other hand, the fact that the course contents focus only on the techniques of teaching might reveal a technicist orientation while a more balanced approach towards the teaching procedures and focusing on the need for thoughtful action in teaching practice might suggest a more reflective orientation. A focus of attention on the overall purposes of education and the need to see the classroom microcosm from a macro perspective may reveal a critical attitude towards teacher education. Similarly, a course centered on discrete skills and techniques and another incorporating skills and techniques with concepts, attitudes and emotions might indicate different teacher education approaches (technicist and reflective respectively) whereas a critical syllabus might include critical issues in addition to those mentioned above. Though it is not my purpose to evaluate each course or teacher educator in the light of these teacher education models, it is still necessary to give as much detail as possible about each course so that the major patterns of teacher education could be deduced.

Having found out from the document analysis (Chapter 6) that the FLE program is squeezed into a technicist program despite the modifications made by the program faculty, one might question the plausibility of an alternative teacher education model to be followed in a technicist teacher education program. Being obliged to teach the courses in the FLE program, teacher educators may not be able to move beyond the prescribed course contents or they may only have a restricted space to follow an alternative teacher education model. Though this might be true, teacher educators might still be moving beyond the technicist teacher education model and incorporate reflective or transformative teacher education practices in their courses. Therefore, to understand the classroom practices, it was crucial to conduct classroom observations.

Table 21 Summary of Teacher Education Models

	Technicist	Reflective	Critical
Teacher Roles	Teachers are seen as technicians to be controlled. They work for achieving the ends determined by others with the means provided by others in ways prescribed by others. Hodkinson (2011)	Teachers are seen as professionals who make spontaneous decisions in their classrooms in line with the needs of their students. Teachers decide the ends and means of their teaching	Teachers are seen as transformative intellectuals, who are change agents and critical intellectuals. They should think about or question the basic concepts of the system in which they work, the curriculum they teach, or the teaching methods they apply.
Good teaching	Equal to the use of a technique; for learning to occur, the teacher has to use "the right" method of teaching.	The thinking and creative problem-solving process of a teacher cannot be formulated as rules and procedures to be followed by other teachers.	The complexity of teaching cannot be reduced to a set of procedures. Content is more important than the procedure of teaching
Focus of attention	How to teach is more important than the purpose of teaching	Not sufficient to teach effective practices to teacher candidates, they also need to learn thoughtful action in their teaching practices so as not to be swept by routine mechanic action. Dewey (1933/1997)	Democracy and critical citizenship should be central to the purpose of education. Student teachers should be able see the microcosm of their classroom from a macro perspective (Pennycook, 1994).
View of teacher candidates	Student teachers come to teacher education programs with some deficiencies in language proficiency or content knowledge (Richards, 1989) .	Student teachers' prior experience as students, their beliefs, values and assumptions play a crucial role in addition to received knowledge (Johnson, 2009; Wallace, 1991).	The dominant ideologies affecting the lives of teacher educators, teacher candidates and their students should be revealed.
Content knowledge	Discrete skills and techniques to be mastered (Freeman, 1989) and it is believed that if trainee teachers learn those skills, they will be effective teachers	Not limited to skills/techniques; it also includes concepts, attitudes and emotions; students are asked to write reflective pieces on their values and beliefs (Richards, 1989).	Student teachers should have an awareness of the complexities of educational practice and an understanding of and commitment to a socially just, democratic notion of schooling

Table 21 (continued)

	Technicist	Reflective	Critical
View of teacher training	To expand the teacher's repertoire of tasks and to improve the effectiveness with which tasks are used (Richards, 1989)	Student teachers are continually involved in activities to reflect on their own teaching and their roles as teachers. (Richards, 1989).	Critical teacher education allows students to examine their own beliefs about class, ethnicity and gender roles, and reconstruct the role of schooling through theoretical content and discussions.
Tasks used for teacher training	Modeling, imitating, practice	Student teachers should be given some tasks to explore their own learning by questioning their own assumptions and comparing theory with their experience	Through dialogue and co-construction, student teachers learn to examine their own values and beliefs in addition to racism and privilege by reading, writing and discussing autobiographies, films, case studies and doing action research (Zeichner & Flessner, 2009).
View of teaching practice	Practicum comes after theory to give student teachers the opportunity to practice the techniques prescribed by the professional experts	Practice is at the center of the program not delayed until students are given enough content knowledge Reflective teaching is learnt by doing and coaching (Adler, 1990). Video-recording, reflective journals, action research, narratives, autobiographies, support groups and peer coaching	It assigns a central position to situated instruction; i.e. field experiences student teachers acquire in schools and communities (Zeichner & Flessner, 2009).
Role of teacher educators	Expert, as a model teacher, and as the source of new ideas and information. His or her primary functions are to provide ideas and suggestions, to solve problems, and to intervene and point out better ways of doing things (Richards, 1989; p. 3).	Work as coaches and help student teachers deal with situations for which there are no suggested solutions.	They aim at culturally responsive teaching; i.e. appreciating diversity and working as an activist to overcome all sorts of injustices. They build a collaborative atmosphere in which both students and the teacher educators learn collaboratively in dialogue.

In the discussion below, courses in each category will be described in detail first. Thereafter, each category will be analyzed for the common patterns and emerging themes so as to reach an understanding of the dominant teacher education perspective in each category of courses. Finally, the general teacher education approach followed in methodology and practicum courses will be discussed.

8.1 Foundational Methodology Courses

There are five methodology courses in this course component. These courses give student teachers some theoretical and historical background of language teaching as well as some practical hints to teach different skills and language areas in foreign language teaching. The discussion below will give a detailed description of each course to give the reader an in-depth understanding of the classroom reality.

FMC1 is an introductory course for language teaching methodologies. The course gives a historical survey of language teaching and intends "to raise awareness about the connection of ELT with theories of psychology, educational sciences, linguistics and sociology" according to the course outline. It also aims to help students "develop a critical understanding of the approaches, methods and techniques in ELT." During my observations for ten weeks I saw that the teacher educator (TEC) constantly made those links with the theories of related fields while lecturing on the underlying concepts of language teaching methodologies. She also engaged students in associating the concepts of language teaching with their own experiences in learning languages. Students were given voice in telling their own experiences of learning languages and the teacher educator was able to build the course content on those experiences of student teachers. She also encouraged student teachers to think about the strengths and weaknesses of each method. She asked them critical questions to make them think about the use of these methodologies in real life settings. She always emphasized the context-bound nature of language teaching. She frequently underlined the fact that the approach followed in a language teaching course depends on the proficiency level, age, cultural background, class size and even the physical conditions of the classroom.

The FMC1 content included the methods of language teaching as well as the post-method. Even though the CoHE 2007 course description did not refer to post-method, I saw that the post-method era was included in the course outline. Despite the fact that the course content included different methodologies each prescribing how to teach regardless of the realities of the classroom context, the teacher educator offering the course always directed attention to taking the realities of situation at hand into consideration while choosing a method to teach English. She also gave students different situations in the take-home final exam and asked students to come up with their own eclectic methods to address the needs of the learners in that situation. Students were also supposed to prepare a lesson plan and to justify their decisions.

As for the general characteristics of the FMC1, it was well-organized. Each class started with the revision of the previous week's lecture and the teacher educator summarized the most important characteristics of each approach or method. After the break, a group of students took over and they introduced a new method by describing its basic tenets. After the theoretical overview of the method, a student gave a demo lesson based on the method of the week. The students were encouraged to give demo lessons using a different language they spoke or an artificial language they created. Because there were four or five international students in class, each one was assigned to a different group so that they teach their own mother tongue by using the method in question. After each demo was over, the class discussed how they felt trying to learn the foreign language taught using a specific method.

The teacher educator (TEC) was mostly in the center during the lectures and students were sitting in rows listening to the lecture and participating actively when asked about their experiences. Though students were mostly attentive for an early morning class, sometimes I felt that they were kind of lost trying to understand a load of information on language teaching theory they were meeting for the first time. During the student demos, the teacher educator sat at the back of the classroom and students were more active. The interaction between students and the teacher educator was warm and friendly in general except for a few times when the teacher educator was not happy with a few disruptive students. The teacher educator was cheerful, energetic and dynamic making jokes and telling anecdotes of her own experience to

make the content matter more meaningful to students. She was strict about late-comers asking them not to interrupt the flow of lesson.

As for the teacher roles fostered in FMC1, there was no explicit reference to the roles student teachers should assume other than the different roles teachers would assume when they used different teaching methodologies (such as being a conductor in audio-lingual method, a counselor in community language learning or a facilitator in communicative language teaching). Although the course by nature included the techniques of language teaching, it did not have a prescriptive approach to language teaching. Students were directed to be critical towards methods and to evaluate their use according to the demands of the situation. The course (FMC1) did not include any reflective writing on methods or on video-recordings of classroom implementations, but students were led to think of different dimensions of using each and every method during class discussions.

FMC2 is a course which focuses on how to teach specific language skills aiming to familiarize students with "the basic techniques of presentation and a variety of exercises and tasks to reinforce and practice what has been presented" according to the course outline. The course started with the teacher educator's introductory lectures and demonstrations on teaching a specific skill area such as listening or speaking. After two weeks of theoretical discussions and practical demonstrations by the teacher educator (TEE), student groups prepared mini lessons and demonstrated them to their classmates for two weeks. After four weeks spent on a specific skill, there came a similar pattern of the teacher educator introducing and demonstrating the new skill area followed by micro-teachings by students. During the lectures, the teacher educator was in the center of the U-shaped classroom. When students were giving demo lessons, she sat among students.

Similar to all other courses, in FMC2, students were expected to come to class having read the assigned material. When the teacher educator introduced the course content by lecturing, she was in close interaction with students asking them to discuss a particular issue in pairs or groups and reporting it to the whole class. She always gave vivid examples about the course material relating it to her own experience. She also asked students to share their earlier language learning experiences at times. It was another early morning course, and students were a bit

reluctant to speak. Still, the teacher educator used songs or videos to cheer them up. Following the professional practice in the field of English language teaching, students were taught the stages of teaching skills and they were expected to follow that staging pattern in their model lessons. Yet, the teacher educator clearly stated she expected student teachers to create colorful, meaningful and interesting lesson plans. She always underscored the fact that they should teach everything in context in a way that would make sense to their students. She also advised student teachers to find a way into their students' worlds.

The teacher educator (TEE) was totally understanding and encouraging towards the students despite the fact that she had some strict rules stated on the FMC2 course outline such as attendance, punctuality, participation, etc: she did not allow students to eat snacks or to chew gum during class time. However, she was very tolerant towards students' mistakes in demonstrations. She stressed that it was OK to make mistakes and they were there to learn from each other. She also told the story of her first micro-teaching experience when she was a student teacher. She also directed attention to the fact that there is always room for constant improvement, as it is not possible to be perfect. After each micro-teaching session, the teacher educator (TEE) would ask the student teacher who gave the lesson to pull up a chair and sit down. Then she immediately asked what the student teacher taught about her own performance. She encouraged students to talk about their strengths and weaknesses in the micro-teaching. If students were not able to come up with an answer, she would ask them further questions gently so that they were able to self-evaluate. She also asked the class what they thought about the performance of their peers. After hearing students' comments, the teacher educator addressed some crucial points about teaching such as transitions, wait time, giving instructions, board use, elicitation, warm-up, using discourse markers, etc. As for the L1 usage, she was not happy when student teachers uttered the Turkish equivalent of any word. She suggested teachers should not be the one who give the Turkish version.

Despite the limited focus area of the FMC2 course, the teacher educator included an assigned reading covering the spread of English, world Englishes, native-speaker norms, etc. in the second week of the term. During the class time, the teacher educator (TEE) focused on some major issues such as English as a Lingua

Franca, English as an international language and intelligibility. Although it was not a thorough coverage of the area, it introduced students to some of the current issues of the English language teaching. She also referred to some of those issues later in the semester when the need arose. Apart from micro-teachings, mid-term and final examinations, students were also required to prepare a portfolio. They were asked to read at least one article on each skill and write a critical review on it. The teacher educator advised students to survey the English Language Teaching Forum journal and find some relevant articles from it, which showed that students were led to broaden their knowledgebase by doing some extra research not staying limited within the boundaries of their textbooks. There was no reflective writing among the course requirements other than the article review, but during the class discussions students were asked to reflect on their own teaching or their friends' performance. As for the teacher roles, there was no explicit reference to teacher roles student teachers should assume in the classes I observed.

FMC3 is another methodology course focusing on teaching language skills. The skill areas that are covered in FMC3 are different from those covered in FMC2. The course aims "to equip the students with the theory and the implementation of theory in teaching skills in various EFL settings to a variety of student profiles" according to the course outline. Similar to FMC2, this course also included two consecutive weeks of teacher input including the steps of teaching and teacher demonstrations followed by student micro-teachings for three to four weeks. After the first cycle of micro-teachings, the teacher educator (TED) gave further input on another skill area and the micro-teachings continued for three more weeks. A different dimension of this course was the video-recordings of each micro-teaching session. The teacher educator video-recorded the micro-teachings herself and gave students the recordings on a flash drive so that they can watch themselves and write a self-reflection on their own performance from a distant perspective.

In FMC3, the class size was so large (about 40 students) that student micro-teachings conducted in pairs occupied almost the whole semester. The teacher educator was also concerned about the class size at the beginning of the semester, but she said she actually liked larger classes to share more. She emphasized the fact that they will learn from each other. She added that people learn to teach by doing and by

making mistakes. So it was normal if they made mistakes. The teacher educator was in the center while lecturing, but during the micro-teachings she sat by the wall and arranged the video-recording. She also took notes while observing students. After each micro-teaching session, the teacher educator came on stage and asked students' opinions on the performance of student teachers. After hearing the comments of students, she also added some other points from her notes about transitions, timing, lesson planning, staging, etc. She often warned students about the difference between a presentation and teaching because some student teachers were not interacting with the class while teaching. She was always encouraging in her feedback and at times praised some student teachers as they would make perfect teachers. She was warm, friendly and nice mostly except for a few times when student teachers started to chat among each other while they were supposed to observe their classmates. In fact, student teachers were mostly attentive, but I observed that sometimes they were bored of observing classmates for three hours and started chatting.

As for the course content (FMC3), it was based on the teaching of specific skill areas focusing on different stages and the related activities in each step. Therefore, by its very nature, the course had a prescriptive approach to teaching certain skills. Still, the teacher educator (TED) clearly stated that she wanted student teachers to be extra creative in their lesson plans. She also directed them to think about the level of each text they were given, the reasons behind the success of a micro-teaching and about the possible alternatives for post reading or writing activities. She often stressed that students' needs were crucial and student teachers needed to put themselves in the shoes of their students. She also told her own story of becoming a teacher of English because of falling in love with an English teacher when she was a secondary school kid. Thus, she emphasized the importance of preparing engaging lessons. However, at times she expressed contradictory views by advising student teachers not to ask whether students liked a certain activity or not because she said it was not the concern of the teacher if the students found a certain activity enjoyable or not. She also told student teachers to ask students to write everything on the board into their notebooks to keep them busy. Otherwise, she noted, students would start chatting.

As for the teacher roles in FMC3, there was one specific mention of the teacher role student teachers had to assume when one student teacher gave her micro-teaching session with a chewing gum in her mouth. To be honest, I had not recognized the chewing gum when the teacher educator (TED) noted that she would fail the student teacher if she were a senior student. She said that a teacher has to be a role-model and thus teachers need to watch their manners. On different occasions, she asserted that student teachers needed to be consistent about speaking in English all the time and they should never hesitate in their decisions - about timing for instance - as it would give the impression that they do not know what they are doing.

FMC4 is a foundational theoretical course "exploring instructional planning and methods" according to the course outline. The assignments included students' writing reading journals each week on the assigned readings and preparing a team project for which students develop instructional objectives as part of a lesson plan. The students came to class having read the assigned readings and written their reflections. They submitted their reflection papers to the research assistant of the course before the class. The teacher educator (TEG) gave a lecture on the course content making it as concrete as possible in students' minds by giving daily life examples and showing videos. At times she prepared tasks for students to get more involved in the course content. She interacted well with the students by raising discussion questions. Despite her efforts to make the content more accessible to students, some students were a bit reluctant to learn the theoretical subject matter. Because the class met at the computer lab, the physical conditions of the classroom were somehow distracting. Some students were distracted by the computers in front of them, which made the teacher educator unhappy. She was not content with lecturing the course content, either. She persistently told the class she did not like lecturing. She said that she would take the class out for them to discover the course content in the daily life, but she had to operate within the system. In fact, for the team project, she designed a task in which the students had to go out and discover the university library. The task addressed the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains of learning, which was heavily emphasized in the class.

As opposed to the other language teaching methodology courses, this theoretical course (FMC4) did not have a micro-teaching component. Instead,

students were supposed to read the theoretical content focusing on instructional principles and reflect on it. The teacher educator (TEG) noted that the instructional method chosen depends on the context and student teachers needed to know the strengths and weaknesses of each learning theory. There was also a reading and a class discussion on the art and science of teaching. The teacher educator stated that methodology and tools are the science of teaching and what you do with it is the art part. She also stressed that people who lack one can compensate for the other. On different occasions, she asserted that good teaching is to make sure everybody learns and we don't want people just to learn content but to develop their thinking skills.

As for the teacher roles, the teacher educator referred to a Giroux quotation in the assigned readings about the teachers' roles to change the society, which she asserted is very important. She asked students' opinions about teachers' roles in the society. One student asserted that she doesn't believe she has to serve the society and its values. Another student remarked that he would rather live in a forest on his own, which might indicate either students were not enthusiastic about discussing the topic or they did not attribute teachers' such a mission. The teacher educator, however, seemed to attach importance to teachers' social roles. It was also clear from her approach to her students. In the very first class meeting when the teacher educator wanted to get to know the students, she encouraged them to speak out and to do something about the things they are not happy about in the department or in their own lives. She also advised them to "be the change they wanted to see in the world."

FMC5 is a language teaching methodology course focusing on teaching grammar and pronunciation. I started teaching this course during the data collection period. I taught two sections of this course while the other two sections of the same course had two part-time teachers. Because my colleagues and I prepared the course outline together, I decided to include my own self-observations related to the course rather than observing my colleagues. The course content was loaded ranging from learner and teacher characteristics, classroom management, task-based learning and project work to teaching grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. Having observed that current issues of ELT were given limited space in other methodology courses, I included some articles and class discussions on the spread of English, native vs. non-native teachers of English and teacher roles. I observed that students' reaction to the

discussion of the current issues in our field was quite positive. However, the two weeks' time we allocated to grammar teaching was not satisfactory. When student teachers prepared lesson plans on teaching grammar at the end of the semester, I realized that they really had a limited understanding of teaching grammar and our course had not helped them much. Therefore, I decided to spend more time on grammar teaching the second time I taught this course. Moreover, I omitted some general educational topics such as learner and teacher characteristics, classroom management, etc. because students complained that the course contents in the program had many overlapping items. One year later, I taught the same course (FMC5). That time I allocated five weeks to teaching grammar dwelling on different dimensions of grammar teaching from discovery learning to task-based teaching, inductive teaching to noticing grammar, etc. I also increased the number of my grammar teaching demonstrations so that students could imagine different ways of teaching grammar other than deductive grammar teaching. The current issues in ELT were also included in the course content of the following year.

As for the course requirements, students were supposed to write reflections on the assigned readings each week on an online forum page. They were also expected to write comments on their classmates' entries so that students could discuss the issues on an online platform. For some of the issues, we also had class discussions. During the class time, I tried to summarize the major points about the assigned readings and showed students some techniques of teaching grammar. I also prepared some tasks to make it easier for students to grasp the content. Students prepared grammar teaching lesson plans at the end of the semester and they had 15-20 minute micro teaching sessions with their partners. The micro-teachings lasted three weeks. The course also had a mid-term and a take-home final examination. The second time I taught this course, many students commented there were too many readings on grammar teaching. They also complained about the workload of the course. Yet, there were also senior students taking this junior level course. Because they were taking practice teaching course at the time, their reactions were more positive. Their experience in the real life setting seemed to have broadened their perspectives into teaching and they tried to make the most of that course. For most junior students, however, it was yet another course on methodology. This discrepancy in junior and

senior students' reactions towards the course led me to think that when language teaching methodology and school based practice teaching are isolated from each other, student teachers are alienated and they do not really realize that course contents and class discussions may offer them some useful insights about their future practice.

8.1.1 Discussion of Foundational Methodology Courses

Having described the general characteristics of the course contents, it would be better to summarize some general tendencies in these courses. The foundational methodology courses naturally focused on the pedagogical content knowledge. They gave an overview of language teaching history, instructional principles, and teaching different skills. While some courses were only on developing the knowledge base of students (FMC4), others were centered more on practice (like FMC2 and FMC3). The others (FMC 1 and FMC5) gave nearly equal weight to both subject matter and practice. Because FMC4 was a foundational instructional theory course, it had no practice involved. In FMC1, however, content knowledge and demonstration had more or less equal weight: each language teaching method was discussed and demonstrated. In FMC5, student practice took up three weeks while the rest of the class time was spent on discussing content knowledge and teacher demos. In FMC2 and FMC3, however, seven weeks or so were spent on student teacher demonstrations without any focus on content knowledge in those weeks allocated for micro-teachings.

Though it might be considered as necessary to give student teachers sufficient time for developing their practical knowledge, student participants argued that these micro-teachings provided limited help due to the non-realistic setting in the methodology courses. They also complained about the overuse of micro-teachings in some methodology courses. For three or four weeks in a row, all they did was to observe their classmates and to give feedback when they go into class. After some time, it got boring and mechanistic. It is my impression that if students were given a chance to practice teaching in a realistic atmosphere starting from the sophomore year when they took their first methodology course instead of waiting till the last year of their study, their perceptions of the methodology courses could be much

different. As suggested by the reflective teaching movement (Dewey, 1933/1997; Schön, 1987), it seems necessary for student teachers to learn to teach by doing it. Being isolated from the classroom reality, FLE student teachers do not seem to perceive that they are learning a profession. But if they learnt to teach through situated practice, they would come to methodology courses with some puzzles in their minds and the discussions in these courses would guide them in solving their problems (Zeichner & Flessner, 2009). In that way, class time would be spent more on class discussions rather than long micro-teaching sessions and more in-depth theoretical content knowledge would be covered.

When teaching skills was focused on, they were treated more like simple technical issues rather than going into the details of each skill area. For instance, when teaching reading and writing were considered, the development of literacy was not referred to. Teaching reading or writing was reduced to a technical process in which student teachers introduced a certain reading/writing activity with a pre-reading/writing, carried out some reading/writing tasks in while-reading/writing part and finished the cycle with post-reading/writing. The importance of literacy in human development or significance of the critical reading and thinking skills were not taken into account. Developing extensive and intensive reading or listening skills of students were barely mentioned. Student teachers were not directed to teaching reading, listening, speaking or vocabulary learning strategies. On the other hand, the critical content in the foundational methodology courses moved beyond the CoHE 2007 program course descriptions. The course contents included topics like postmethod, world Englishes, English as a lingua franca, the spread of English, etc. which did not exist in the CoHE program. However, the links between the development of the field of English language teaching and linguistic imperialism were not formed in any courses observed including mine. The political dimension of teaching English or the commodification of English was not addressed at all.

In terms of encouraging teacher reflection, all foundational methodology courses included tasks to foster student teachers' reflective thinking skills. They were particularly directed to reflecting on their own action or on their peers' performance. Student teachers were also given reflective writing tasks on the assigned readings. In some courses, they were constantly asked to evaluate their own prior learning

experiences. They were also encouraged to think about the realities of the context as well as the profile of students. However, according to the categorization of Larrivee (2008), the reflective practice asked of student teachers was mostly surface reflection in which students only thought about the methods and techniques they used. Pedagogical reflection about the goals and underlying theories behind those goals and critical reflection about the moral and ethical consequences of teachers' actions were seldom addressed. Teacher candidates were not asked to evaluate their own assumptions or values.

The lack of enough attention on different dimensions of language learning in some methodology courses of the undergraduate program might be because of the limited time allocated for methodology courses and practicum in the program. The two courses allocated for school-based practicum might have put extra burden on the methodology courses forcing teacher educators to give more importance to micro-teachings than covering pedagogical content knowledge. Under a limited time, they might have prioritized the technical course content. Still, this does not seem to be verified by the interviews with teacher educators, because none of them thought that it was necessary to increase the number of methodology courses. After all, the weight of English language courses allocated in the CoHE 2007 program (12 courses) was reduced (to 8 courses) in the FLE program. Another factor behind the lack of attention on some crucial aspects of language teaching could be the lack of enough coordination among the methodology courses. Teacher educators might be thinking that the topics that were left uncovered would be taken care of in another course. With a critical reorganization of the course contents in the methodology component of the FLE program, crucial dimensions of language teaching could be covered in the courses available in the program. One last reason might be the fact that teacher educators might not find the opportunity to foster reflection thoroughly in the limited scope of a methodology course. That might also be the case for addressing issues of critical applied linguistics. They might be thinking that a methodology course is not the right venue for covering these topics when students have more urgent needs as to learning the basics of teaching English. Though this may be true, there seems to be no other course to include these matters in the current program. Therefore, it might be necessary to offer a critical applied linguistics course in the program.

8.2 Specialized Methodology Courses

The specialized methodology courses include three courses offered in junior and senior years of study. They are built onto the content knowledge student teachers acquire in the foundational methodology courses. These courses were considered as "specialized" courses in this study because they have a specific focus area: either a specific age group (i.e. young learners') or a specific area of language teaching (materials development or testing). Each course will be described in detail below.

SMC1 is a course allowing "students to acquire skills necessary for evaluating language teaching materials in current textbooks, adapting or developing materials for language teaching" according to the course outline. While the course allocated three weeks to course book evaluation and two weeks to material adaptation, two weeks were spared for material design as supplementation and whole course design. Student presentations were given four weeks at the end of the semester. 40 % of assessment came from in-class tasks which included writing reflections, problem-solving tasks, and pair/group work activities during the term. The teacher educator (TEB) giving the course was always in the centre of the class lecturing for about one class hour and then giving students complex tasks to be carried out in pairs or in groups. In this class, students were always engaged partly because of the graded in-class tasks and partly because of the success of the teacher educator who achieved to involve the students through interesting and creative activities. The teacher educator was not only teaching the course content, but she was also naturally setting an example to student teachers in organizing pair and group work and preparing engaging hands-on tasks. It was apparent students enjoyed coming to class and they also learnt the subject matter at hand. I remember thinking that it was almost impossible not to learn the course content if you attended the classes. The course was so loaded that there was no time spent for anything extra, even for a little bit of chat. The teacher educator organized the classes so efficiently that she did not allow either students or herself to sit still even a minute. Although a great deal of group-work and pair-work was used in this course, the main responsibility of running the classes was on the shoulders of the teacher-educator. The student teachers only took the floor when the teacher educator asked them to do so.

The teacher educator (TEB) had a professional stance. She looked serious and strict about the subject matter. She was positive, friendly and encouraging towards the students. She lectured the SMC1 course content in an interactive manner. She brought a great deal of materials to class from old course books to teachers' books, from postcards to souvenirs to teach the content. There was no room for boredom in her classes, because she managed to keep students active throughout the course. She used a variety of activities from debates to games, from material evaluation activities to information gap tasks. Students learnt the content by doing. If they were studying external evaluation, they evaluated a variety of course books in class just as in real life. If the topic was to decide whether to choose a published textbook or not, they were given role cards as the coordinator, head of department, teacher, etc. to have a professional discussion simulating real life situations. When they were learning about adaptation, they tried to adapt a certain part of the material as a group. In short, they both learnt about the pedagogical content knowledge and they experienced using that knowledge in practice during the class time.

The SMC1 course content included the stages of curriculum development and the place of materials development in the broader framework of curriculum development. Different types of second and foreign language teaching from EAP to ESP were addressed. The teacher educator frequently stated that no method or technique is positive or negative on its own; it all depends on the context and the students. She very often directed students to question the reasons behind a certain principle in material evaluation or adaptation. The arguments for and against published course books were discussed. The teacher educator drew attention to some opinions in favor of published textbooks which belonged to famous scholars. She underlined the fact that these scholars who were into textbooks were the authors of best-selling textbooks themselves indicating that they had interests arguing for commercial textbooks. Still, the commercialized ELT textbook publishing industry (Gray, 2010) was not discussed. Although the teacher educator referred to some studies investigating hidden curriculum in textbooks in the shape of the avoidance of issues of LGBT, there was not a lengthy discussion on the textbooks as cultural artifacts (Gray, 2010). The function of textbooks to deskill teachers was not mentioned, either, despite the fact that the assigned reading material of the week had

a discussion on the function of textbooks to control the system to maintain the status quo.

There was no attention on the underlying philosophical or political reasons behind the limited choices given to teachers: material selection or adaptation rather than material development. This was in fact in line with the official name of the course which did not include material development. The issue of material development in SMC1 was limited to supplementary materials rather than developing materials independently. Textbook writing was discussed around the topic of designing an ESP course. The teacher educator showed the class a video she made herself interviewing a colleague, who was one of the writers of a co-authored academic English textbook in Turkey. The author of the book described the process of writing the book, and the class had a discussion after watching the video, which could have provided an inspiration for student teachers to imagine being able to write their own textbooks.

The course outline of the second specialized methodology course (SMC2) defined it as "providing students with the theoretical and practical aspects of teaching a specific group of learners." The course dwelled on all aspects of teaching that group of learners from their cognitive and affective characteristics to teaching specific skills or language areas for these types of learners. It also dealt with classroom management and classroom safety and error correction. This course included activity or poster presentations of student teachers as well as a mid-term and a take-home final. The teacher educator (TEH) was always in the center of the class and the students were sitting in rows. The teacher educator presented the course content via power point slides and frequently showed videos of experiments and examples over the projector. The lectures were quite interactive and students were attentive for the most part. There was a cozy classroom atmosphere in which students felt comfortable to speak up.

The teacher educator (TEH) spent most of the SMC2 class time on the language acquisition theory so that student teachers grasped the notion behind teaching a foreign language to this specific age group of students. She also spent some time showing some activities on teaching different skills over the projector, but she did not demonstrate any lessons herself or show videos of real classes. At the end

of some lessons, student teachers took the floor to demonstrate some activities to teach. However, there was limited time for these student demos and the feedback sessions did not receive enough attention. In her feedback, the teacher educator noted that the attention span of this group of students is very short and there should be a lot of variety in the tasks prepared for these learners. She also asked student teachers to create fun, social, spontaneous and interactive lesson plans. At times during the lectures she drew attention to some problematic issues in the Turkish education system such as teachers expecting students to develop only their academic skills neglecting their artistic or kinesthetic skills. TEH also underlined the fact that Turkish culture uses praise very little while praising students carries a great deal of significance especially in teaching young learners'. On the other hand, the teacher educator once raised the issue of honor given to teachers in Scandinavian countries while teaching is not considered as a prestigious profession in Turkey.

This SMC2 course introduced by the CoHE 2007 program is intended to link the theory of language acquisition with the practice of language teaching. Though the theoretical background seems to have provided useful insights to student teachers, the practice of teaching this specific group of learners is postponed to an unknown future. It is not certain whether a methodology course intended for a specific group of learners will reach its purpose when it is not integrated with real life practice. Without student teachers experiencing working with these students in reality, moving beyond a transmission approach in such courses does not seem to be possible. Still, if this course was supported by teacher demonstrations of various techniques to access students of that age and if the student teachers experienced some of those tasks themselves, they could have found it easier to imagine different ways of teaching young kids.

SMC3 is a course which "introduces the basic concepts and principles of language testing and assessment" according to the course outline. This course had equal attention on theoretical background and hands-on activities for the design of assessment tools. The SMC3 course had a mid-term exam as well as a take-home final exam, which included writing a test specification together with designing and evaluating a test. The course also had other assignments, quizzes and in-class tasks. The class size was small including 15 students. The seats were arranged in U-shape

and the teacher educator giving the course (TEF) was always in the center. She was very dynamic, energetic and well-organized. She looked very serious about the course and she always arrived at the classroom earlier than her students. She arranged the seats, organized her materials and always started the class on time. During the class discussions, the teacher educator frequently made jokes and the classroom atmosphere was positive.

In SMC3 course, students were assigned readings from the course materials for each week. The class discussions centered on hands-on tasks which gave students a chance to experiment with the issues covered in the textbook. The teacher educator did not lecture much. Instead, she directed students to reflect on the problem-solving tasks or sample tests she gave them and led the discussion based on these tasks. She also monitored them closely while they were doing pair and group work. Moreover, she gave detailed written feedback to their assignments. The students looked interested in the course content though there happened to be a few students who asked some very simple questions about the content already covered in the class. Yet, the teacher educator was nice and understanding towards students and answered their questions patiently. Despite being approachable, she was strict about the rules she set at the beginning of the semester. She asked students never to be late, as good teachers are always on time. She also wanted them to speak in English all the time and to bring their books to class. Once she said humorously that she looked like a democratic teacher, but she would be the one to say the last word.

The course content included the basic concepts of assessment, test types, characteristics of a good test, and test development techniques for different language skills as well as alternative assessment in line with the 2007 CoHE course description. It was clear that the course helped student teachers in designing and implementing tests. However, the observed classes or the course outline did not include critical content about the consequences of using standardized tests. The use of these tests as control mechanisms (Connell, 2009; Thoma, 2005) was not attended to. The fact that these tests acted as mediums for the justification of existing inequalities (Bourdieu, 1966/2012) was not mentioned. The content of tests like TOEFL and IELTS were discussed in class, but how that these tests were used to increase the profits of the ELT business was not referred to (Templer, 2004). These

critical issues were not addressed perhaps because they did not exist in the official course description or because there was not enough time to deal with the philosophical issues around the testing system.

8.2.1 Discussion of Specialized Methodology Courses

The courses in the categorization of specialized methodology courses provided students with more advanced knowledge building on their earlier knowledge from the foundational methodology courses. These courses (SMC1 and SMC3) aimed to equip student teachers with further professional knowledge base encouraging them to take initiative in material selection, adaptation and design as well as in writing tests. SMC2 course drew the attention of the student teachers to a specific age group, which made a lot of difference in terms of foreign language teaching. In these courses, student micro-teachings were not overused. Developing pedagogical content knowledge through hands-on tasks was given more attention than teaching practice. These tasks looked very effective in giving the teacher candidates a sound professional knowledge and experience. In all these courses, student teachers were encouraged to become reflective with a variety of reflective in-class tasks. Still, as in the foundational methodology courses, these reflective tasks were more like surface reflection tasks than pedagogical or critical tasks, according to Larrivee's (2008) categorization.

When these courses are considered in terms of critical content, it is seen that they also neglected to address the commodification of publication and testing sectors. They did not pay attention to the political dimension of the usage of pre-packaged materials and tests, either. Apart from the limited time allocated to these comprehensive topics in the curriculum, this lack of attention may also stem from the fact that these matters did not find a place for themselves in the major textbooks of the field to mask the reality. This might also have to do with the marginalization of critical and political ideas in the field of English language teaching, as noted earlier by several scholars (Doğançay-Aktuna, 2006; Grabe, Stoller & Tardy, 2001; Pennycook, 1990). One similar reason for the lack of attention on critical issues might be the fact that teacher educators' are directed to see commercial textbooks as curriculum artifacts rather than as cultural artifacts. Besides, teacher educators might

also be affected by the move towards seeing tests as neutral instruments ignoring the social, economical and psychological impact of them (Shohamy, 1998).

8.3 School-Based Practicum Courses

There are only two practice teaching courses offered in the FLE program. The first course is based more on teacher candidates' school observations. The second course dwells more on teaching practice in which teacher candidates are asked to teach at least three times throughout the semester. In both courses, students spend 4 to 6 hours at schools each week. They are assigned to work with mentor teachers at schools and they teach under the supervision of those cooperating teachers at schools. Their university supervisors visit schools a few times throughout the term, but they observe students-teachers only in their final assessed teaching at the end of the semester due to large numbers of students per teacher educator (from 15 to 45). Owing to the limited space given to practice teaching, teacher candidates usually feel very nervous at the beginning of their school visits not knowing how to put into practice what they have been learning for the last three years. The university supervisors, on the other hand, have a hard time finding cooperating schools and qualified mentor teachers to send teacher candidates for school visits. During the class meetings at the university, student teachers and teacher educators often discuss the issues that emerge at their schools. The course requirements of both courses include similar tasks including assessed teaching tasks, reflection tasks on assigned articles and observation tasks.

In SPC1, the teacher-educator (TEB) told students what to do and what not to do at schools from the professional relationship they should maintain with their mentor teachers to the dress codes they should follow. She had a lengthy presentation about the dress code teacher candidates should follow according to the MoNE regulations, but she added that she would not mind having teachers wearing jeans or having long hair if it were her institution. She also encouraged student teachers to be open to learning from their teaching practice as much as possible. In fact, she warned students to be cooperative at school visits a few times during the first weeks of the semester.

During the class discussions, the teacher educator (TEB) often grouped students and gave them tasks for discussion. She directed them to think about the reasons for certain issues about the schools they visited and to suggest solutions. Students had a chance to reflect on some of their observations more deeply in interaction with their group members. While the groups were discussing, the teacher educator also took part in the discussions or monitored them silently. If the group discussions departed from the main point of discussion, she warned the students to stay on task firmly. She also introduced the observation tasks student teachers were going to do at schools observing their mentor teachers. Besides, she asked students their weaknesses in language teaching and presented demo activities to show students how to teach the "th" sound or how to use videos in teaching English.

In SPC2, the teacher educator (TEA) acted as a guide and directed student teachers to reflect on classroom realities, relationship with colleagues, challenging situations, etc. She frequently led discussions on the observations of students during school visits and encouraged student teachers to reflect on the ways to deal with them collaboratively. She also showed some videos on language teaching and asked students some questions to make them think. What is more, she invited guest speakers to her classes to broaden the horizons of her students. She introduced them to the professional teacher associations in the field as well as the professional conferences and leading scholars in the field. She also had an online mentoring project in which she matched the student teachers with former graduates of the FLE program, who were practicing teachers, so that teacher candidates could get feedback from more experienced colleagues. The teacher educator also asked student teachers to video-record their own teaching sessions at schools. Then she met each student and she gave individual feedback to them on their video-recorded teaching performance.

The teacher educator (TEA) had a very positive and understanding attitude towards students. She was humble and told students that she was still learning to teach. She reminded students that they were at the beginning of their career and they would continue to learn more about it in time. She also underlined the importance of problem-solving skills and conflict resolution at the school context, as unexpected events occur each day in the classroom. She emphasized the context-bound nature of

teaching. She asked student teachers to observe students carefully. Though she often gave advice to students, she also allowed them to express their views, and concerns. She usually based her advice on the responses of her students, as she was genuinely interested in hearing student teachers' experiences and reflections.

8.3.1 Discussion of School-Based Practicum Courses

The school-based practicum courses included students visiting schools and teaching at the real-life context for the first time in their senior year. Because the students had a short time at schools and they did not have the responsibility of a class on their own, their experiences were limited. Still, these courses provided them with insight in two consecutive semesters. The teacher educators mostly assumed the role of a facilitator motivating students to share their concerns and emotions. Student teachers were led to evaluate the classroom phenomenon from multiple perspectives. The class meetings mostly focused on discussing students' observations and experiences at the school context. The class discussions revolved around language teaching techniques, classroom management, stages of a lesson, etc. Student teachers were motivated to create engaging, creative lesson plans appropriate for their own settings.

The teacher educators observed in this study directed student teachers to reflect deeply on their school visits in both courses. However, there was not much talk on the inequalities at schools, the students with diverse needs, the hidden curriculum, and so on. Under the heavy focus on the techniques of teaching, reflection on the classroom issues were isolated from their social, political and economical dimensions. The student teachers were directed to explore the micro aspects of classroom teaching leaving aside the macro issues. There were not any tasks which promote student teachers to evaluate their own assumptions or biases about class, ethnicity and gender roles. Student teachers were not asked to critically evaluate the curriculum they teach, the goals of the education system or the methods they used.

8.4 Summary of Observation Analysis

The findings of observation analysis revealed that most of the observed courses focused on the techniques of language teaching more than the theoretical and

philosophical foundations of those teaching strategies. The heavy focus on technique, modeling and practice left little room for concepts, attitudes and emotions. Though student teachers were encouraged to reflect on the methods, materials and classroom events they faced, seldom were they exposed to critical content. Considering that the type of reflection students were directed was surface level in general, the dominant teacher educator paradigm in the observed methodology and practice teaching courses seem to be technicist.

This finding may be interpreted as the natural result of the technicist teacher education curriculum the FLE program has. Within the restricted space of the curriculum, teacher educators may not have had much space to follow the teacher education philosophy they had. In spite of their efforts to move the program to a more reflective dimension, they seem not to have achieved their aim fully. The underlying causes behind their relative failure will be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 9

CONCLUSION

This qualitative case study investigated teacher roles in a pre-service teacher education program in Turkey. This chapter will first summarize the findings from document, interview and observation analyses. Thereafter, this conclusion chapter will discuss the political-economical, socio-cultural and institutional reasons behind the adoption of certain teacher roles giving an answer to the last research question of the study. Finally, the implications of the study will be provided with suggestions for further research.

9.1 Review of Findings

This dissertation study addressed the following research questions:

- 1) What teacher roles are conveyed by the documents generated by different educational institutions (namely the CoHE, the MoNE, the university, the faculty of education and the foreign language education department)?
- 2) What teacher roles does the FLE program prepare teacher candidates for?
 - a) What are student, teacher educator and program administrator views about the teacher roles the FLE program fosters?
 - b) What teacher roles are fostered in methodology and school-based practicum components of the FLE program?
- 3) What are the political-economic, socio-cultural and institutional reasons behind the support for and the adoption of these differing teacher roles?

The discussion below will follow the order of research questions.

9.1.1 Teacher Roles Conveyed By Different Educational Institutions

The document analysis showed that different educational institutions in Turkey conveyed differing roles for teachers (see Table 19, on page 167). The

Council of Higher Education and the Ministry of Education openly defined a reflective practitioner teacher in their documents. However, the CoHE's National Qualifications Framework and the university documents set educating transformative intellectual university graduates as their goals. While the Faculty of Education's website depicted a passive technician teacher, the FLE's document on program aims and outcomes revealed a reflective practitioner teacher to be educated in the program.

9.1.2 Teacher Roles in the FLE Program

The teacher roles underscored in the daily reality of the FLE program were explored by interviews and classroom observations. The interview analysis revealed that the FLE program does not have a specific focus in educating teacher candidates. Although the recently prepared program documents depicted a reflective practitioner to be educated, the participant teacher educators did not define a clear teacher target the program aimed to educate. Student participants also agreed that the FLE program did not have a specific target in preparing teachers. For them, the program was rather designed for educating prospective scholars, university instructors or private school teachers than preparing public school teachers.

As for the characteristics of the teachers educated in the program, the participants reported that a FLE graduate was intended to be an active, reflective teacher who would teach English in an interesting way. However, both student participants and teacher educators did not think that aim was reached completely. Some student teachers did not find themselves competent enough to work at public schools. They said that they did not know how to address diverse students or how to teach without technology with limited resources. Some student participants also complained that they were directed to act within a fixed framework in some courses, which - they thought - curtailed their creativity. Although the student-participants believed that they had social responsibilities, some of them admitted that they had learnt to care only for themselves disregarding the needs of the public.

The findings of observation analysis support this finding, as well. A great majority of the observed courses focused only on the how of language teaching excluding sociocultural and political dimensions of education, perhaps because of

their given course contents. Even though teacher educators led student teachers to reflect on the methods, materials and classroom events on the basis of the needs of their students, there was not much discussion on why and to whom and with which materials they were teaching English in the first place. A critical evaluation of the textbooks or the testing system for the hidden curricula seemed to be missing. There were few instances when student teachers were asked to examine their own beliefs in the observed courses. In other words, based on classroom observations, the FLE program seemed to focus more on equipping students with technical knowledge.

Despite the fact that the FLE program documents defined a reflective practitioner to be educated, in practice the FLE program did not seem to have a shared aim in preparing a particular type of teacher internalized by the academic staff. That seems to be the reason why there were differing messages sent out to students about the roles they should assume. In some courses, they were asked to work within a restricted framework whereas in others they were encouraged to be creative, active, reflective teachers. Student participants reported that there were a few courses (e.g. some literature and education courses) which provided students with a chance to think more critically questioning their assumptions and beliefs, but that was not systematic, either, because the course contents differed according to the instructor teaching the course. Students taking the same course in different sections did not always encounter the same amount of intellectual challenge, according to the reports of student teachers. In spite of these varying messages, one could argue that the FLE program was characterized by its heavy focus on techniques of language teaching with some emphasis on reflection.

Even if student teachers were asked to write reflections in some courses and they were asked to evaluate their own teaching practice, it might not be possible to claim that FLE program prepares reflective practitioners. For Zeichner and Liston (1996), to become a reflective practitioner, it is not sufficient to evaluate one's own teaching: "If a teacher never questions the goals and values that guide his or her work, the context in which he or she teaches, or never examines his or her assumptions" (p.1) he/she cannot be called a reflective practitioner. Though some participant-students talked about a few courses which led them to question their own assumptions, the interview or observation data did not lend enough support to argue

that these were systematic. The observed courses mostly depended on skills and techniques leaving aside attitudes and emotions. Even the seminars in practice teaching courses allocated more space to issues like problem behaviors at schools, what to observe at schools, and how to give instructions, etc. than providing student teachers with a chance to express their concerns, emotions or attitudes towards their profession. On the other hand, the limited number of practice teaching courses offered in the senior year of the FLE program did not give student teachers much chance to learn to teach let alone developing the ability of reflection in action. When students go to schools for practice teaching, they usually observe their mentor teachers or students. Seldom do they have a chance to teach. No action research tasks are assigned to students in the FLE program. What is more, as the program did not offer any curriculum development courses, another important responsibility of reflective practitioners to take part in curricular developments was not addressed in the FLE program, either. Therefore, the reflection emphasized in the FLE program appears to be surface reflection in Larrivee's (2008) categorization. The student teachers are encouraged to care about the methods and techniques they use without questioning the predetermined goals. In other words, the FLE program does not seem to lead student teachers to problematize those goals (pedagogical reflection) or to think about the moral or ethical implications of their actions (critical reflection). This is in line with the findings of Gümüşok (2014), which showed that student teacher reflections were mostly descriptive not reaching higher levels of reflection.

As for educating transformative intellectual teachers, student teachers noted that the program did not have such a target. For them, only a few instructors aimed to educate transformative intellectual teachers. The views of participant faculty also supported this view, as many of the participant teacher educators either did not see such a mission for themselves or they did not believe they could do anything to transform their students. The class observations also confirmed these views. There was little coverage of critical issues in the observed classes. There was not much discussion on the social responsibilities of teachers or the significance of working for the public good. The power issues in English language teaching or the political-economical dimension of the field of foreign language teaching were not touched upon. There was little mention of the issues of linguistic imperialism, the spread of

English or the post-method condition. The issues of gender discrimination, class inequalities or racial issues were not included either in course materials or in class discussions. In other words, social justice issues did not find much space in methodology or practicum components of the FLE program. If the definition of transformative intellectuals by Giroux and McLaren (1986, see Chapter 1.2.3, p. 11) is taken into account, the FLE program does not seem to be educating teachers as transformative intellectuals because the student teachers are not treated as critical agents, dialogue does not seem to assume critical position in methodology or practicum courses, the way knowledge is produced and distributed is not questioned, and knowledge is not made emancipatory.

In conclusion, despite the efforts of some faculty to include reflective and transformative practices in their courses, the FLE program seems to prepare passive technicians under the overwhelming influence of the technicist program introduced by the Council of Higher Education.

9.2 Discussion on the Underlying Reasons

As the above discussion displays, the analysis of interview and observation data revealed that the FLE program was not able to get away from preparing teachers as passive technicians for the most part. This was, however, at odds with what the document analysis had revealed both for the aims of the FLE program and the goals set by other higher educational institutions. This section will discuss the possible underlying reasons behind this finding and will thus answer the third research question of the study.

Though the discussion here on the underlying reasons is divided into different parts, these reasons in fact form a complex whole not totally distinct from each other. As Althusser (1994) argued, each cultural product is a result of a complex network of interactions not determined solely by the economic system or the work of an individual. Thus, despite being presented under different subsections, the reasons stated here all have an influence on each other.

9.2.1 Political-Economic Reasons

As discussed in the historical background of the study, Turkey is a country operating in the international capitalist system. From a Marxist perspective, this

system is based on the clash between those who own the means of production, and those who have to live by selling their labor power. For Marx, just as the means of production, dominant classes also govern the production of ideas to protect their own existence and the status quo. They shape the consciousness of working classes by disseminating a dominant ideology, which people take for granted without questioning because they were born into it (Althusser, 1994). In a social climate in which the ruling classes influence the public opinion by the use of ideological state apparatuses, educational institutions become one of the key institutions for the reproduction of the existing social order (Althusser, 1994).

If the findings of the study are interpreted against this theoretical background, one would not be surprised to find that English teacher candidates enrolled in the FLE program are prepared as passive technicians. As the main purpose of the institutions of ideological state apparatus is to create false consciousness among their students by teaching them to act as they are told and to obey the rules set by the dominant classes, one would not expect them to prepare transformative intellectuals. Although the CoHE 2007 program documents asserted that the aim was to create problem-solving intellectual teachers rather than technicians who implement what they are told, the distribution of courses across the curricula as well as the course contents demonstrate that the Council might only be paying lip service to educating reflective teachers. Apparently, as an institution of ideological state apparatus, the CoHE introduced a technicist system of teacher education with the participation of some university professors and covered it with a claim to educate problem-solving reflective teachers. For those academics who took part in the development of teacher education programs in 1997 and in 2006, this structural change in teacher education programs might have represented a radical change for the better because of the fact that the pedagogical content courses and practice teaching courses were increased. However, trying to ameliorate some problematic parts in teacher education programs, they might have lost the bigger picture.

In designing this technicist teacher education program, the CoHE was not alone. International agencies such as the European Union, OECD and the World Bank also had their influence on the education system in Turkey to ensure the maintenance of the world economic system. These international agencies attempt to

standardize education systems so that they are able to exert a tight control on teachers not allowing them to go beyond the prescribed content. The interventions on the Turkish teacher education system in 1997 and 2006 by organizations like the World Bank under the name of increasing teacher quality have worked for the insulation of teacher candidates from the political, social and economic foundations of education (Okçabol, 2012; Özsoy & Ünal, 2010; Taşdan & Çuhadaroğlu, 2006; Yılmaz, 2014). Teacher candidates' ability to take part in curriculum development efforts was curtailed at the onset of their career. As Güven (2008) notes, teacher candidates taking only pedagogical, methodological and subject matter courses may have difficulty in conceptualizing the problems they encounter in the classroom. This isolation from the broader factors at work in education could explain the lack of self-confidence and competence the FLE student teacher participants talked about in teaching students with diverse needs at public schools with limited resources. The intervention of the international agencies on the Turkish education system was not a new phenomenon, though. After Turkey became members of international organizations, the village institutes had been closed and in 1958, National Educational Council was formed to guide the training of teachers with the support of American Ford Association. Thus, the mission of educating teachers as transformative intellectuals was blocked at an early age.

In a similar vein, the Ministry of National Education prepared teacher competencies with the initiation of the European Union. Though these competencies depict a professional reflective teacher who teaches students learning to learn, this teacher's decision making skills are very restricted. The teacher defined in the Ministry of Education documents does not take part in curriculum development efforts or does not question the predetermined aims of the program. Her only mission is to know the objectives of the national education system and to implement them. Yet, this teacher takes part in school development efforts in line with the School Based Professional Development System brought by the EU. Even though this policy might appear as if it accords freedom to teachers to improve their school settings, it might actually lead teachers and school administrations to create their own resources with the decreased funds given to public schools. In fact, in the current system of education in Turkey, teachers do not even have the freedom to choose their own

textbooks and they are controlled by an abundance of standardized tests in every level of education. Under the circumstances, rather than being problem-solvers, they are reduced to the status of technicians (Yıldız, 2013).

Since the adoption of neoliberal economic policies in early 1980s, the education system has been commercialized and commodified. Due to cuts in public expenditures, public schools and universities started to suffer from a lack of enough resources. The FLE department is also a victim of these financial restrictions. The department does not have well-illuminated comfortable classes, computer rooms or recreation areas. What is worse, the number of students per professor is 33 for faculties of education, but it is lower than 20 students in other faculties (Özoğlu et al., 2013) due to the CoHE interventions in the number of students to be enrolled in undergraduate programs. The FLE program has to admit about 110 students each year, which results in large classes. The number of students per instructor is high. What is more, eight to fourteen part-time instructors are employed each semester to teach departmental must courses. Because of the low amount of money paid to part-time instructors in return for such a demanding job, there is a high rate of turnover in part-time faculty. As part-time teachers do not have a chance to develop expertise, the student teachers complain about the quality of the courses offered by some of them. On the other hand, the intensification of the workload of the full-time academic staff seems to have a negative influence on the quality of education offered to teacher candidates. Dealing with a heavy teaching load, having little control over their educational responsibilities under the CoHE program, and trying to meet the publication criteria for promotions, some of the FLE staff might be suffering from burnout and struggling to survive financially due to their low salaries. Looking for ways to get individual promotions or to earn extra income, some faculty members might have ended up ignoring their social or educational responsibilities. The pressure to publish might also lead them to engage in publishable research rather than their own independent research agendas (Cangızbay, 2012; Okçabol, 2007).

9.2.2 Socio-Cultural Reasons

Other than adorning people with the ideology of the ruling classes, educational institutions also reproduce and justify the existing social roles according

to critical theorists (Althusser, 1994; Bourdieu, 1983/2001). According to the correspondence principle, the socio-economic status of their families is highly predictive on the future professions of children. If they are coming from lower class backgrounds, it is highly probable that they will be workers. Middle-class children mostly occupy middle-class positions when they grow up. Those coming from privileged families maintain their privileges by using their social capital and become intellectuals, managers, and business people. For Gramsci (2000), people are taught to accept the existing social division of labor as it is through hegemony which operates via mass media, political parties and educational institutions. As individuals living and educated in this system, the FLE staff and students - including myself - might also have taken their share of the hegemonic order internalizing these social roles given to them. Rather than challenging this unequal and unjust system which might also lead them to contribute to the reproduction of the existing system, they might have learnt to take it for granted, as well. Without realizing their own possible state of false consciousness, it would not be possible for either the academic staff or the teacher candidates to take initiative to change this system producing inequalities. If this is the case, it might be considered quite normal for the FLE program not to prepare change agents.

According to Marxist theory, in the capitalist mode of production, laborers, whether they are white-collars or blue-collars, have a secondary place in the relations of production. As their labor is controlled by their employers tightly, they have limited chance to be creative. Thus, it is inevitable that they are alienated from their products on which they have no control and they are estranged to their activity for which they have no decision-making power. This process also makes them alienated to themselves and to their colleagues. As Derber (1983) argued, for professionals like engineers and scientists, the situation is slightly different. Even though they lost their control over their product with the onset of the capitalist mode of production (ideological proletarianization) as salaried dependent workers, they kept their independence on the process of work itself to a certain extent. Derber (1983) claimed that the degree of the loss of control over the process of work (technical proletarianization) may change depending on the context. For Derber (1983), professionals may be facing some form of technical proletarianization, but they may

still have their technical skills and highly specialized knowledge. In the FLE faculty's case, this seems to hold true, as well. Due to the nature of their academic work, the FLE academics have advanced knowledge in their fields and they continue to learn. Yet, at the same time, they seem to be face to face with a deskilling process (Braverman, 1974). The tight control exercised by the CoHE does not leave them much space to develop their own teacher education curricula. In line with the Taylorist notion of division of labor, the planning of teacher education is made by a group of experts at the Council while the rest of the teacher educators around the country, including the FLE staff, are given the role of executing the program designed by them. Because they have to play by the rules of the CoHE, they do not have a chance to renew the curricula. If they had a chance to change the program completely as they wished, they could have shaped the program according to the needs of their own context. Within the limited space left to them by the CoHE, all they can do now is to change a few courses or to modify the content of courses. However, they do not seem to have a chance to make a substantial change in the program; they have to follow a program which was designed by the CoHE. Yet, as of June 2015, I have heard that the CoHE started to adopt a more flexible approach towards faculties of education and has started to approve changes in teacher education programs. If that really is the case, teacher educators may get empowered to create a change in their programs from now on.

The deskilling process faced by professionals is not limited to the technical dimension of their work, as mentioned earlier. Professionals also suffer from ideological proletarianization when they lose control over the end products of their work (Derber, 1983). By losing the sense of purpose or mission in work, Derber (1983) argued, professionals are reduced to the role of technicians. This might be the case for the FLE faculty because they have limited control over the students they educate, as indicated by some participant teacher educators. As seen in the interview analysis, some academic staff said that the mission of the program was set by the CoHE while one other teacher educator stated that the FLE program worked as an intermediary institution supplying degrees. In fact, the control of the CoHE over the program seems to have been taken for granted by the faculty, who depend on the Council for their jobs. Derber (1983) argues that there are two reasons for the lack of

resistance by professionals against the use of their labor for the purposes they do not choose. One of them is "desensitization" - not claiming responsibility over the social or moral results of their work. The other is "ideological cooptation," according to which professionals redefine their mission in line with the goals of the organization they work for (Derber, 1983). If the participant academics' reports are taken into consideration, both of them seem to be at work among the FLE staff. While some of them noted that they did not think that it was their responsibility to transform their students (desensitization), some stated that they did not have grand missions for themselves other than doing their job (ideological cooptation). As Derber (1983) noted, professionals use these defense mechanisms not to lose their jobs or their social benefits, which is quite understandable.

Though it might be argued that such an interpretation might not acknowledge the agency of the academic staff in the program, that is not the case. Though some emeritus professors have stated that it is possible to resist the policies of the CoHE, they also stated they were "scared" of the institution. One teacher educator (EPC) admitted that she avoided talking about political issues in her classes because she did not want to risk her career in the politically hostile environment in Turkey. As the CoHE restricted the autonomy of universities financially, administratively and ideologically, it is not possible to say that universities in Turkey are home for democratic or scientific ideas to flourish. Because scholars are under pressure to express their ideas openly due to the existence of the CoHE, which has the right to start investigations against academic staff under the regulation of discipline, they do not appear to be free to conduct research independently or to convey their ideas freely. On the other hand, Turkish higher education system has historically witnessed academics being thrown out of their jobs because of their political beliefs. In fact, as Timur (2000) maintained, Turkey has never enjoyed a real freedom of thought or a truly autonomous university atmosphere. Still, this does not mean that the FLE faculty has passively accepted the ideology of the CoHE. For one thing, the FLE program offers extra literature and linguistics courses to provide students with some intellectual and academic background. For another, there are courses and instructors in the program that attempt to direct students to think and act more critically, as reported by student participants. However, these individual attempts,

including the efforts of some faculty to change the course contents of their courses, to resist the CoHE's goals and to empower their students, do not seem to have been sufficient to educate teachers as intellectuals, because educating an intellectual teacher requires an independent teacher education program developed around a clear purpose and a collaborative working atmosphere. Neither the current teacher education system determined by the CoHE, nor the highly competitive higher education system in Turkey seems to allow the academic staff to get together to develop a teacher education curriculum which aims to educate intellectual teachers for the moment.

On the other hand, coming mostly from middle class or working class families and having been educated in teacher training high schools for acting as mid-level professionals, it might be difficult for FLE students to imagine a different role for themselves. As the economic system produces different types of laborers in different types of schools to meet the labor needs of the system, students are treated differently in different types of schools (Anjon, 2011). FLE students, who were allocated the task of working as teachers in line with their class backgrounds, did not have a chance to develop their academic or intellectual skills or to boost their creativity at the middle class schools they were educated in. This might explain the relative lack of self-confidence or the fear of getting out of their comfort zones experienced by some of them. On the other hand, inheriting a relatively lower cultural capital from their families, some FLE students might have got confused not knowing how to play "the game" at a prestigious public university, which usually admits students with higher cultural capital. Ironically, most FLE students do not seem to be aware of this process of symbolic violence and blame themselves for their failures. Having accepted the social role they were given, most do not seem to be asking for more.

The FLE students, who were able to come to this university despite their relatively disadvantaged backgrounds with the help of the extra points accorded to them in the university exam, might have also got confused between the direction shown to them by their prestigious public university and their social backgrounds. Some of them might feel at home teaching students coming from similar backgrounds at public schools. Yet, they seem to get negative reactions from their

professors or peers in the department or from the public due to their preferences to teach at public schools probably because people have internalized the misconception that graduates of internationally recognized universities should work at distinguished institutions. If they choose to work at public schools, some of them feel like failures. What is worse, they do not feel themselves competent enough to take the challenge of teaching at public schools because they do not learn the theoretical background to understand and act according to the realities of the public schools. Neither are they given much chance to practice their teaching skills in the program. They only feel successful and competent if they prefer to become scholars or teachers/instructors at distinguished institutions, because the education they receive at their university seems to prepare them for those positions.

9.2.3 Institutional Reasons

Similar to the distinction of schools according to the needs of the economic system, there seems to be a differentiation of higher education institutions. While there seem to be prestigious universities reserved for educating the top executives of the country, there are also other universities for educating students as mid-level professionals. The technical research university this study was conducted in seems to be designed for preparing the top engineers, and executives and scientists of the country admitting top-ranking students in the university exam. Because the university apparently aimed to educate top-level professionals, it had not established a faculty of education in the first place probably because the notion of a faculty of education did not match with the general mission of the university assuming teachers were mid-level professionals. Therefore, the university did not have a faculty of education until it was imposed by the CoHE in 1982. When the faculty of education was founded, the FLE department seems to have also adopted the mission of the university to educate top-professionals in the education sector rather than so-called "ordinary" teachers. This mission of the FLE program seems to be at the heart of the confusion in the program. Situated at a prestigious public university, the FLE program might be following the general mission of the university preparing teacher candidates for academic positions or for positions at private institutions. Thus, it

might be a conscious choice for the program to stay detached from the reality of public schools.

On the other hand, though the university is known for its revolutionary ideas and its manifesto claims its students and graduates can change the world, it seems to have become integrated into the neoliberal system not challenging it any more. To create itself extra funds, the university administration opened a private foundation school in 1989. By offering high-quality education to the children of the rich, the foundation school of the university seems to serve for the reproduction of the existing inequalities in the society. Besides, the university established the first Technopolis of the country working in cooperation with the business in 2001. What is more, the university runs private joint programs with an American university so that the academic staff could get extra income. The academic staff are encouraged to carry out projects in line with the interests of industrial sector so that they can reach a better quality of life than possible with their little amount of salaries. Under the circumstances, despite its rhetoric of creating change in the world, it does not seem plausible for this university to educate change agents. Still, one cannot dismiss the influence of the democratic campus environment on FLE students, as the interview findings indicated. The respect for diversity on campus seems to have helped FLE students to transform some of their biases and stereotypes about "the other."

Coming from middle or upper-middle class families, the FLE faculty were educated either at private schools or highly selective public schools. Only one participant teacher educator had the experience of working at public schools. The others had all studied or worked at the prestigious universities in Turkey. Thus, it could be natural for the FLE faculty having difficulty in imagining or addressing the reality of non-selective public schools in Turkey. Besides, the FLE faculty has diverse fields of study; some of them do not even specialize in the field of education. This problem seems to originate from the very foundation of the program by the CoHE in 1982. Because the university administration was forced to open a FLE program, the faculty offering English language and literature courses in the department of humanities were given the responsibility of establishing the FLE department. Apparently, the university administration did not consider whether the faculty members offering literature or linguistics courses had an interest or

competence in educating teachers. Though academic staff specializing in foreign language education were hired later on, the faculty specializing in English literature or linguistics had to stay in the foreign language education department because the university administration refused to establish an English literature or linguistics program. Thus, in addition to the orientation of the university to educate scholars or professionals to work at distinguished institutions, the diverse specialization areas of the FLE faculty seem to have influenced the lack of direction in the program. While the faculty with literary or linguistics backgrounds seem to direct students to becoming scholars, those with an educational background might be motivating students to furthering their knowledge base in educational issues. Yet, they may be ignoring the needs of teachers to work at public institutions.

9.3 Implications of the Study

This dissertation study has implications both on the macro and micro scale due to its broader scope of analysis. The discussion below will suggest some major political and educational actions to be taken in Turkey for this complex issue, which cannot be solved with a simple set of suggestions.

9.3.1 Implications for the Higher Education System in Turkey

As a country dependent on the operation of global economic system, it would be naive to expect Turkey to act as an independent country in its political, economic, social and educational decision-making processes. However, it is possible to hope and struggle for Turkey to gain independence and to make decisions for the good of its citizens, a majority of which are exploited by the existing order of things. It is also possible to work for a more democratic, more equitable and more just country in which no one oppresses another. In such a country, education institutions would not exist for teaching people to obey the rules, but to develop their abilities. In such a country, all schools and institutes of education would be public including higher education institutions. In such a country in which a great amount of general budget is allocated for education, universities would be accessible to all people regardless of their class, gender or ethnic background and they would work for doing research for the good of the people. In such a country, knowledge and education would not be treated as commodities to be bought and sold. In such a country, teachers would be

educated to work as organic intellectuals to develop their students' intellectual faculties regardless of their backgrounds.

Until such an independent country adopting a true democracy is constructed, it is still possible to make some major changes to improve the higher education system in Turkey. The most important step to be taken seems to be taking up policies for the welfare of the public, which means increasing the budget for public schools and universities. Private institutions of education should be closed. Universities fully funded by the state should not feel obliged to engage in creating their own funds by serving the market. They should enjoy full autonomy from the intervention of any institutions - state or business. Only if universities become independent from administrative or political interventions, can they engage truly in scientific endeavors and educate free thinking intellectuals. Universities should not have restrictions in using the state funds, either. They should hire as many academic and administrative staff as they need for being able to offer the highest quality of service. The administration of universities should also be democratic: all members of the universities - including academic staff of all ranks, the administrative staff and the students should take part in university administration. Universities should be able to select the students they want according to the criteria they set for themselves and they should prepare their own programs without the intervention of any institutions in close collaboration with other universities. The number of students admitted to each program should be determined by the departments running the programs in line with the needs of the country.

University professors should benefit from academic freedom and should not be subject to any investigations due to their scientific or educational work. They should all have job security and should not be overworked. They should earn salaries quite enough for them to lead a good quality life not feeling forced to go after profitable projects. Their promotion should not be based only on their publications. Their service for the public good as well as their educational activities should also be taken into account. They should not be encouraged to make publications solely in international journals to the disadvantage of scientific works to be written in Turkish about matters of significance to Turkey.

9.3.2 Implications for the Teacher Education System in Turkey

For teacher education institutions to provide good quality education, they should be independent from any international or national interventions. Each department of education should build their own teacher education curricula in collaboration with other departments around the country. Even if the basic principles of a national teacher education policy are going to be created, it should be the result of a bottom-up practice growing from the demands of teacher educators, student teachers and the public. As earlier research studies have shown (Grossman et al., 2007; Kurt, 2010, Uztosun & Troudi, 2015), a top-down exercise is not welcome by the agents in the system and it does not reach its aims. In developing curricula, the basic elements of curriculum development process should be taken into account. A needs and situation analysis should be conducted. The program philosophy and goals should be determined as well as the evaluation system. The program evaluation should become an integral part of the ongoing curriculum development process (Uztosun & Troudi, 2015).

On the other hand, the facilities and the infrastructure of the faculties of education should be improved to attract teacher candidates to faculties of education. The teaching load of the academic staff should be decreased to spare time for research and intellectual development. The number of students per instructor should also become lower so that a quality education could be offered to teacher candidates. As the quality of education increases at faculties of education, so should the importance attached to the teaching profession. Faculties of education should give extra significance to underlining the value of teaching profession so as to make sure teacher candidates have high self-esteem and self-confidence as teachers.

As the findings of the study suggest, participant teacher candidates believe that they are not competent enough to address the needs of diverse learners or to teach at technologically less advanced classrooms. They also stated that they needed more practice opportunities because they are not content with the contrived atmosphere of micro-teachings in their own university classrooms. This finding is consistent with the findings of earlier research, which demonstrated that student teachers did not have enough teaching practice (Coskun & Daloglu, 2010; Enginarlar, 1997; Eret, 2013; Sarı, Karakuş & Çuhadar, 2014; Seferoglu, 2006;

Soruc & Cepik, 2013; Şallı-Çopur, 2008). Because the program has two courses reserved for practice teaching in the last year of the undergraduate program, it is quite normal for student teachers not to gain enough experience in teaching. As discussed earlier, this issue of practice in fact lies at the heart of the technicist program at hand, which is based on the understanding that teacher candidates should be taught how to teach first and they should implement what they learnt afterwards. For teacher candidates to develop a true teacher identity and to get an in-depth understanding of the teaching profession, the teacher education programs in Turkey should move beyond this technicist teacher education curriculum. As Schön (1987) argued, professional education should give priority to practice rather than delaying it until students are given enough content knowledge, as student teachers should learn to teach by doing. Therefore, practice teaching courses should become central to the program beginning from the sophomore year. Student teachers should actively be involved in reflection *in* and *on* action. Moreover, in practicum courses student teachers should teach actively as opposed to the current practice now in which student teachers spend most of their time observing their mentor teachers. Unless teacher candidates spend their times at schools teaching themselves in real classrooms, the practicum courses will not reach their aims of providing teachers with practice opportunities. As long as student teachers do not engage in real teaching practice, it does not seem probable that they will overcome their feelings of boredom observing the same mentor teacher in repetitive activities throughout the semester, as shown by earlier research (Enginarlar, 1997; Seferoglu, 2006).

To grant student teachers ample opportunities for teaching practice, Turkey could take the teaching practicum implementations in the Netherlands as an example (Lunenberg, Snoek & Swennen, 2000). In the Netherlands, teacher education students have teaching practice starting from their freshman year. In Turkey, student teachers could also become teaching assistants starting from their sophomore year. They can spend one day at schools observing mentor teachers in their second year and the number of days they spend at schools could increase year by year. In their senior year, they could teach three or four days a week and meet one day at their universities for seminars. Such an intensive program at schools can help students link the theory they learn with practice. They can also learn to reflect in and on action

with the help of their mentor and supervising teachers at the very beginning of their career. An intensive school-based practicum could also allow student teachers to see the complexity of teaching and to solve problems in the light of the theory they read, the seminar discussions and their own problem-solving skills. The school-based practice may also help student teachers perceive their education or methodology courses not as ordinary subject matter courses to be completed to graduate, but as foundational courses for their professional practice.

One might question the feasibility of such a suggestion in the current Turkish education system. Yet, with careful planning by the Ministry, education faculty students could be assigned to different schools each year. This extra support by education students could ease the work of practicing teachers to a certain extent, as student teachers would also be responsible for the development of the students. In their senior years, student teachers could be assigned to schools where there is a shortage of full-time teachers and they could assume the responsibility of a real class on their own.

Assigning student teachers to schools would not solve the problem, though. As earlier research (Enginarlar, 1997; Seferoglu, 2006) showed, student teachers complained about the limited feedback and guidance they received from their mentor teachers. This problem could be solved by a well-organized mentorship program to be developed by the Ministry of Education together with universities. In this program, the Ministry could prepare a documentation of the qualifications and experience of all teachers employed at public or private schools in each city where a faculty of education resides. Teachers with higher qualifications (with MA or PhD degrees in education or with international teaching certifications) as well as a minimum of 5 years of experience could be called for participation in mentorship programs. Those teachers who had previous experience working with student teachers could also take part in these programs as long as they meet the minimum requirements of having a degree in the field of education and 5 years of experience in teaching. Mentorship programs could be designed as intensive orientation programs in which practicing teachers could be educated on providing guidance and feedback to student teachers. Those mentor teachers who have enough competence and experience in working with teacher candidates can also share their insights during the

orientation programs with their colleagues and they could assume the responsibility of running the mentorship programs in the upcoming years. The mentorship program participants should meet at the end of each semester to improve the mentoring practices going on at schools. In this new mentorship system, only those teachers who take part in these professional mentorship programs and certified as mentor teachers should work as cooperating teachers. Besides, these mentor teachers should be granted social and financial benefits not to mention a decrease in their teaching loads. If the number of those teachers having necessary qualifications does not meet the demand for mentor teachers, all teachers with a qualification in education and with 5 years of teaching experience could apply for the program. In that case, the length and content of the mentorship program could be extended to include a range of issues from language teaching to educational theory.

For foreign language teacher education, student teachers should also be able to have teaching experience at the higher education level considering that some graduates of foreign language education departments become instructors at the universities. Depending on the partnership to be established with the English departments of universities, student teachers could be provided the option to work as teaching assistants at the university level, as well. A special mentorship program could be offered to university instructors to work as mentors. They should also benefit from additional financial resources and a decrease in their workload in return for their work for teacher education.

Another implication of earlier research (Enginarlar, 2007; Soruc & Cepik, 2013) was the lack of cooperation between university supervisors and mentor teachers. For the atmosphere of collaboration between university faculty and practising mentor teachers to advance, the hierarchical relationship between the academic staff and teachers should come to an end, as suggested by Zeichner and Flessner (2009). School teachers and university professors must attend the mentorship programs together and be open to learning from the experience of the each other. School teachers should also teach with the teacher educators on campus while the university staff teach at least three hours of English (or their own subject matter) once every two years either at the schools or higher education institutions not to get distanced from the reality of classroom teaching. They should also develop

projects for the well-being of their educational institutions in which teacher candidates, mentor teachers and university faculty work in collaboration.

For university staff to devote time for this kind of work, their work in teacher education should not be marginalized, as indicated by some participant teacher educators in this study and by the findings of an earlier study (Ellis et al., 2014). Their labor at schools should be taken into consideration in promotion. They should at least get a reduction in their workload so that they could also spare some time for research and professional development. Teacher educators should get extra financial and social benefits for their labor intensive work at schools. Besides, for the paperwork for the organization of partner schools and mentor teachers, assistance of the secretarial staff should be maintained. The number of students per faculty should not be more than 12 students for quality supervision to be offered.

Building a practicum based teacher education program and providing good mentoring to student teachers would not guarantee that teacher candidates become reflective teachers, though. A seminar allowing students to discuss their experiences and insights from their teaching practice should be offered each semester. In this course, student teachers should be directed to question their assumptions by class discussions, journal writing, narratives, autobiographies, support groups and peer coaching, as suggested by Larrivee (2008). In these seminars, they should also talk about their thoughts, feelings and ideas about their own roles as teachers. In fact, each course offered in the program should build bridges between the theory and the practice students have at schools. In addition, students should be asked to carry out action research projects for their own classes. What is more, student teachers should also develop projects with the school community both to contribute to the change efforts and to experience the life of students outside school in their own communities. In this way, skills of student teachers to take civic responsibility and to engage in social action would be developed.

To compensate for the disregard of reflective teaching to critical social issues, the teacher education curriculum should offer foundational educational courses like educational sociology, educational politics, educational economics and philosophy of education. The mere existence of these courses would not be enough for student teachers to question the function of education systems or the reproduction of

inequalities at schools, though. These courses should divert student teachers to think critically on their own class, gender and racial backgrounds and to see the effects of education on their own self-concepts. In order to introduce student teachers with injustice, they could be asked to watch videos, and attend workshops, as suggested by Reed and Black (2006). Guest speakers could be invited. Besides, students should be assigned to work at different types of schools in diverse neighborhoods for them to try different ways of solving various problems with the support of their mentor and supervising teachers. The teacher education program should also have a curriculum development course for students to be able to conceptualize and to feel empowered to build, evaluate or redesign a curriculum. There should also be a critical pedagogy course discussing the banking of education and hidden curriculum so that student teachers can interpret their experience at schools from a larger perspective, as suggested by Mohamed and Malik (2014). They should also have courses on the Turkish education system dealing with the crucial issues in the system so as to make them conceptualize the problems they see at schools within a theoretical framework. There should be a special course for the discussion of current issues in education in which political issues, especially those relevant to education are discussed. Students should take courses on the comparative education systems around the world to broaden their perspectives. Students should also be offered courses on the critical reading of history, culture, language and power, as suggested by Giroux and McLaren (1986).

For teacher candidates to embrace democratic values, however, the teacher education program they are enrolled at should also be democratic giving student teachers room for the administration of the program and negotiating curricula (Aksu et al., 2010; Yogev and Michaeli, 2011). Teacher candidates should not be isolated from the issues relevant to the operation of the program. The courses offered in the program should be based on dialogue where student teachers become teachers and teacher educators become students, as suggested by Freire (1970) and Gramsci (2000).

9.3.3 Implications for the Foreign Language Teacher Education Programs

In addition to the suggestions given above in general about the teacher education programs in Turkey, this study has implications for foreign language teacher education programs in particular. For one thing, these programs should be developed by the FLE departments themselves in cooperation with their counterparts at other universities in Turkey. Student needs and the demands of the particular conditions in each university should be taken into consideration. Each department should determine its overall philosophy of education and general mission in educating teachers. Program evaluation should become an internal part of curriculum development. Teacher education curricula should be renewed consistently in line with the different needs of the students and the changing times.

Not to fall into the trap of becoming "intellectually impoverishing," (Gray & Block, 2012, p. 142) foreign language teacher education programs in Turkey should go beyond the technicist teacher education approach inherent in the CoHE programs. They should not define their mission only as providing technical expertise, as suggested by Giroux and McLaren (1986). The knowledge-base of foreign language teacher education should be broadened to include all elements in Shulman's (1987, p. 8) categorization of teacher knowledge. In addition to content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and knowledge of learners and their characteristics, student teachers should also have the knowledge of curriculum development, educational contexts and knowledge of educational purposes and values. The course contents should address sociocultural and political context of English language teaching, as suggested by Doğançay-Aktuna (2006). A course discussing the current issues in English Language Teaching should be offered in which the spread of English and its implications are addressed. The gate keeping mechanism of English language teaching and its being another tool for the reproduction of the classed society should be attended to in course contents so that teacher candidates are able to see the moral results of their own practice. The political nature of English language teaching should also be discussed raising students' awareness into the nature of their work. Besides, the commodification of English, profit seeking exercises of publishing or testing companies and the implicit messages conveyed in commercial textbooks should be covered. Teacher candidates

should also be aware of the fact that the standardized tests are used as another mechanism to control the course contents (Akbari, 2008). Teacher candidates should be encouraged to display their creativity in lesson planning and materials preparation not feeling bound to work within the limited space given to them by the textbooks. They should also be able to develop their own resources to become empowered "to theorize their own practice," as suggested by Kumaravadivelu (2003).

On the other hand, the identity formation processes of non-native English teacher candidates should be taken into consideration to prevent student teachers from feeling insecure about their profession. Teacher candidates should get to know about teacher autonomy and what it means to be professional teachers so that they feel content with the practice of teaching, which has started to be devalued in the society. For them, to regain their faith in the profession they chose, the essence of teaching should be covered not losing contact with the status of the profession in the society. The teacher images in the media as well as the transformation of the teaching profession in Turkey should be discussed to provide student teachers with a broader social and historical perspective.

Besides having a situated teaching practice at schools, the practice of foreign language teaching in Turkey should be problematised in university seminars to bridge the gap between theory and practice in teacher education. The foreign language policy in Turkey as well as the history of foreign language teaching in Turkey should be studied so that students can have a broader understanding of the reality of foreign language teaching in Turkey. Student teachers should be encouraged to study the reality of foreign language classrooms not losing their touch with the macro perspectives. Such a deeper analysis of the microcosm of the foreign language classes in line with the language teaching policies in the country might allow foreign language teacher candidates to develop a larger perspective as to their problems in teaching English and they might be able to take agency in finding solutions to the foreign language teaching in Turkey. This attention on the foreign language policy might also help them become more cautious in their attempts to encourage the use of English in such a way that it does not harm the development of mother tongue.

9.3.4 Implications for the FLE Program

For the FLE program to educate fully competent, reflective and critical intellectual teachers, it is a must for all the above suggestions to be accomplished. Because some of the above mentioned suggestions might take a long time and a great determination to succeed, some practical short-term suggestions will be made for the FLE program investigated in this study.

First of all, the FLE program should prioritize its goals. Though it is understandable for the FLE staff to set high standards for themselves to educate the scholars of the future in the program, they should not forget the most important mission of the program: to educate English teachers. Considering the fact that the FLE program is created for teacher education, courses which are essential for educating teachers should be prioritized and offered as must courses. Some of the advanced courses in linguistics and literature could be offered as elective courses so that foundational educational courses such as sociology of education, philosophy of education and curriculum development could become must courses. The program should also include a must course on current issues in ELT to familiarize student teachers with the critical issues in the field. Elective courses on language teaching should be offered. To benefit from the diversity of specialization areas the program faculty has, the program could offer minor programs in applied linguistics, linguistics, literature and translation in addition to the German minor program currently in service in the program, so that those students who are interested in these fields could develop their knowledge further in these fields.

The course contents in the methodology component of the program should be revised so as to give a specific direction to the program. The current practice does not seem to suggest that the language teaching component has a coherent whole. While some topics are repeated in different courses, other crucial issues in language teaching are neglected. A thorough needs analysis should be conducted to determine those areas which seem to be neglected or overemphasized in the program. Once the topics to be covered are determined and they are allocated into different courses, each faculty offering a methodology course will know in which course a specific subject matter is touched upon. This clarification in course contents could also eradicate the problem of inconsistencies among differing sections of the same course.

As discussed earlier, the current number of practice teaching courses does not meet the needs of student teachers. Even if it is not possible to change the number of practicum courses right now, the terms these courses are offered could be changed. The school experience course could be offered in the junior year so that student teachers start experiencing the reality of classroom teaching earlier. The practice teaching course should continue to be given in the senior year. Besides, the practicum component of the program should be supported with the community service course, which should be moved to the sophomore year to give student teachers a chance to get to know the students earlier in their period of undergraduate education. This course should also be rearranged to make sure that students work in school-related projects.

To make sure that the FLE students have a sound background in English, the freshman year should be dedicated solely to the development of English language skills. All language courses of the program except for the research course should be offered in the first year to give student teachers a good intensive foundational knowledge base in English. These courses should be supported with orientation programs for academic skills. What is more, the contents of the first year courses should also be revised, as student teachers complained more about the quality of the courses rather than the number of courses in the program. Still, the number of English language courses could be increased giving more weight to the speaking courses, as student teachers quite frequently talked about the need to improve their spoken English skills.

For the physical isolation of the department from the rest of the campus, the department administration should take action with the support of the students and the academic staff. The marginalized status of the department should not be accepted as it is. A collective long-term struggle for changing the position of the department should be given. Until this end is achieved, the physical atmosphere of the department should be improved by the joint efforts of the students, academics and administrative staff. To halt the intellectual isolation of the students and the staff from the rest of the campus, joint interdisciplinary projects should be developed with students and academics from other departments.

9.4 Limitations of the Study

This dissertation study had to limit itself to the observations of methodology and school-based practicum courses due to time restrictions. Only one section of these courses was observed. If courses of all program components could have been observed, a better understanding of teacher roles underscored in each component would have been reached. In a similar vein, interviews with teacher educators specializing in literature, linguistics and general education could have enriched the study revealing their views on teacher education as important components of the FLE program.

The fact that I conducted the study as an insider in the program may have had an influence on the study. While it allowed me to be welcomed by the faculty and the students, it might also have had an influence on the answers the participants gave during the interviews. Though I felt that they were really genuine and they seemed to give their honest and critical view of the program, there might be some issues they preferred not to talk about. On the other hand, my views as to program as an insider could have played a role in my interpretation of the program. In other words, I might have got confused between my researcher and instructor identities at times. The effect of this confusion might have been twofold. On the one hand, this double identity might have strengthened the study providing insights an outsider would not be able to reach. On the other, it might have had a negative influence on the study, as I might have pushed my understanding of the program into my interpretation. Granting the possibility of such a thing to occur, I can still say that the process of conducting this study changed my interpretation of the program. Before I started working on this study, I was already aware of some problems with the program. But I was not able to understand the real causes of the problems or name the underlying reasons behind those problems. This study, however, provided me with an in-depth understanding of the program.

Another risk factor about my role as an insider was the pressure I might feel about representing the program I was teaching at. As a PhD student, it is true that I am in a vulnerable position to raise some critical issues about the program. However, my responsibility as an instructor, a researcher or a young scholar was to bring some of the realities of our daily lives into daylight so that we restarted thinking about

them. Though I should admit that it was not easy to review my field notes from a critical perspective and to state some missing points in some of those courses, I had to do it to do justice to my study. My intention was not to find the weak points of the courses I observed, but to highlight some possible critical issues that could have been added to those courses so that students could gain a broader perspective.

9.5 Suggestions for Further Research

This dissertation study surveyed the teacher roles the FLE program prepared teacher candidates for. Further research could explore what teacher roles are assumed by the FLE graduates in their careers and what factors influence the roles they assume. Graduates could be observed in their own school settings and in-depth interviews could be conducted with them. Besides, similar studies in different FLE programs around the country could be conducted to see if there are similar patterns in foreign language teacher education programs or not. The teacher roles underscored in developed research universities and in developing universities around Turkey in different teacher education programs could be compared.

Large scale survey studies around the country could also be conducted to understand the teacher candidates' or practising teachers' views as to teacher roles they think they assume or they should assume. A similar study surveying teacher educators' perceptions about teacher roles they should prepare teacher candidates for could also be conducted to determine the dominant perspective of teacher roles among the teacher educators in the country. The influence of the educational background or the age of the participants could also be explored to see if those teachers educated in the teacher education system before 1980 think differently from those educated in the new teacher education system.

9.6 Conclusion

This study explored the teacher roles a foreign language teacher education program in Turkey prepared teacher candidates for via document reviews, in-depth interviews and classroom observations. Findings of the study suggested that different educational institutions in Turkey conveyed differing roles for teachers. The FLE program aimed to educate a reflective practitioner according to the document on program outcomes, but it was not internalized. As the reports of interview

participants showed, the program did not seem to have a specific mission. The interview data and observation findings demonstrated that even though there were some reflective dimensions of the FLE program, the program seemed to prepare teachers for becoming technicians more than it encouraged them to play a truly reflective role.

The technicist focus in the FLE program seems to stem from the political-economical structure in Turkey and around the world under the influence of neoliberal economic policies. Turkish education system shaped by the Council of Higher Education under the impact of international organizations seems to prefer to educate technician teachers discouraging them from taking active leading roles in the system. The workload of the teacher educators, the sociocultural atmosphere in the country and the lack of resources allocated to public universities seem to further complicate the problem disempowering the agents in the system. Yet, for the transformation of the teacher education system, it seems as though it is obligatory for the educators working in this system to resist the pressure of the system, so that we could build a more humane life for our students, for ourselves and for the whole society.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: FLE PROGRAM

1st Semester	2nd Semester
Introduction to Literature Contextual Grammar I Advanced Reading and Writing I Listening and Pronunciation Second Foreign Language I Introduction to Education Introduction to Information Technologies and Application <u>One of the following:</u> Oral Communication Turkish I Elementary Turkish I	Contextual Grammar II Advanced Reading and Writing II Oral Communication English Literature I Linguistics I Second Foreign Language II <u>One of the following:</u> Written Expression Turkish II Intermediate Turkish
3rd Semester	4th Semester
Instructional Technology and Material Development Approaches to English Language Teaching English Literature II Linguistics II Second Foreign Language III Educational Psychology	Instructional Principles and Methods Drama Analysis ELT Methodology I Contrastive Turkish-English Oral Expression and Public Speaking <i>Departmental Elective</i>
5th Semester	6th Semester
Methodology II Language Acquisition Advanced Writing Research Skills Novel Analysis <u>One of the following:</u> Principles of Kemal Atatürk I History of the Turkish Revolution I <i>Departmental Elective</i> <i>Non-Departmental Elective,</i>	Teaching English to Young Learners Teaching Language Skills Community Service Classroom Management Turkish Educational System and School Management <u>One of the following:</u> Principles of Kemal Atatürk II History of the Turkish Revolution II <i>Departmental Elective</i> <i>Non-Departmental Elective</i>
7th Semester	8th Semester
Materials Adaptation & Development English Language Testing and Evaluation Translation School Experience <i>Departmental Elective</i>	Practice Teaching The English Lexicon Guidance <i>Departmental Elective</i>

APPENDIX B: SAMPLE FIELD NOTES

FIELD NOTES - FMC3 COURSE - WEEK 1 (25.9.2012)

The teacher educator comes to class and starts the lesson by saying she hopes students had a great break. Then she takes attendance and tries to arrange the sections. After that she talks about the tasks students will accomplish throughout the semester. She explains that students will do two micro-teachings with their partners on reading and writing. They will only present the first 15 minutes of the lesson plan in the micro-teaching.

The class is very crowded, with almost 40 students. The teacher educator is always in the center of the classroom. She is warm, friendly and nice. Students sit in rows.

She also talks about the mid-term and says some students never read theory if there is no mid-term. One student says "Actually we'd prefer an assignment." As a response, she says "it all depends on what I prefer" and the whole class laughs.

She reminds students that participation is very important in this course and she says that she remembers faces rather than names. She also warns them that by participation she means intelligent talk, not meaningless chatter.

She also reminds students that this is their last chance before real life teaching practice to practice their teaching skills, as the following year they will be practicing teaching. She also tells students that she will give them a detailed rubric for the micro-teachings and they are available on metuonline. She also adds students will be video-recorded and they will need to give her a flash disk and they have to submit everything both in electronic and written format with a CD. As for the final project, she says it will be integrated skills teaching.

She tells students that they can email her any time, but to make her life easier, she requests them to write their names, surnames, course and section names. If they do so, she says she will get back to them more quickly.

Later on, the teacher educator expresses her hope about the course being fun and asks them to be extra extra creative, as this is not their first methodology course. She also says they have done a good job earlier and that this time her expectations are higher.

She has some concerns about the class size but she says that's OK and she actually likes large classes to share more. She emphasizes the fact that "we learn from each other and we have to learn by doing." She also tries to comfort students that it is OK to make mistakes. Nothing is wrong and they need to be active and give their friends constructive feedback. She says "that's how we learn."

She warns students about bringing their course material with them to class, otherwise she says she will not accept them into class.

She finishes the lesson by thanking the class and wishing a nice day.

FIELD NOTES - FMC3 COURSE - WEEK 2 (2.10.2012)

The teacher educator comes to class and says “hello, how are you?” The way she greets students looks sincere and genuine. She tries to finalize the student list and tells students she will accept at most 40 students for each section.

Then she groups students and gives them a question from the course pack to discuss. After students discuss for 15 minutes, she elicits answers from each group. It gives a general outlook to teaching reading. Students give their own opinions. It is meant to activate their schemata, but some students are lost meanwhile. Some start chatting.

While listening to the students’ answers, the teacher educator is very encouraging and praises students. She also asks some questions to clarify certain things and motivates students to think. She tells them to put themselves in the shoes of their students while preparing a lesson plan.

Then she talks about the distinction between a warm-up and an ice-breaker. She says a warm-up could be at the beginning, in the middle or even in the end when students are tired or when they do not have enough energy. For instance, everyone gets up and moves around. She adds saying “hi, how are you?” is not a warm-up. As for lead-in, she says, this is something that prepares students to what is coming next. It shows the way. For the pre-reading, she says vocabulary items could be taught (8-10 words). She reminds the students the findings of research studies: people can remember 7 words at most.

After the break, she lectures about teaching reading. She tells the class that in real-life we have different skills together, so we shouldn’t isolate them. And we should teach bottom-up and top-down processing skills together. She suggests including authentic texts for any level and using both intensive and extensive reading. Usually, students are asked to read for three times (skimming, scanning and detailed reading). But advanced level learners could be asked to read once, she adds.

She then moves onto the stages of teaching reading: lead-in, pre-, while-, and post. For the pre-teaching, she talks about predicting from visuals, discussion of visuals, brainstorming or pre-teaching vocabulary. She also adds that they don’t have to include vocabulary all the time if students already know the words. She also tells them to finish everything about vocabulary in the pre-reading, as it is for helping students understand the text. She also says that other tasks could include getting students to complete the sentences taken from the text, showing a video, or a short listening. Later on, she gives some suggestions as to while-reading activities and finally talks about post-reading.

She also warns students that normally two hours would be required for reading, and the timing here is not realistic, as she also tells them roughly how many minutes they can spend in each stage. She also shows some online sources. She finishes the lesson thanking the students.

FIELD NOTES - FMC3 COURSE - WEEK 3 (9.10.2012)

The teacher educator comes to class a bit early, she arranges the materials and cleans the board. It is a very crowded class. There are about 40 students who sit in rows. She greets the students and tells them she will show them some reading activities – as many as she can and she will also give the students the list for the microteachings.

She switches on the projector and shows a reading activity for young learners. There is just one sentence. If the students understand it correctly, they will color the picture. She says “it is fun and effective.”

Then she moves onto another activity and talks about ages and age-limits. Then she asks students some questions about age limits in Turkey and around the world. She asks students to skim the text for 3 minutes and suggest a title for the reading. Students give creative answers. Then she distributes two more activities related to the text: one true-false, one fill-in-the-chart activity. Students are engaged and they answer all the questions. They even discuss the answers of some of the questions. After these while-reading activities, she asks students to decide on the level of the text. Then she talks about the levels. She says there is no level called pre-intermediate, and it’s a marketing strategy. The proficiency levels go like this: zero beginner, false beginner, elementary, intermediate, upper-intermediate, advanced. The students and the teacher decide that the text is elementary for young adults. She then asks students what might be a good post-activity for this reading task. Students give answers.

Later on, she starts talking about TV cartoons and asks students which cartoons they watch. Students give answers. They are really interested. Then the teacher educator shows a picture of the Simpsons over the projector and introduces the characters in Simpsons. And asks students some questions related to the characters of the cartoon show. Then she distributes a text on Simpsons and asks students to complete a matching activity about the idioms and asks them to do one more activity. Again she goes over all the questions and answers. When they finish the while-reading part, she again asks students the level of the text. They decide that it is upper-intermediate. She again asks students to suggest a post-activity and they come up with the idea of a fancy-dress party.

After the break, she shows the class another activity. This time before reading, she has a brainstorming activity about work and asks them to do the activities after reading the text. For the post activity, she wanted students to draw their ideal office in groups and present it to class. Students were totally engaged and they enjoyed drawing. At the end, they displayed their drawings on the board. They decided that the level of the text is advanced.

I find the teacher educator very encouraging and positive all the time. At the end of the lesson, she gives extra activities and shows some flash stories over the projector.

At the end of the lesson, she shows the list for the micro-teachings. Students ask questions. When one student speaks in Turkish, she says “Excuse me? or “In English please.” She is very strict about it.

FIELD NOTES - FMC3 COURSE - WEEK 4 (16.10.2012)

The teacher educator comes to class earlier than the students and tries to arrange the video-recorder. She sits next to the door, on the left-hand side with a tripod. She has her notes, and she is in control of the video-recorder. Meanwhile, students responsible for the micro-teaching are on the stage trying to arrange the materials. Students are sitting in a row again.

When all students arrive, she greets students and says she is excited to start micro-teachings. She warns the students that she will signal when there is one minute

left and says each pair will have 15 minutes for the demo. She also tells students to remind their friends the proficiency level they are teaching and the fellow students will act like students. She also says “we will give constructive feedback at the end.”

The first micro-teaching starts. The student teacher greets students and tells them that the level of the lesson is upper-intermediate. She tells the class she will show an advert of a coffee and then asks them their ideas about coffee. Students answer. After that she says she will distribute a reading text but before that “they will learn some new words.” She introduces some words like in a presentation and then gives out a vocabulary exercise. Then she checks the answers before everyone else finishes. She writes down the whole sentence as she didn’t put item numbers next to the exercises in the matching activity. While she is writing on the board, she turns her back to the class. Then she distributes the reading text and while distributing the handout, she gives the instructions. When students finish reading and doing the exercise, she writes the answers on the board hesitantly. Then she runs out of time and summarizes what to do after the while reading part. I think that different parts of the lesson do not link well with each other.

While the student is teaching, the teacher educator takes notes constantly and examines the lesson plan carefully. She also video-records the teaching session and reminds the student the timing.

When the student finishes teaching, the teacher educator thanks the student and moves onto the feedback session. She asks the proficiency level first. Students say upper-intermediate. She asks students their opinions about the lesson. One student says she likes the pre-reading part and adds that in general the lesson was good. The teacher educator agrees with the student and says “I like the stages. It was a typical reading lesson, but good. I had a chance to see the lesson plan. In the lesson plan, post-part was not described very well.” A student asks a question about asking students to repeat the words. She says “it is not necessary to repeat for 3 times, but if you are teaching the words for the first time, it might be necessary.” Another student says the student teacher asked if students understood or not and that she finds it good. The teacher educator agrees and says “the student teacher was active and energetic. At the beginning she was a bit uncomfortable, but I understand that. Later she was more comfortable.” Then the teacher educator asks if they find the reading text appropriate for the level. Students give different answers. The teacher educator says vocabulary was appropriate for state schools, but not for private school students. She adds “slides describing vocabulary were good. But examples could have been given from the students’ lives. As a learner, I didn’t get the meaning of the words from the slide. There is a difference between presentation and teaching. In teaching you explain something about the word or ask students. Dictionary definitions do not work well. Examples are OK, but it would be better if they were from students’ lives.” She also notes a few pronunciation mistakes of the student teacher. She points out that she likes the task of matching headings, but she finds 10 minutes too much for such an activity. She also tells students to give the instructions first and then hand-out the materials. She also directs students’ attention to transitions and asks them to pay attention to transitions. She says “we will read, OK, but why? You need one sentence to make it meaningful for students. Today we will learn about some things ...” She also adds that the student teacher had good qualities of teaching. She monitored when students were on task and wrote all the answers on the board. She was smiling and positive. In the end, the teacher educator made some comments on

one of the objectives and finished the feedback session by thanking the student teacher.

Thereafter starts the second micro-teaching session. The student teacher announces that it is an elementary level reading lesson. She greets the class and asks about their weekend. Some students give answers. Then she tells that the topic is festivals. She asks students what they do in bayrams. Students answer. After that she asks students what comes to their minds when they hear the word “festival.” Students give answers and the student teacher writes those on the board. Then she tells the class that she will write down some of the words they may not know on the board and she will distribute the reading text. She just writes the definitions and has no interaction with the students. She gives out the handout while she is giving the instructions. There is no link between the vocabulary teaching and the reading. The student teacher just carries out what she has to do. She does not give any clear instructions, just says “we have true-false. You have 2 minutes.” When students finish doing the activity, she elicits the answers and writes them on the board. She then describes the post-activity.

After the student teacher finishes teaching, the teacher-educator comes on stage and asks what students think about the lesson. One student says she likes the questions in the warm-up. The teacher educator agrees. Another student says that she likes the topic, as they are all adults, it is interesting. The teacher educator asks if they find the level appropriate for the elementary students and adds that the level of the text is more like it is intermediate. But she notes the tasks were not difficult though the text was difficult. The student teacher who taught the lesson said that students were talking when she was writing on the board. The teacher educator says that it is quite normal as students start chatting whenever you turn your back. She warns them to be careful about that. She tells them that the vocabulary definitions are good, but they are long and confusing. She gives examples as to how to make them simpler for students to understand. She says to teach the word “mud,” she could have shown a picture. She again directs attention to transitions and the way student teachers teach in a mechanical way. She tells students to give reasons for each activity and to link them to each other. She says she likes the pictures at the end and suggests they could have been used at the beginning. She asks students their opinions about the student teacher’s way of teaching. One student says she was like a professional. The teacher educator says “yes, she was calm and smiling.” She also adds: “But when you were writing the words on the board, I felt that you didn’t take it seriously. I know you don’t mean it. I can live with being nervous. As a teacher, you have great skills, sure. But don’t behave like this is a presentation. This is not a presentation. This is teaching. In teaching, you have to interact with your students.” She also points out that the staging of the lesson plan is very problematic. She also notes that asking students to read one more text in the post is not logical, as students don’t like reading two texts in a row. She finishes the feedback session by thanking the students.

Then starts the third micro-teaching. Before the student starts, the teacher educator warns the class that they are too active and talkative and that they need to chill a little bit. She says that this will be an intermediate level reading lesson.

The student teacher starts by greeting the class and tells them she will show them a video. She does not give them a purpose to watch the video. The video is interesting about the effect of music. But it is an authentic one and difficult to

understand. After the video stops, she asks the class if they understand the video and what it is about. Students answer. She asks if the music distracts them while they are studying. Students give answers. She says she will distribute a text about that. After giving the text, she asks students to guess some words in bold in 3-4 minutes. Students do the activity without guessing. Then the student teacher moves onto the comprehension questions. Finally, she summarizes the post-reading and finishes teaching.

Then the teacher educator comes on stage and asks students what they think about the micro-teaching. One student says she likes the activities but she is not sure about the level. The teacher-educator asks if the vocabulary items were new to students or if it was a revision. She says it depends on the context. The text is quite challenging and it all depends on the institution and the student profile. Another student says the video was interesting, but too long. The student teacher teaching the lesson says she couldn't divide it. The teacher educator says it was long, but not too much and she adds that she likes the lead-in as the student teacher had a good transition to the text. One student adds the video was too difficult. The teacher educator replies by suggesting student teachers use some techniques to make it more understandable. She also notes that "your students don't have to understand everything. There were clear visuals. Students can deduce meaning. Some questions could be asked before watching." The teacher educator tells the student teacher that she likes her teaching. She was like a professional. Yet, she asks her to smile a little bit more and praise the students. She also says "You'll make a perfect teacher." Then, she makes comments about the objectives – that they are totally wrong and staging is difficult to understand. Finally, she says she likes the post activity.

After the break, the teacher educator tells the class she is very unhappy about the noise and chatting in the classroom. She warns the students that it is disrespectful to her and their friends. She also notes that she won't be nice next time.

Then comes the next micro-teaching. The student teacher makes a very interesting introduction to the topic talking about the protests in the Middle East and linking it to Iraq and bringing it to the topic of shoes. The class was impressed by the link and they were paying attention. He asks students to guess the meaning of the words. Then he elicits the answers. After that he asks students to read the text and to complete the T-F questions. After the activities finish, he explains the post activity. The teacher educator thanks the student teacher.

The feedback session starts. She asks students what they thought about the session. Students say he was like a real teacher, he was a professional. The teacher educator agrees that he is good and he has a very clear voice perfect for a teacher. Yet, she notes there were some problems with pronunciation. She says she has great hopes for him and she found the teaching excellent. She also notes that "we need teachers like you" addressing the student teacher. She also makes some suggestions about the objectives.

Before moving onto the last micro-teaching of the day, she needs to remind the students that she is really unhappy about the noise in the classroom. She says "we are learning a skill here. It is not a high-school. You have to be respectful. And you know participation is a part of the grading." She somehow threatens the students with grades and gets angry.

After the harsh warning, we move onto the last micro-teaching of the day. The student teacher greets the class and asks if they are going home for bayram. Students

answer. She also asks if they know of any countries with similar holidays. Students answer. She asks if the students know Nepal and its place on the map. One student gives the exact answer. The student teacher asks if they know anything else about Nepal and then moves onto the text announcing that the class will read a text on Nepal. Before the text, she introduces some of the words with clear examples and photos. Then she gives the instructions and the handouts together. She asks students to find a title for the text and answer the multiple choice questions. I like the activities. Finally, she describes the post activity.

For the feedback, the teacher educator comes to the stage as usual. She asks students' opinions on the lesson. They say they like it. She agrees. She finds the lesson great, and she says she hasn't got much to say. "It was very well designed. Post-activity was one of the most effective tasks we have seen. Good, genuine, info-gap activity. She also says she was very good as a teacher. She suggests one word to be explained in a better way. She also notes that the student teacher was smiling and confident. She recommends time-limits should be more precise. She finishes by saying "she really really likes the lesson."

APPENDIX C: SAMPLE INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATORS	
Career story	<p>1. <i>Could you please talk about your career story?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Why did you choose the profession of teaching?</i> - <i>How long have you been teaching? How long have you been working in this department?</i> - <i>How did you become a teacher educator? How does it feel to be a teacher/a teacher educator?</i>
Education philosophy	<p>2. <i>What is your teaching philosophy?</i></p> <p>3. <i>What is an ideal teacher like for you? What teacher roles should a teacher assume? What is the mission of a teacher?</i></p> <p>4. <i>What is an ideal teacher educator like for you?</i></p> <p>5. <i>What skills/values or attitudes do you think your students should have as prospective teachers? What skills, values and attitudes are you teaching them? How?</i></p>
Program	<p>6. <i>Do you think the pre-service foreign language teacher education program you are teaching at has a mission or a philosophy?</i></p> <p>7. <i>Do you think there are some teacher roles this program attempts to foster?</i></p> <p>8. <i>Are there any teacher roles that you encourage your students to assume? How do you do that?</i></p>

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

<p>Program & Teacher roles</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>What do you think about the different components of the Foreign Language Teacher Education program you are enrolled in? How useful were these courses?</i> 2. <i>Do you think the FLE program has a teacher model it fosters? What are the characteristics of that teacher?</i> 3. <i>What do you think are the characteristics of an ideal teacher?</i>
<p>The function of a teacher</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. <i>Do you think the education you get in the program or the experience you have gained on campus will help you understand and address the needs of diverse students coming from different ethnic groups, regions or linguistics backgrounds or students with special needs? Why? How?</i> 5. <i>Do you think a teacher has other responsibilities than teaching the subject matter? If yes, what are they? Do you think the program helps you achieve those responsibilities?</i> 6. <i>Do you think teachers should be transformative intellectuals? Why and how? Can you give an example? Do you think you have what it takes to become a transformative intellectual?</i>

APPENDIX D: SAMPLE INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW 1

I: Sizce nasıl bir öğretmen yetiştirmeyi hedefliyor program?

S13: Dersler açısından falan diyoruz değil mi? Bizim üniversiteden mezun olduğunda nasıl bir öğretmen profili? Ben diğer bölümlere baktığımda bizim mesleki anlamda yetersiz olduğumuzu düşünüyorum. Biz son sınıfta gidiyoruz staja. Son sınıflarla falan konuşuyoruz. İki dönemde bir kere ders anlatıyor. Bu onu nasıl hazırlayacak? Çok da yeterli değil. Diğer bölümler ikinci sınıfın sonunda falan staja gidiyorlar. Hem de kendileri ayarlayıp gidiyorlar. Onların kendilerine olan güveniyle, bizim bölümden mezun birinin kendine güveni çok farklı. Tamam gerçek ortam, gerçek öğrenciler, ama ben çok yeterli olduğunu düşünmüyorum pratik anlamında.

S1: Aslında şey bence prosedür açısından confident yetiştiriliyoruz bence. Söz konusu şey uygulamaya gelince. Lesson plan olacak, objective olacak, öğrenciler kim. Gerçek hayatta bu öğrendiklerimizin ne kadarı uygulanır. Daha çok o açıdan bakınca akademisyenliğe yönelen bir şey olduğunu düşünüyorum. Edebiyat ya da dilbilim dersleri var çok zevk alıyoruz ama sınıfa girdiğimde bunları nasıl değerlendirebilirim. Öğrendiklerimin hakkını verebileceğim yer üniversiteler okutmanlık gibi. Bir devlet okuluna gidince bunların ne kadarını hayata geçirebiliriz soru işareti.

S12: Öğretmenler çok standart yetiştiriliyor gibi. O objective'leri yazıyoruz. Ama bana gerçek gibi gelmiyor. Gayet güzel, mantıklı ama gerçekçi gelmiyor bana. Mesela sınıfa girdin sen orada bir sürü öğrenci var. Onların bir sürü sorunları olabilir. Öğrenciler süper mükemmel konsantrasyon oranları çok yüksek. Herkes çok hevesli, dinleyip not alan öğrenciler gibi. Objective'leri yazınca onları yapman imkansız. Öğrenci profilinin ne olacağını bilmiyorsun. O yüzden standart gibi gelmiyor bana. Bize çok standart şey verilmişti. Budur, bunun dışında pek bir şey olmaz gibi. Yazları mesela bize bir sistem açsalar, çok daha değişik kişilerle karşılaşsak, yaz okulu yerine community service gibi. Bence çok daha iyi olabilir objective yazmaktan.

S13: Biraz kağıt üzerinde kalıyor. Gerçekçi gelmiyor bana. Şu şu dakikada olacak, bu dakikada şu olacak. Sınıf arkadaşlarımıza öğretiyoruz. Rol yapıyorlar sonuçta.

I: Çok idealize bir ortamda çalışacakmışsınız gibi mi?

S1: Özgüven mi vermiyor diyelim. Mesleğin içeriğine de bağlı. Öğrenci ile karşı karşıya gelince olacak bir şey.

I: Size situation'lar mı verilmeli? Devlet okulunda çalışıyorsunuz projektör yok desek? Ama uygulama olmadan olmaz mı?

S13: Uygulama olmadan olmaz. Biz zaten kura çekiyoruz. Bana intermediate çıkıyor. Ama sınıftaki arkadaşlarım intermediate gibi davranıyor. Ben gidip bir ay staj yapsam daha gerçekçi olur. Burada çok ilgili bir öğrenci, mesela devlet okuluna gidiyor. Oradaki öğrenci dilini bile bilmiyor. Geçen dönem mesela postcolonial dersinde *İki Dil Bir Bavulu* izledik.

I: Mezun olduğunuzda bu durumla baş edecek gücü bulacak durumda mısınız?

S12: Derslerimize bir bakalım mesela. ELT derslerinde bir sürü approach vardır. Şu kadar sınıflarda idealdir. Sadece şey gibi geliyor bana. Bir kısım insanlar deneylerini yapmışlar, oraya koymuşlar. Bize yıllarca öğretiliyor. Hiçbir değişiklik göremiyorum. İki Dil bir Bavul'daki öğretmenin yerinde olsak aldığımız dersler bize ne gibi bir yardım sağlayacak bilemiyorum.

I: Oradaki öğrencilerle iletişim kurmayı başaracağınızı düşünüyor musunuz?

S13: Ben düşünüyorum, daha farklı davranırdım. Ben Kürtçe öğrenirdim, kendimi kapatmazdım. Bir bakış açısı veriyor tabii diğer dersler. Ben daha sıcak, daha özgüvenli davranırdım.

S1: Kapıyı kapattıktan sonra yalnızsınız, biraz da kişiye bağlı.

I: Bakış açınızın değiştiğini düşünüyor musunuz bu üniversitede? Bakış açınızı değiştiren şey program mı, kampüs mü?

S13: Hepsi aslında.

S12: Hazırlık yılındayken sürekli fizik çimlerinin oradan geçiyorduk. Birkaç arkadaşımız daha vardır. Orada hep öğrenci topluluklarını görüyoruz. Daha önce böyle bir ortamda bulunmamışız. Öyle bir ortam insanı baktırıyor. LGBT üyelerinin olduğu bir yer vardı. İlk bakışta merakla baktık. Aramızda önyargı ya da kötü bir yorum geçmedi ama daha önce bayrak açan böyle bir masa görmemiştik. Kimliğini sahiplenen bir masa. Şimdi çok şey geliyor. O kadar çok değiştirdi ki mesela. 1 Ekim galiba Dünya AIDS günü. O günde bir topluluk fizik çimlerinde prezervatif dağıtıyordu bedava. Artık kolay gelsin falan. Sağlıklı yaşayalım modunda. O şekilde bir örnek verebilirim.

S1: Çok homojen bir grup. Her şey siyah beyaz değilmiş buraya gelince anladım. Çok şey öğrendik.

S13 : Bakış açımız değişti. O güne kadar bildiğimiz ama bir şekilde hayata geçirmediğimiz şeyleri kabullendik. Bir gün geçerken konuşmak, o stantta oturmak, toplantılara katılmak.

I: Kampus ortamı herhalde.

S12: Keşke bölüm kampusun merkezinde olsaydı.

S13: Çok kapalı bir grup. Hem uzak, uzakta kalınca zihniyet anlamında da kapalı oluyor.

S12: Bizim bölümde birçok kişi liseden çıkıp geliyor hazırlık okumuyor. Homojen grup devam ediyor.

S1: İşletmede panolar dolup taşıyor. Bizde panolar dolmuyor bile.

S13: Akademik ilanlar falan oluyor. Diğer bölümler dolup taşıyor. Bizim bölüm gözden çıkarılmış, zaten gelmezler diye düşünülüyor. Homojenlik yapısı bozulmadan devam ediyor. Bölüm etkiliyor. Biz perşembe günleri endüstride İspanyolca alıyoruz. Oradan elt'ye geçiyoruz. O kadar çok şey değişiyor ki. Bakış açısı, auro, zihniyet. Orada herkes daha yüksek sesle konuşuyor, daha az utanıyorlar. Çok kısık sesle konuşuluyor.

S12: Duyamıyoruz. Tamam İngilizcem benim de iyi değil. Hiç duyamıyoruz. O da özgüvenden kaynaklanıyor.

S13: Güven. Edebiyat dersinde bir arkadaşım ile konuştum. Bitirmeye çalışıyorum dedi. Bitirmek kavramı bizde çok yaygın. Bir an önce kurtulmak anlayışı var. Orayı değerlendirme, yapabileceğinin en iyisini yapmaya ne kadar yaklaşıyoruz. Muamma.

I: Yapılabilecek bir şey var mı? Kimle konuşsam aynı şeyden şikayet ediyor.

S12: Bu sorun herkes hissediyor, ama kimse onu değiştirmek için bir şey yapmıyor.

S13: Geçen dönem biz bir şeyler yapmak istedik ama o şikayet edenlerin çoğunu yanımızda göremedik. Hocaların da pasif kaldığını düşünüyorum. Öğrencilerin bir kısmına ulaşmaya çalıştık. Herkes kendinden bir şey koymadıkça dağılıyor.

S12: İnsanlar ring servisi saatinde derse geliyor. Biz dersten çıkıyoruz Aralık Ocakta dersten çıkıp oturup ne yapabiliriz diye düşünüyorum. Bölüme çay poğaça getiriyoruz. Bunu sadece parmakla sayılabilen insanlar yapıyor. Bölümün sahibi geldi falan mesela. O adam da inşaatta boykot vardı. İnanılmazdı. O kadar ucuz ki artık. Yazıyor en fazla 60 kuruş. Adam 75 kuruştan satıyor. Biz böyle bir uyanış getirdik. Abi gelin katılın ya bir arada olalım. Ama kimseden bir şey çıkmadı. Bizim bölüm bir yürüseydi bakalım kantin böyle devam edecek miydi?

S13: Standardımız yüksek olsun mantığı yok. Verilene razıyız. Daha iyisini hak ediyorum anlayışı yok. Napalım, kabul de ettirilmiş. Bu zihniyet değişmeli. Hocalar için de geçerli. Çok daha iyi şartlarda eğitim veriyorlar. Değişmez bu diye düşünüyorlar. Farklı alanlarda yapabilmek için. Biz bir şeyler yapmalıyız ki başarmalıyız ki başka insanlar da gelsinler katılsınlar.

S12: Biz değiştirmiştik aslında tabldot olmuştu. Ama kimse hesap sormuyor, değiştirse de sesini çıkararak yok ki. Tabii ki üniversitede bir şeyler yapılmalı. Yüzde 99'u Anadolu öğretmen lisesinden geliyor. Siz öğretmen olacaksınız, devlet memuru .. Tek tip ... Eyvallah bunlar vardır ama bize başka şeyleri de göstermeleri lazım. Abi ben bitirecem bölümü. Ortalamam yüksekse akademisyen olacağım, düşükse atanır giderim. 4 yıl sonra gidicem zaten buradan diyor.

I: Peki hocalar ne yapabilir.

S12: Mesela ben mesela hoca olsam öyle bir ofisim var. Önceki ofis ne kadar kötüydü. yer altı.

S13: Lavabodan bozma olduğu için ofiste lavabo falan vardı.

S12: Hoca olsam böyle bir ortamda çalışmam derdim. Bir birlik kurardık olmadı rektörlüğe yürüdü. Bizim bölüm eskiden rektörlüğün oradaymış. Ring durmuyor mesela. Yıllardır o kadar yerleşmiş ki. Sizin bölüm ne kadar sıkıcı diyorlar ki. Ki yaz okulunda eğitimde falan ders almışlar. Bizim bölüme gelmemişler. Adamlar alışık mühendisliklerde, geniş sütunlu tavanlı yerlerde ders görüyorlar. EFB18 falan. Oturuyorum falan. Niye bunlar değiştirilmiyor, o kadar zor değil ki. Rektörlük her şeyi yapmayı biliyor. Ama öğretmenler karşı çıksa, memnun değiliz yürüseler. Zaten memnunlar diyor. Bir şey yapmıyorlar, ben niye o zaman bir şey yapayım diyor.

S13: Fiziksel ortam değişse bir şeyler fark eder. Geçen konuştuk da kantin değişse o zaman insanlar da ona alışacak. O kadar biz nasıl bir kantindeymiş diyecek. Aynı mantıkla bölümde bir şeyler değişir.

S1: Fizikselliği hallettik mesela. Daha açık bir bölüm fizik mesela. Ne kadar başarılı olurduk? Belli bir düşünceyle gelmişler zaten. Biz bu muhafazakar yapıyı ne kadar değiştirebiliriz?

S13: Zihniyet değişikliğinden çok, algıda seçicilik. Öyle bir şey dursun orada alıp olmamak ona kalır. Birinde gitmezse ikincisinde gitmezse üçüncüsünde gitmek zorunda hisseder. Hepsi olsun. Çeşitlilik amaç .. Öyle daha kolay bir yerlere gider.

I: Programla ilgili ne düşünüyorsunuz. Ne düşünüyorsunuz? İngilizce dersleri, edebiyat, dilbilim dersleri ...

S12: Bence çeşitlilik olması güzel bir şey. Belki program konusunda bir sıkıntımız olabilir. Daha rahat diğer bölümler. Dersler 3 saat hep şeydi. Bir gün 9 saat dersimiz var. Öğlen yemek yiyecek vaktimiz yok. Hocalar çok iyi zaten. Dersin içeriği de

öyle. Dersin programları da öyle. Diğer üniversitelerdeki arkadaşların ders içeriği ile karşılaştırınca çok şanslıyız diyorum. Edebiyat, eğitim dersleri kaliteli.

S13: Ben içerik olarak dolu dolu. Bazı şartlar değiştiriyor olabilir. Ama dolu dolu geçirildiğini düşünüyorum.

S1: Kaynak açısından ve hocalar açısından.

S13: YÖK'ün getirdiği programı daha tekdüze buluyorum. Aldığımız derslerin bir kısmı değişti. Tekdüze öğretmen yetiştirilmeye çalışıldığını düşünüyorum.

I: Ne kast ediyorsunuz?

S12: İyi bir öğretmenin özellikleri ne mesela bu konuyu konuşup duruyoruz. Çok öznel bir şey bu. Aslında tanımlanma kısmı iyi, ama bize bunu empoze etmeye çalışmalarını sevmiyorum. Bize subjectif bir şeyi nesnel bir şey sunmalarını sevmiyorum. Objectiveler, principles and methods dersi aldık.

S13: Birine bir şeyi öğretmenin sınırlandırılması ve karakterinle birlikte. Kendi şeklimle öğretim, kendimden bir şey katarım. Sanki bu törpüleniyormuş gibi. Herkes aynı dersleri alıyor mesela. Daha sakın bir öğretmen. Daha dar bakışlı. Sanki belirli kalıpların dışına çıkmaması gereken. Bir insana bir şeyi öğretmenin birçok yolu var. Her zaman sonucu görmek zorunda da değilsiniz. Siz kendinize göre verirsiniz, o kendine göre alır.

I: Hep objectiflere dayanıyorsunuz.

S1: Çok tartışmışlığımız var. Çok behaviorist.

S13: Şu koşullar aslında şu dakikada şunu öğrenecek. Humanistic approach ile hazırlanmış program gördünüz mü diye sormuştum. Daha kesin, daha katı değil. 25'i öğrense 5'i öğrenmeyecek. Nasıl ulaşabilirsiniz ki. Bu tür şeyler yaratıcılığı engelliyor. O yüzden tekdüze ... Tekrar tekrar methodlar teknikler. Ama değişmiyor. Üzerine konuluyor ama eğitim sisteminin önünü açmak için değil mi bu eğitim.

I: Peki sizin zihninizdeki öğretmen nasıl?

S13: Objektif yazmaz :))

S12: İnsanlar bir şey değiştirmeye çalışmıyor. Bizim en çok şikayet ettiğimiz şey bu. Beni bir şeylerin değiştirilmemesi rahatsız ediyor. Sürekli bir şeyler değişiyor diğer bölümlerde. Bir ülkenin bir insanlığın önemli damarlarından biridir eğitim. Biz bu noktaya geldiysek öğretmenlerimizin emekleri ödenemez. Bu kadar önemli. Bence objektif yazma olayı o kadar basite indirgeniyor ki bir şeyler öğretmek bu kadar basit mi?

I: Sizce öğretmenin misyonu değiştirmek mi?

S12: Bence amacım değiştirmek olursa o zaman empoze etmek olur. Ben her bireyin özgürce karar verme yeteneğini vermelidir. Bize bu öğretilebilir. Dersler falan tamam tabii ki öğretilecek ama bakış açısını genişletebilir. Zaten öğretmenin bakış açısı geniş değilse ne verebilir. Zaten onun baştan değişmesi gerekir. Devlet okullarında 70 yaşında öğretmen var. İngilizceyi unutmuş. Öyle hocalar var. Ama adam emekli olmuş geliyor hala.

S1: Bakınca çok ütöpik geliyor. Bazı öğretmenler burn-out olmuş. Ne kadar feasible ama .. Bırak grammar olsun. Kalplerine dokunmalı. Daha insancıl olmalı. Daha en azından kural, kitap dışında bir şey olmalı. Severek İngiliz edebiyatı falan. Dili grammar ve vocab. teaching e indirgeyince olmuyor. Ama okul sisteminde nasıl bir uygulanabilirliği var.

S12: Tekdüzeliğin dışına çıkan bir öğretmen yetiştirme amacı olduğunu sanmıyorum. Böyle bir şeyi veriyor belki gerisi bize kalıyor. Bizim bölümden mezun olan insanlar

humanistic bir approach'la eğitim yapan bir yer açalım diye düşünsün. Sınavlar hazırlayacaklar ama sistemin bir parçası olacaklar. Behavioristic olacaklar.

S13: Daha özgür daha yaratıcı öğretmenler yetiştirelim gibi bir amaç güdüldüğünü düşünmüyorum. Hocaların yaklaşımı, dersler oluyor ama standart olayı. ama tamamen o şekilde bizim böyle bir amacımız var dendiğini düşünmüyorum.

....

S12: Çoğunluğa uyduğumuzu düşünmüyorum. genele de bakmak gerekir. 30 kişi var. 27si böyle mi düşünüyor sanmıyorum. İnsanlarla konuşunca bunu görüyorsun. Eğitim sistemin herhalde.

S13: Belki onlar da sahiptir ama genel bir izlenimdir belki. Hazırlıktaki arkadaşım bitirmeye çalışıyor dedim ya. Hissedersiniz ama anlarsınız. Bölümde değiştirmeye çalışmıyoruz. Başka şeylere de maruz kalsın. Oradan çıkardığım bir şey.

S12: General impression olayı. Genelde baktığımızda başka bölüme gidip kıyasladığımızda bunu hissediyoruz. Oradaki kantinin enerjisiyle. Çok değişiyor. İnsanların ileride ne yapmak istedikleri ile ilgili. Tek tip insan yetiştirdiklerini düşünüyorum. Bizim bölüm belki biraz daha reflective'e kayıyordur ama.

S1: Arkadaşım Kayseri'de okuyor. Önemli dersleri öne çekip son sınıfı kpssye hazırlansınlar diye boş bırakmışlar. KPSSye yönelik.

S13: Kişinin kendi seçimi de olabilir. Ona karışamazsınız. Lisedeki öğretmenimiz Odtü mezunu. Onunla konuştuğumuzda hayat şartları onu çalışmaya zorlamış. Ama kişinin kendisi de etkili.Olanla yetinelim mantığı var ya ... alacağımı alayım ve gideyime dönüyor olay.

I: Öğretmenin sınıftaki sorumlulukları dışında başka bir sorumluluğu var mı?

S13: Her insanın olduğu gibi.

S1: Bence her insandan daha fazla.

S12: Belki her insandan daha çok gibi bir misyon yüklemek ne kadar doğru ama o da bir insan. Onun da ailesi vardır, kurduğu bir hayat vardır. Aslında eğitilmiş bir insanın böyle bir misyonu olmalı.

S13: Daha çok şansı var öğretmenin. Daha bir şeyler tazeyken. Empoze etmek değil. Ama bu da var diye göstermek. Alırsa alır hatta. Öyle bir öğretmenimiz de var hatta. Bilge bir insan. O zaman tam anlayamıyorsunuz ama sonradan anlıyorsunuz ne yapmaya çalıştığını. İnsanla uğraştığımız için bir mühendisin belki daha azdır. İnsan bazında öğretmenin daha çok şansı var. Bu da güzel bir şey tabii iyi kullanıldığında.

I: Programda değişmesini istediğiniz bir şey olabilir mi.

S1: Daha çok seçmeli olabilir. Advanced vocab. yanında. Daha eleştirel düşünmeye zorlayacak. Herkesin devamını sağlayacak.

S13: Programa daha sanatsal bir şeyler konabilir. Onlar olmadan metotları ne kadar yansıtabilirsiniz ki. Öğretmenliğin özü bu. Resim olmadan müzik olmadan herkesin bulunduğu bir anda bunu nasıl başarabilir. İsteddiğiniz kadar teknik öğrenin. Her dönem açılan ve başka bir seçmeli olmadığı için seçilen dersler dışında. Daha böyle sanat kursu tadında. Artık kişilerin ilgisiyle de değişebilecek bir şey. Ortak payda da buluşturulabilecek bir şey.

S1: 311 dersi haberimiz bile yoktu. Mailde okuduk.

S13: Zaten modern dillerde olması insanı zora sokuyor, bir de sistemsel sorun varsa o kadar insanlar kolayı seçiyor. Yine tekdüzelik. Hep sunum yapıyoruz derslerde falan. Hazırlıkta öğreniyoruz biraz. Sunumu nasıl yapıyor bu adam. Herkesin daha sevdiği konuda sunum yaptığı bir ders. Görsel materyaller de kullanılıyor derslerde. Oradan nasıl uyarlanabilir. Afiş tasarımı olabilir. İşitsel şeyler gelebilir. Aksanımızı

nasıl geliştirebiliriz. Biz nasıl konuşuyorsak kendimiz düzene sokuyoruz. Konuşma derslerinde de aynı şey yapılabilir. Yazma derslerinde yapılıyor. Ama konuşma dersleri ne kadar yararlı oluyor? Bir kere çok kalabalık sınıflar. 5 kişi kalıyor. Birkaç kişi kaybediliyor. Almıyor, alamıyor. Sunum yaptırılıyor ama nasıl sunum yaptırılacağı konuşulmuyor. Çok kişiye ulaşılmıyor. 2 sunum yapılıyor. Nasıl sunum yapılacağı anlatılıyor ama amacına ulaşmıyor. O tür derslere çok ihtiyacımız var.

S12: Presentation yapmak ppt hazırlarsın 15 dakika konuşursun diye görmüyoruz. Öğretmen olacaksın. 30 kişinin önüne kendini sunuyorsun aslında. Sunum dersleri bize şunu kullanırsın böyle yaparsın falan deniyor. Görsel şeylere daha fazla ağırlığı. Elbiseye çok önem veriliyor. S13: Kot pantolon gitme mesela. Çok gösterişçi bir yaklaşım mesela. Düzgün giyinir gelersin bir şey yapmaya çalışırsın. Vicdanı olanlar dinliyor. Geride kalanlar kendi halinde oluyor. Başkası kot giyer ama bir şey verir, birileri bir şey alır. Sunum derslerinde bir şeylerinde böyle şeylere takılmıyor.

S12: İnsanlar da buna yöneliyor. Etek giyersen 10 puan. İki derste de var. İnsanlar da ona göre giyiniyor. Ben topuklu ayakkabı giymeyi sevmiyorum mesela. Etekler ceketler topuklu ayakkabılar falan.

S13: İnsan sizin görüşünüze bakmaya geliyorsa da bunun böyle olmadığını anlayabilir bir süre sonra.

S12: Erkekler sakal traşı olacak. Her zaman içerik önemli. Tamam biçim de önemli.

S13: Biz derslerde de bunları konuşuyoruz. Biz herkes kabul ederken soruyoruz bu niye böyle bu niye şöyle diye.

**APPENDIX E: LIST OF CODES AND CATEGORIES FOR
STUDENT INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTS**

Topics		Students
Foreign language classes - not sufficient enough, grammar translation oriented, not able to learn		S42, S36, S22, S25, S10, S7, S8, S37, S31, S35, S18, S34,S33, S19, S20
Elective courses very limited - no electives on language teaching		S29, S42, S3, S25, S31, S33, S28, S13, S12, S26, S36, S39, S23
Too many courses, too demanding		S9
A lot of variation among sections, depends on the instructor		S40, S21, S37, S34, S30, S16, S15, S10, S7, S32, S42, S29
Assigning teachers to courses is problematic not based on their experience or expertise		S29
Some professors do not know how to teach		S29, S42, S36
No communication among professors		S42, S3, S43, S10,S31, S33
Negative attitude of professors towards students		S9, S18 and S34
Some professors not approachable		S10, S31
Courses not production oriented		S38, S13, S12, S31
No orientation is given		S24, S31, S35, S32, S34
No respect for teachers in the society		S29, S11, S40, S19, S20
METU spirit	Can do it, overcome challenges, self-confident, able to solve problems, change agent, through student clubs	S24,S22, S35, S31, S2, S26
Loser status of the department	Not enough funding, being looked down on	S31, S35, S40
	Lack of facilities	S12, S13
	Location of the department	S41, S12, S13
Student profile	Not ready to take risks, not wanting to get out of the comfort zone	S38,S13
	Shy students	S38, S13, S12
	Obedient, happy with what is at hand not looking for more	S13, S12
	Oriented to public schools, coming from public schools, narrow-minded	S31,S35
	Not competent enough in terms of subject matter	S31, S35, S6

	knowledge or pedagogical content knowledge	
Education courses	Large class size	S36
	Overuse of lectures The teaching method	S36, S42, S21, S31, S2
	No course on curriculum development, limited testing	S42
	Part-time instructors' limited English proficiency	S42
	No real learning - based on memorization - Trivial, superficial content, we will just follow our instincts	S36,S38, S31, S35, S10, S7, S21
	Medium of instruction- KPSS - Should be in Turkish	S38, S3, S25, S9
	Content - oriented to American education system	S38, S10, S7
	Very good, could be increased	S19, S20, S33, S16, S23, S3, S17, S33, S34
Methodology courses	No detailed feedback Evaluation criteria not clear	S36, S29, S7, S14
	Repetitive	S39, S28, S30
	Microteachings/lesson plans not realistic, utopian, contrived	S3, S38, S9, S37, S31, S6, S26, S17
	Not enough attention on teaching grammar	S4, S40, S9, S22, S35
	No connection with real life context	S5, S21, S6, S1, S2, S17, S3, S23
	Ignores sociocultural background of students	S5, S21, S22
	Too many lesson plans that are similar to each other	S43, S6, S15
	Not able to write objectives because different instructors have different criteria, not standard	S25, S24, S42, S41, 37
	Theory and practice not linked	S31, S35, S19, S6, S2
	Overuse of micro-teachings	S6, S16
	Too much attention on dress code	S12, S13, S16, S15, S6
	Lesson plans - too	S12, S13, S16, S7, S15, S6, S3,

	structured, no room for creativity	S17
Listening courses	Not learning much	S29, S40, S19, S12, S2, S6
Translation courses	Very few	S3, S7, S14
Speaking courses	Number of courses should be increased	S42, S4, S20, S13
	Not learning much	S21, S40
	We have a lack of confidence	S42, S13
Grammar courses	Too abstract	S29, S2, S26
	Could have served as a demo for grammar teaching	S29
	Should not be in the first year, but last year. Grammar instead of lexicon	S25, S24, S26
Reading-writing courses	Very useful - provides a foundation	S40, S21, S2, S26, S4
Linguistics courses	Too many courses	S42, S4
	No links with language teaching	S5, S24, S31, S35, S2
	Too abstract	S24, S2
Literature courses	No links with language teaching	S42, S5, S16
	Paraphrasing in tests	S29
	Professors reading texts	S36
	Based on memorization, not on reflection	S11, S36
	Too many courses	S4, S24
	Must start in the secondary year	S25, S21
	Provides general knowledge -could be used in private colleges	S40, S27, S32,
	Very useful - gives a chance to think - Creates a taste of art - helps intellectual development	S27, S31, S35, S16, S28, S15, S3 S7
	Too difficult	S21
	Evaluation based not on content, but on grammar	S25
	Concern for grades	S28, S6
Linguistics & Literature courses	Introductory courses should be must - advanced courses	S4, S21, S24, S9, S22, S25, S43, S7, S37, S19, S20, S6

	should be elective	
	Essential for a language teacher	S10, S8
Research course	Too much attention	S42
	Should be divided into two courses	S3, S27
Practice teaching courses	Don't know how to manage classes, classroom management course should come before school experience	S4
	Very limited practice opportunities	S31, S33, S6, S13, S12,
	Should start earlier	S33
	Summer practice like community service should be offered	S12
SOLUTIONS	Interactive language proficiency courses - first year	S29
	Methodology course in first year	S29
	The quality and content of courses could be increased	S42
	The course selection could be relevant to language teaching	S42
	Linguistics and literature courses could be limited, language courses could be increased instead	S29, S3
	Current issues in ELT could be offered	S39
	International experience should be a must	S38
	Students should take part in departmental meetings	S31
	Culture courses should be added	S19, S20, S34
	Art courses, language philosophy should be added	S28, S13, S12
	Philosophy of education, sociology of education should be offered	S23

Aims of the program	Not educating a teacher, but a researcher/scholar/instructor	S42, S27, S4, S9, S25, S19, S20, S1, S2, S26
	No clear aim	S5, S9
	Confusing statements from instructors	S5
	An idealist teacher, but we are not at that level	S4, S21, S6
	Directs us to working for private schools	S9, S10, S20
	Looks down on public school teachers	S10, S19
	Provides many chances	S6, S32, S27, S2, S8, S11
	Can only do justice to what we learn here at the higher education level	S1, S2, S26
	Active reflective teacher	Multi-dimensional teacher
A teacher who tries to draw the attention of students, making students enjoy learning English		S7, S20, S19,
A good quality teacher		S5, S28
Directs students to critical thinking		S24, S26, S2
METU graduate knows that teachers should treat the differences respectfully		S29, S2, S26, S13, S12, S3, S9, S10, S19, S28, S43, S37
Believes in students, everybody can do it		S22
Able to solve problems		S22
Open to learning, uses creativity, student-centered		S25
Competent and able to build good relations with students		S10
Very active, moves heaven and earth		S18, S6

	Totally away from a technician teacher	S4
Transformative moments	Coming from a conservative background, overcame my prejudice (with the help of campus environment, having diverse friends, education course discussing these issues)	S29, S3, S9, S10, S8, S20,S19, S28, S2, S26, S12, S13, S36, S42, S31,
A semi-qualified teacher	Difficult to address culturally diverse students	S24, S25, S20, S12
	Don't know how to approach special education students, only limited to realizing the problem and directing it to counselor	S39, S42, S38, S27, S7,
	Not realistic, utopian	S18, S12, S13, S9
	I don't feel confident or competent as a public school teacher	S11, S22, S25, S4, S21
	I don't feel ready to teach at private schools	S43,
	Feel better at public schools to understand students	S22, S37
	Learning how to educate the children of rich families, but don't know how to teach without technology	S11, S9, S24, S25, S22, S20, S26, S2, S1
Single-size teachers	Standardized teachers	S12, S13
	Not very creative, based on rote learning	S14
Individualistic teacher	Learnt to be selfish, individualistic teacher looking for individual gains	S32, S7, S37
Transformative intellectuals	A teacher who broadens the horizons of his/her students	S38,S31
	A teacher that changes the society, at least who creates an awareness and who broadens the horizons of students	S38
	My aim is not only to teach English/We can challenge the system/We won't obey	S24, S43, S12

	We just talk about the issues and the solutions, but not taking a step forward, taking initiative	S36, S37
	A teacher who does not care about enlightening students, no such aim in the program	S5, S37, S13, S14, S36, S28, S32
	No direct focus in the program, perhaps implied	S27, S40, S26, S2
	Ready for such a role if needed	S7, S26, S2
	Not ready for such a role - it requires many things	S10
	You should be the change itself	S31
	Should be persistent and stubborn	S32
Teacher's responsibilities for the society	A good role model	S29, S42
	Could inform students about the current issues in the world, not imposing her own ideology	S39, S42, S29
	Encourages free thinking	S39, S42, S36, S29
	Educates individuals embracing universal values	S42
	Serves the society, very important role	S25, S22, S13
	Responsibility of an intellectual towards the society not more than other citizens	S22, S24, S12
	Responsibility of a conscious intellectual	S18
	Consciousness raising	S32, S33
Ideal teacher	Should not be afraid of anything/anybody, should do what is right	S5
	A life-long learner	S4, S8
	Should not impose his/her ideas to students	S40,
	A competent teacher knowledgeable about his/her field	S37, S10,S2

	Good communication skills	S7, S10, S35, S26, S3, S2
	Fair, respectful	S10, S35
	Likes teaching	S10
	Organized	S35
	Positive	S26

APPENDIX F: SAMPLE INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Mülakat Gönüllü Katılım Formu (Öğretim Elemanı)

Bu mülakat ODTÜ İngiliz Dili Öğretimi doktora programı dahilinde yürütülen bir doktora tezi çalışması kapsamında yapılacaktır. Söz konusu çalışmada bir öğretmen eğitimi lisans programının aday öğretmenlerde geliştirmeyi amaçladığı öğretmen rolleri araştırılmaktadır.

Mülakatta görev yapmakta olduğunuz lisans programına, sizin öğretmenlik mesleği üzerine görüşlerinize ve kariyer geçmişinize ilişkin sorular yöneltilecektir. Mülakat ortalama 30-40 dakika sürecektir. Vereceğiniz yanıtlar programda benimsenen öğretmen rollerinin aydınlatılması için önem taşımaktadır. Mülakata katılımında gönüllülük esastır. Mülakat sırasında sorular nedeniyle ya da başka bir nedenle herhangi bir rahatsızlık hissetmeniz durumunda istediğiniz an mülakata sonlandırma hakkına sahipsiniz. Böyle bir durumda araştırmacıya mülakata devam etmek istemediğinizi söylemeniz yeterli olacaktır.

Mülakatlarda size sorulan sorulara verdiğiniz yanıtlar yalnızca doktora tezi kapsamındaki araştırmada kullanılacak, görüşmelerin sesli kayıtları şifreli bir bilgisayarda saklanacak ve katılımcının kimliği gizlenecektir. Araştırma yayınlarında görüşmeler sırasında katılımcıların kullandığı ifadelerden katılımcı kimliği gizli tutularak alıntı yapılabilecektir.

Bu çalışma ile ilgili daha ayrıntılı bilgi almak için araştırmacı S. Yasemin Tezgiden Cakcak ile (tezgiden@metu.edu.tr) iletişime geçebilirsiniz. Katılımınız için teşekkürler.

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum. (Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri veriniz).

İsim Soyad

Tarih

İmza

Verilen Ders

APPENDIX G: COURSE CONTENTS OF THE CoHE 2007 PROGRAM

Approaches to ELT I

Basic issues and processes in ELT course design; the difference among approach, method, and technique and the significance of these concepts in course design; an overview of important methods and approaches in ELT: Grammar Translation Method, Direct Method, Audio-lingual Method, Silent Way, Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia, Communicative Approach, the Natural Approach.

Approaches to ELT II

Current issues and practices in ELT course design, appropriate approaches suitable to learner needs based on current distinctions such as ESL, EFL, EIL, ESP, EAP; current foreign language teaching trends such as constructivist approach, content-based instruction, task-based instruction, problem-based teaching, multiple intelligences, whole language approach and corpus-based applications of language teaching; culture and classroom second/foreign language learning, technology use in language classrooms, and communicative and intercultural competencies for the language learner and teacher of the globalized world.

ELT Methodology I

Designing and conducting needs analysis on language learner needs (e.g.: situational, objective, subjective and language needs), writing objectives that reflect these needs and designing course syllabus at the macro level and micro level; an overview of different lesson stages (i.e.: Presentation, Practice and Production) and approaches to lesson planning and course design; various syllabus types and criteria for the selection of appropriate syllabus type according to the learner needs, learner age and aims of the course; standards-based teaching, proficiency descriptors, English language proficiency standards and guidelines, Common European Framework and the European Language Portfolio; and identity.

ELT Methodology II

Classroom-based research, teacher directed research and action research, diagnosing learners' language related needs and remedial teaching activities; principles of learner monitoring and role of learner assessment in lesson planning; national and international professional organizations (e.g.: TESOL and INGED) and practical journals (e.g.: English Teaching Forum, ELTJ, TESLJ and TESL Reporter)

Teaching Language Skills I

Techniques and stages of teaching listening, speaking, pronunciation and vocabulary; building language awareness and teaching skills for language learners at various ages and language proficiency levels; lesson planning and techniques of the specific skills for a variety of proficiency levels.

Teaching Language Skills II

Techniques used in and stages of teaching reading, writing and grammar to language learners at various ages and language proficiency levels; building language awareness and teaching skills; integration of the language skills, principles of lesson planning and techniques of the specific skills for a variety of proficiency levels.

Teaching English to Young Learners I

The differences between young learners (K-6) and learners at other ages (in terms of learning of language structures, skills and sub-skills), misconceptions about young learners; learner styles (e.g.: visual, auditory, kinesthetic) and strategies (e.g.: meta cognitive, cognitive, socio affective) of young learners; activities (e.g.: puzzles, stories and games, simulations) and audio visual aids (e.g.: pictures, realia, cartoons, puppets, songs) for the teaching of vocabulary, language skills and structures; selecting and sequencing teaching points and adopting and evaluating materials according to the cognitive and affective development and language level of the learners; classroom management techniques necessary for young learner classrooms.

Teaching English to Young Learners II

Young learner (K-6) course syllabuses (e.g.: story-based, content-based, theme-based, task-based), effective use of child literature within a chosen syllabus; video recordings of young learner classrooms with reference to classroom management, presentation of language and practice.

Literature and Language Teaching I

Example short stories and novels from British and American and those which are originally produced in English, identification of the distinctive features of short stories and novels; different approaches to using literature with teenage and adult learners at all levels; examining ways in which the teaching of literature and language in these two genres (short story and novel), exploring theoretical and practical dimensions of this integration; analysis of literary texts as content and as context; culture teaching through short stories and novel in the following domains: comparison and contrast between objects or products that exist in the target and native culture; proverbs, idioms, formulaic expressions which embody cultural values, social structures, roles and relationships; customs/rituals/traditions; beliefs, values, taboos and superstitions; political, historic and economical background; cultural institutions; metaphorical/connotative meanings, use of humour.

Literature and Language Teaching II

The characteristics of poetry and drama as a literary genre; Example poems and plays from British and American and those which are originally produced in English, approaches to analyzing ways to use contemporary poetry and drama; activities that help students analyze literature as context and as content; teaching of literature and language in these two genres and theoretical and practical dimensions of this integration; teaching cultural and social issues through poetry and drama in the following domains: comparison and contrast between objects or products that exist in the target and native culture; proverbs, idioms, formulaic expressions which embody cultural values; social structures, roles and relationships; customs/rituals/traditions; beliefs, values, taboos and superstitions; political, historic and economic background; cultural institutions; metaphorical/connotative meanings, use of humour.

Language Teaching Materials Adaptation and Development

Theory and principles of ELT materials design (e.g.: selecting, adapting, developing and evaluating materials) and the basic arguments for and against the use of coursebooks in the classroom; the relation between methodology, ideology and the coursebook writer; format for the selection of language materials: suitability regarding the format, the students' proficiency level, learnability, ease of use, cultural content, availability of communicative interaction and language use, and the use of corpus-based authentic materials set in a real-world context which allows learners to interact with each other or the teacher in meaningful ways; adapting or developing materials for language teaching: adapting coursebook materials to particular learning needs and teaching contexts, designing teaching materials and supplementing materials parallel to the methodology, to the level and needs of the students and to present school environment; evaluation of materials and text books used in EFL classroom settings, language material and textbook evaluation criteria and ways to relate materials design to current ELT methodology.

English Language Testing and Evaluation

Basic concepts, principles and constructs of classroom-based assessment; different types of tests and testing (e.g.: proficiency, achievement, diagnostic and placement tests, direct vs. indirect testing, discrete point vs. integrative testing, norm referenced vs. criterion referenced testing, objective testing, communicative language testing) and various types of questions for a wide range of language assessment purposes, development and evaluation of such language tests and of other available types (e.g.: portfolio, self-assessment, learner diaries); language tests for different age groups, different proficiency levels and various learner styles; test preparation techniques for testing reading, writing, listening, speaking, vocabulary and grammar individually and testing language skills in an integrated manner; application of basic descriptive and inferential statistical calculations and the principles underlying test design (e.g.: content, criterion related, construct, face validity; reliability, standard error of measurement and the true score; practicality); stages of test construction, item analysis and interpretation of test scores, standardized tests (e.g.: TOEFL; IELTS and exams accredited by the Council of Europe for the European Language Portfolio), teacher prepared language tests, and beneficial backwash.

APPENDIX H: TURKISH SUMMARY

Öğretmenin toplumda edindiği rol ilk uygarlıklardan bu yana insanlığı meşgul etmiştir. İnsanlık tarihinde öğretmenlik sorunsalına ilişkin yürütülen belki de ilk tartışma Socrates'in bir eğitici olarak oynadığı roldür ki kendisinin idam edilmesine yol açmıştır. O dönemde yaşanan tartışma öğretmenin göz etmesi gerekenin kamu yararı mı, yoksa güçlülerin çıkarı mı olduğu noktasına odaklanmıştır. Günümüzde ise benzer bir tartışma varlığını sürdürmektedir. Öğretmenlerin ve öğretmen adaylarının yerine getirmesi gereken roller konusu henüz çözülmemiş bir sorunsaldır. Bu doktora çalışması da tam olarak bu sorunsala odaklanmaktadır: öğretmenin rolleri. Bu çalışma, Türkiye'de bir kamu üniversitesinin Yabancı Diller Eğitimi (YDE) lisans programında vurgulanan öğretmen rollerini araştırmaktadır. Bu çalışma aynı zamanda söz konusu lisans programında üzerinde durulan öğretmen rollerinin arkasında yatan politik-ekonomik, sosyo-kültürel ve kurumsal sebepleri de gün yüzüne çıkarmayı amaçlamaktadır.

Çalışmada incelenen öğretmen rolleri Kumaravadivelu'nun (2003) üçlü kategorizasyonuna dayanır. Bu sınıflandırmaya göre öğretmen rolleri *pasif teknisyen olarak öğretmen, düşünen bir uygulayıcı olarak öğretmen ve dönüştürücü bir entelektüel olarak öğretmen* olmak üzere üçe ayrılır. Kumaravadivelu'ya göre, pasif teknisyen olarak öğretmen kendisine sunulan bilgiyi belirli bir süzgeçten geçirmeksizin gelecek nesillere aktarmakla yükümlü, yaratıcılığı kısıtlanmış bir öğretmendir. Tek yapması gereken bilimsel veriler sonucunda elde edilmiş bilgilerin gösterdiği yöntemleri kullanarak kendisine sunulanı öğretmektir. Bunu yaparken kendi içinde bulunduğu bağlamın gerçeklerini ya da öğrenci profilini göz önüne alması söz konusu değildir. Bu haliyle yaratıcılığı ve karar verme yetisi kısıtlanmış bir öğretmendir.

Düşünen bir uygulayıcı olarak öğretmenlik anlayışı ise öğretmenlik mesleğinin pasif bir teknisyenlik olarak düşünülemeyeceğini, öğretmenliğin bilgi üretimine ve sorun çözmeye dönük bir ihtisas mesleği olduğunu ifade eder. Dewey'e (1933/1997) göre, öğretmenler bu meslekte gelenek ve otoriteye boyun eğerek sorgulamadan gerçekleştirdikleri rutin eylemlerin ötesine geçmeli, verdikleri tüm

kararları öncesinde, sonrasında ve eylem anında eleştirel bir bakış açısıyla sorgulayarak karar vermelidirler. Dewey, öğretmenlik mesleğinin daha önceden kararlaştırılmış bir dizi rutin eylemden oluşmadığını, tersine bağlam odaklı, yaratıcı, entelektüel bir etkinlik olduğunu savunur. Benzer biçimde, Schön (1987) ise sınıf gerçekliğinin beklenmeyen sorun ve ikilemlerle dolu olduğunu ve onları çözmek için hazır reçeteler olmadığını, öğretmenlerin düşünsel bir etkinlik içine girerek kendi koşullarına uygun çözümler bulmaları gerektiğini savunur. Schön'e göre düşünsel etkinlik uygulama, gözlem, düşünme, yaratıcılık ve deneme-yanılma ile gerçekleştirilen devamlı bir etkinliktir. Ne var ki düşünsel öğretmenlik anlayışının yaygınlaşması ile birlikte kavramın içeriği de boşalmaya başlamış, öğretmenlik üzerine odaklanan her düşüncenin düşünsel öğretmenlik anlayışına dahil olacağı sanılmaya başlanmıştır. Zeichner ve Liston'a göre (1996), eğer "bir öğretmen mesleğini yönlendiren amaçları ve değerleri, içinde çalıştığı bağlamı ya da kendi varsayımlarını sorgulamıyorsa" sırf öğretmenlik pratiği üzerine düşündüğü için düşünsel bir öğretmen olarak adlandırılmaz. Bir öğretmenin düşünsel öğretmen olarak nitelendirilebilmesi için program ve okul geliştirme çalışmalarında yer alması ve kendi mesleki gelişim sorumluluğunu üstlenmesi gerekir.

Dönüştürücü bir entelektüel olarak öğretmen ise diğer öğretmenlik rollerinin yanında kamusal bir aydın kimliği ile adil, demokratik ve eşit bir toplumun yaratılması için çalışır; yalnızca sınıf içerisinde uygun bir öğrenme ortamı yaratmakla kalmaz, sınıf içi ve dışında yaşamı dönüştürmek için uğraşır (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Dönüştürücü entelektüel olarak öğretmen kavramını ortaya atan Henry Giroux bir yandan öğretmenlik mesleğinin değersizleştirilmesi ve vasıfsızlaştırılmasına karşı çıkarken diğer yandan da öğretmen eğitimini tekniklere indirgeyen anlayışın öğretmenlerin belirli method ve tekniklerin arkasında yatan ilkeleri görmekten alıkoyduğunu savunur. Giroux'ya (1988) göre öğretmenlerin "aktif ve eleştirel yurttaşlar" yetiştirmelerini engelleyen ve öğretmenlerin "zekasını, karar verme yetisini ve deneyimini göz ardı eden" toplumsal ve politik anlayışa meydan okunmalıdır (s. 121). Dönüştürücü entelektüeller olarak öğretmenlerin görevi öğrencilerinin düşünen aktif bireyler olmaları için düşünce ve uygulamayı birleştirmektir (*praxis*). Giroux ve McLaren'a (1986) göre, "dönüştürücü entelektüel rolünü benimseyen öğretmenler öğrencilerine eleştirel özneler olarak davranır,

bilginin ne şekilde üretildiğini ve yayıldığını sorgular, diyalogtan yararlanır ve bilgiyi anlamlı, eleştirel ve özgürleştirici hale getirir" (s. 215). Bunu yapmak için de okulun siyasi bir kuruluş olduğu ve toplumda var olan toplumsal, ekonomik ve politik eşitsizlikleri pekiştirdiği konusunda öğrencilerinin bilincini artırmaya çalışır. Bu amaçla öğrencilerin kendi deneyimlerinden yola çıkar ve öğrencilere kendi deneyimledikleri sorunların arkasında yatan politik ve ahlaki gerekçeleri anlamlandırma konusunda yardım eder. Öğrencilerini hem okuldaki, hem de toplumun bütünündeki eşitsizlik ve sömürü ile mücadele etmek için eleştirel bir bakış açısı geliştirerek eyleme geçmeleri konusunda yüreklendirir.

Niteliksel bir durum araştırması olarak dizayn edilen bu çalışma kavramsal çerçevesini eleştirel pedagojiden almakta, ilgili alanyazın ile birlikte tarihsel bir arkaplan üzerine inşa edilmektedir. Yabancı diller eğitimi programında vurgulanan öğretmen rollerinin saptanabilmesi için veri toplama sürecinde doküman analizi, derinlemesine mülakatlar ve sınıf gözlemlerinden yararlanılmıştır. İncelenen dokümanlar arasında programın vurguladığı öğretmen rollerinin mikro ölçekte anlaşılmasını sağlayacak program dokümanları, ders katalogları ve websiteleri gibi belgeler yanında fakülte ve üniversite dokümanları da yer almıştır. Çalışmada ayrıca öğretmen eğitimi üzerinde belirleyici bir rolü olan YÖK'ün (tezde CoHE olarak geçmektedir) ve MEB'in (tezde MoNE olarak geçmektedir) dokümanları da incelenmiştir. Bu doktora çalışması, program dokümanlarında yer verilen öğretmen rollerinin yanında öğrencilerin, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin, emekli öğretim üyelerinin ve program yöneticilerinin de görüşlerine yer verir. Çalışma, ayrıca, sınıf gözlemleri aracılığıyla metodoloji ve öğretmenlik uygulaması derslerinde odaklanılan öğretmen rollerini de araştırmaktadır. Sınıf gözlemleri, Eylül 2012 ile Mayıs 2014 arasında gerçekleştirilmiş, araştırmacı derste gözlemci olarak yer almış ve not tutmuştur.

Bu doktora tezi, niteliksel bir durum araştırması olarak belirli bir durumdaki belirli bir bağlamın derin bir şekilde analizine dayanır (Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2013). Toplumsal gerçekliğin çoklu ve karmaşık olduğu fikrinden yola çıkan niteliksel araştırma paradigmasına göre "toplum nesnel olarak gözlenebilen bir varlık" değildir. (Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2013, s. 6). Toplumla ilgili bilgileri kendi dünya görüşleri ışığında üreten kişiler bireylerdir. Bu nedenle niteliksel araştırmalar hem katılımcıların, hem de araştırmacıların öznel olduklarını ve bu

nedenle belirli önkabullerle hareket ettiklerini kabul eder (Merriam, 2009). Niteliksel arařtırmacıların ne bir çalıřmayı planlama ařamasında, ne de yorumlama ařamasında kendi dünya görüşlerinden sıyrılmaları mümkün deęildir. Niteliksel arařtırmada veri toplama ve analizinde kullanılan temel unsur arařtırmacının kendisidir: "tüm gözlemler ve analizler arařtırmayı yapan kiřinin dünya görüşünün, deęerlerinin ve bakıř açasının filtresinden geçer." (Merriam, 2009, s. 22). Bir bařka deyiřle, öznellik kiřisellik niteliksel çalıřmalara içkindir ve niteliksel çalıřmaya biriciklik katan da budur (Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2013). Bu nedenle niteliksel arařtırmalarda okuyucuyu yanıltmamak için arařtırmacının kendi rolü üzerine düşünmesi ve ben dili kullanarak kendi kimlięini ve öznellięini açıkça ortaya koyması gerekir.

Ben bu tezde inceledięim programda öğretim görevlisi olarak çalıřan yeni bir öğretmen eęitimcisiyim. Bu doktora çalıřmasına bařladıęım sıralarda programda iki yıldır dil dersleri veriyordum ve programla ilgili bilgilerim sınırlıydı. Ders verdięim lisans programı ile ilgili bilgilerimi derinleřtirmek ve verdięim derslerde gözlemledięim kimi sorunlar üzerine daha derin düşünmek için bu çalıřmayı yapmaya karar verdim. Bu çalıřmayı yaparken temel aldıęım eleřtirel teori ile teorik bilgilerimi genişlettim ve kendi çeliřkili düşüncelerimin altında yatan önkabuller ve varsayımlar ile yüzleřme fırsatı buldum. Bu çalıřmayı yaparken geçirdięim kiřisel dönüşüm verdięim derslere ve öğrencilerle olan iletiřimime yansiyarak tezi etkilemiř olabilir. Ama niteliksel arařtırmalarda arařtırmacının bağlam üzerindeki etkisi zaten yadsınamayacak bir gerçeklik olarak kabul edilmektedir.

Niteliksel arařtırmalar analiz ve yorumlama için farklı felsefi çerçeveler kullanmaktadırlar. Bu doktora çalıřmasının teorik çerçevesini oluřturan felsefi çıkıř noktası ise Eleřtirel Toplumsal Teori ve onun eęitim alanındaki mirascısı olan Eleřtirel Pedagoji'dir. Dönüřtürücü entelektüel olarak öğretim kavramı kaynaęını Eleřtirel Pedagoji'den aldıęı için bu çalıřma için en kapsayıcı çerçevenin Eleřtirel Pedagoji olduęu tespit edilmiřtir. Eleřtirel bakıř açasıyla yapılan çalıřmalar durumları tarihsel çerçeveleri içinde ele alırlar. Bu nedenle bu çalıřmada incelenen program da siyasal ve tarihsel bağlamına yerleřtirilerek incelenmiřtir. Çalıřmanın birinci bölümü çalıřmanın temel özelliklerini anlatırken ikinci bölümü Türkiye'de eęitimin tarihsel bir arkaplanını çizerek çalıřmanın gerçekleştirildięi politik, ekonomik, tarihsel ve toplumsal gerçeklięi anlatır. Üçüncü ve dördüncü bölümlerde

tezin kavramsal çerçevesi ayrıntılarıyla çizilmiş, alanyazında yer alan temel öğretmen eğitimi yaklaşımları ve çalışmalarına yer verilmiştir. Beşinci bölüm çalışmanın metodunu ve katılımcıları mümkün olduğunca detaylı bir biçimde anlatmıştır. Altıncı bölüm doküman analizi bulgularını, yedinci bölüm programın tarihsel geçmişini, programın amacını ve programda yetişen öğrencileri katılımcıların bakış açılarından dile getirir. Sekizinci bölümde gözlem analizi bulgularına yer verilir. Son bölümde ise bulgular analiz edilmekte, programda odaklanılan öğretmen rollerinin arkasında yatan politik-ekonomik, sosyo-kültürel ve kurumsal gerekçeler tartışılmaktadır.

Eleştirel Pedagoji temel olarak geleneksel öğretim sisteminin amaçlarını ortaya çıkarmaya çalışır. Eleştirel pedogoglara göre okullar zamanın iktidar ve ideolojisine göre şekillenen politik, ekonomik ve kültürel kurumlardır. Mevcut sınıf yapısını yeniden üretmek ve belirli bilgi ve otorite türlerini tarafsızlık görüntüsü altında meşrulaştırmak için kullanırlar. Okullar yönetici sınıfların çocuklarına ayrıcalıklar sunduğu, dezavantajlı çocukları ise toplumsal yaşamın dışında bıraktığı için demokratik kurumlar olarak görülmemektedir. Eleştirel pedagoji bu nedenle okullardaki demokratik olmayan uygulamaları ortaya çıkarmak ve bunlarla mücadele etmek için çalışır; kültürel ve ekonomik açıdan dışlanan öğrencilerin desteklenmesi için uğraşır (Kincheloe, 2008). Bu nedenle bir direniş alanı olan okullarda eleştirel düşüncenin ve dönüştürücü eylemin desteklenmesini sağlamakla meşguldür. Eleştirel pedagoji ayrıca okulların toplumsal açıdan adil ve demokratik olması için çalışmakla kalmaz, içinde yaşadığımız toplumun da daha insani bir yer olması için mücadele eder.

Eleştirel pedagojinin kurucusu Paulo Freire Brezilyalı bir eğitim felsefecidir ve hayatını egemenlik ilişkilerinin analizine ve dönüştürülmesine adanmıştır. Ona göre, belirli bir sınıfın egemenliğini yok etmenin temel şartı eleştirel düşünce ve eylem içine girmek ve insanlarla diyalog kurmaktır. Ona göre bu mücadelede en önemli koşul, ezilenlerin diyaloga dayanan eğitim projeleri aracılığıyla ezildiklerinin bilincine varmalarındır. Ezilenler nesne konumuna indirgendiklerini fark ettikten sonra insanlaşmak için mücadele edeceklerdir. Bu mücadele sonucunda hem ezenler, hem de ezilenler özgürleşecek, insanlaşacaklardır. Freire (1970) kimsenin bir başkasını özgürleştiremeyeceğine inanıyordu. Freire, özgürleşmenin ancak bireylerin

kendileri tarafından gerçekleştirilebileceğini savunuyordu, bunun da dayanışma ve diyalog ile gerçekleşeceğini düşünüyordu. Bireylerin aktif bir düşünce sürecine girmeden gerçekliğin üzerindeki örtüyü kaldıramayacaklarını, dolayısıyla da kendilerini dönüştüremeyeceklerini düşünüyordu. Freire, ünlü kitabı *Ezilenlerin Pedagojisi*'nde anaakım eğitim sistemini "bankacı eğitim sistemi" olarak adlandırır. Geleneksel eğitim sisteminde öğretmenler "yatırımcı" konumunda öğrencilerine bilgi aktarır, öğrenciler ise pasif bir biçimde bilgiyi alan "yatırım nesnelere" dönüşür. Freire'ye göre, bankacı eğitim sistemi öğrencilerin yaratıcılığını öldürmek için geliştirilmiş bir zulüm yöntemidir; öğrencilerin ezenler tarafından konulan kuralları sorgulamadan kabul etmeleri için kullanılan bir mekanizmadır. Bu sistemde öğrenciler öğrenme sürecinin özneleri değil, nesnelere haline dönüşmüşlerdir. Öğrenciler sessiz olmayı ve kendilerine sunulan materyalle iletişime geçmemeyi öğrenmişlerdir. Öğretmenler ise empoze edilecek bilgiyi sunan otorite figürlerine dönüşürler (Freire, 1970). Bu nedenle, Freire eğitimin tarafsız olmasının mümkün olmadığını ve öğretmenlerin kendilerine kime hizmet ettikleri sorusunu sormaları gerektiğine inanır. Öğretmen ve öğrencilerin bu çıkmazdan kurtulmaları için de öğretmen-öğrenci ilişkisinin yeniden tanımlanması gerektiğini savunur. Bu yeni ilişkide her ikisi de hem öğretmen, hem öğrenci haline gelecektir. Öğretmen, yalnızca öğreten değil, öğrencileri ile diyalog halinde kendisi de öğrenen kişiye, öğrenciler ise öğrenmenin yanında öğreten de kişiler haline dönüşürler. Bu sürecin sonunda her iki taraf da beslenir.

Türkiye'de gerçekleştirilen araştırmalar daha çok program değerlendirmesine odaklanmıştır. Alanyazın taramasında yabancı dil öğretmen eğitimi programlarını öğretmen rolleri açısından inceleyen başka bir çalışmaya rastlanmamıştır. Bu nedenle teorik çerçevesi, programı yerinde gözlemlerle incelemesi ve programda yer alan bireylerin görüşlerine yer vermesi ile bu doktora çalışması programda derinlemesine bir analiz yaparak alanyazındaki boşluğu dolduracaktır. Bu çalışma bu alanda yapılacak çalışmaların önünü açabilir, eğitim fakültelerinde yaşanan gerçekliğin yaşayan bir örneğini oluşturabilir ve öğretmen eğitimi alanındaki karar mekanizmalarını etkileyerek sistemin dönüşmesi için alan yaratabilir.

Çalışmanın araştırma soruları şunlardır:

- 1) Türkiye'de öğretmen eğitimi konusunda söz sahibi farklı kurumların (YÖK, MEB, çalışmanın yapıldığı üniversite, fakülte ve bölüm) belgelerinde hangi öğretmen rolleri üzerinde durulmaktadır?
- 2) Çalışmanın yürütüldüğü yabancı diller eğitimi programı öğretmen adaylarını hangi öğretmen rollerine hazırlamaktadır?
 - a) Öğretmen adayları, öğretmen eğitimcileri ve program yöneticileri programda odaklanılan öğretmen rolleri ile ilgili ne düşünmektedir?
 - b) Programın method ve öğretmenlik uygulaması derslerinde hangi öğretmen rolleri vurgulanmaktadır?
- 3) Programda vurgulanan öğretmen rollerinin üzerinde durulmasının arkasında yatan politik-ekonomik, sosyo-kültürel ve kurumsal nedenler nelerdir?

Türkiye'de eğitim sisteminin tarihini incelediğimizde Cumhuriyet'in kuruluş yıllarında Osmanlı döneminden kalan geleneksel dinsel eğitim anlayışının yerini milliyetçiliğe ve laikliğe dayanan bilimsel bir eğitim sistemin aldığı görüyoruz. Cumhuriyetin kurucuları halkın modernizasyonu için eğitim sisteminin kilit öneme sahip olduğunu düşündükleri için kuruluş yıllarında ilköğretim zorunlu hale gelir (İnal, 2012). Bu süreçte öğretmenlere büyük görev düşmektedir, çünkü cumhuriyet ideolojisini halka götürecek olanlar onlardır. Kırsal kesimin gelişmesini sağlamak için 1937 yılında Köy Enstitüleri kurulur. Bu enstitüler, dönemin Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı'nın aydınlanmacılığı benimseyerek klasiklerin Türkçe'ye çevrilmesi için yaptığı girişimlerle birlikte ülkenin eğitim ve düşünce iklimi üzerinde büyük etki yaratır. Ne var ki yetenekli dönüşümcü entelektüel öğretmen yetiştirmeyi amaçlayan bu kurumlar komünizm propagandası yaptıklarına ilişkin suçlamalar nedeniyle 1954 yılında kapatılır. Bu sırada Türkiye çok partili döneme girmiş ve ekonomisini yabancı yardımlarına ve yatırımlarına açmış, Dünya Bankası ve Uluslararası Para Fonu'na üye olmuş, 1952 yılında NATO'ya üyeliği ile birlikte anti-komünist blogun bir parçası olmuştur. Eğitim sistemi de doğal olarak zamanın egemen ideolojisinden nasibini almıştır. Demokrat Parti döneminde kuruluş yıllarının laik okulları yerlerini dini eğitim yapan imam hatiplere bırakmıştır. İngilizce öğretim yapan Maarif

Kolejleri açılmaya başlanmış, Amerikan Ford Kuruluşunun desteği ile Eğitim Milli Komisyonu kurulmuştur. Bu komisyon 1961 yılında yürürlüğe giren ilköğretim programını yapan komisyondur. Demokrat Parti iktidarını sona erdiren 1960 askeri darbesinin ardından dönemin başbakanı ve iki bakanı idam edilmiş, 147 akademisyen üniversiteden atılmış, yüzlerce hakim in işine son verilmiştir. Yapılan yeni anayasa demokratik kitle örgütlerinin gelişimine olanak yaratmıştır. Öğrenci olaylarının büyümesi ve işçi eylemlerinin genişlemesinin ardından 1971 yılında Türkiye bir askeri darbe daha yaşamıştır. 1961 anayasası ile genişleyen özgürlükler yeniden sınırlandırılmış, üç öğrenci lideri idam edilmiştir. Bu dönemde imam hatip okullarının ve dershanelerin sayısı hızla artmıştır.

1980'li yıllar ile birlikte tüm dünyada etkili olan ekonomik buhran refah devleti anlayışından vazgeçilmesine, ulusal pazarlar yerine küresel pazarlara yönelmesine neden olmuş, neoliberal bir ekonomik düzene geçilmiştir. Bu yeni düzende piyasa hakimiyeti egemendir. Özel girişimler her tür devlet kontrolünden bağımsız hareket eder. Emekçilerin ücretleri düşürülmeye başlanır, sendikasılaşma yaygınlaşır, sermayede, mallar ve hizmetler serbest dolaşıma girer. Eğitim ve sağlık alanındaki kamu harcamaları kısıtlanır; altyapıya ayrılan bütçeler sınırlandırılır. Her alanda kamusal işletmeler özelleştirilmeye başlanır, kamu yararı kavramı yok edilmeye çalışılır (Martinez ve Garcia, 2000, aktaran Cole, 2008, s. 88). Dünyadaki bu yeni dönem ile birlikte Türkiye'de de 24 Ocak 1980'de IMF tarafından dayatılan kararlar kabul edilir. Ne var ki toplumun kendisine kısıtlamalar getiren bu kararları benimsemesi mümkün olmayacaktır. Bu nedenle 12 Eylül 1980'de Türkiye bir başka darbe ile uyanır. Darbe yönetimi alınan bu kararların uygulanmasını sağlar. Yeni dönemin eğitim anlayışı Türk-İslam sentezi olacaktır (Okçabol, 2005a). Vakıflara yüksek öğretim kurumu açması serbestliği tanınır. Devletin kamu harcamaları için yeterince kaynağı olmadığına dair yeni bir söylem geliştirilir, özel eğitim kurumlarının ve imamhatiplerin sayısı hızla artar, eğitim kamu hizmeti olmaktan çıkıp alınıp satılan bir metaya dönüşür (Altunya, 1995). Okullardaki ulaşım ve kafeterya hizmetleri de özelleştirilir. Eğitimde yatırım harcamalarına ayrılan bütçe 2002'de % 17,18 iken bu rakam 2014 yılında % 9,32'e iner. Hanehalkının eğitim harcamaları aynı dönemde dört katına çıkar (İnal, 2012; Keskin Demirer, 2012). Bu dönemde öğretmenlerin ekonomik durumları giderek zayıflar ve onları ek işler

yapma mecburiyetinde bırakır. Öğretmenlik iş güvenliği olan kamusal bir iş olmaktan çıkar sözleşmeli bir iş haline gelir. Mesleğin koşullarında yaşanan bu kötüye gidiş öğretmenlik mesleğinin toplum içindeki saygınlığını da zedeler. Sistem öğretmenleri sınava hazırlayıcı teknisyenlere dönüştürür (Yıldız, 2013).

Öğretmen eğitimi sistemi de 1981 yılında YÖK'ün kurulması ile birlikte dönüşüm geçirir. Tüm öğretmen eğitimi kurumları üniversitelere aktarılarak YÖK'e bağlı konuma getirilir. Öğretmen eğitimi programlarını bizzat YÖK kendisi göndermeye başlar. 1982-83 yılından sonraki dönemlerde öğretmen eğitimi programları bir tür esneklik ve özerklik yaşamışlarsa da 1997 yılında Dünya Bankası desteği ile gerçekleştirilen Öğretmen Eğitimi Reformu ile tüm öğretmen eğitimi kurumları kendilerine YÖK tarafından dayatılan programı izlemek mecburiyetinde kalır. Bu program, yabancı dil eğitimi programlarında method ve öğretmenlik uygulaması derslerinin sayısını artırdığı için kabul görse de temel eğitim derslerini (eğitim sosyolojisi, eğitim felsefesi, program geliştirme, vb.) kaldırması ile çok eleştiri alır. Yeni programın tepeden inme getirilmesi, az sayıda öğretmen eğitimcisinin görüşüne başvurulması da başka bir eleştiri konusu olmuştur (Okçabol, 2005b). 2006 yılında program gözden geçirilmiş, bu kez öğretmen eğitimi programlarına % 25 oranında esneklik tanınmıştır (YÖK, 2007b).

Yabancı dil öğretmen eğitimi programları üzerine yıllar içinde yapılan çalışmalar 1997 ve 2006 yıllarında yapılan reform öncesi ve sonrasında öğretmen adaylarının yaşadıkları sorunların çözülmesinde büyük bir değişiklik yaşanmadığını göstermektedir. 1997 reformundan önce Enginarlar (1997) tarafından yapılan araştırma öğretmen adaylarının pratik bilgilerini geliştiremediklerini, okul yönetimlerinin öğretmenlik uygulaması derslerini bir yük olarak gördüklerini ve her bir rehber öğretmene verilen aday öğretmen sayısının yüksek olduğunu göstermiştir. Seferoglu'nun (2006) çalışması da öğretmen adaylarının aynı rehber öğretmenleri ve benzer etkinlikleri izlemekten sıkıldıklarını ve rehber öğretmenlerden yeterince geribildirim alamadıklarını göstermiş, öğretmen adaylarının ihtiyaç duydukları kadar uygulama yapamadıklarını göstermiştir. Daha sonra yapılan çalışmalarda da varılan sonuç hep aynı olmuştur: öğretmenlik eğitimi programlarında, öğretmenlik mesleğine ilişkin bilgiler ile uygulama arasında bağlantı kurulamamaktadır (Şallı-

Çopur, 2008; Coşkun-Daloglu, 2010; Soruc & Cepik, 2013; Uztosun & Troudi, 2015).

Türkiye'deki öğretmen eğitimi tarihi ve Türkiye'de egemen olan öğretmen rolleri düşünüldüğünde çalışma sonuçlarının çalışma yapılmadan da tahmin edilebileceği iddia edilebilir. Ne var ki böylesi bir tutum o programda ders alan ve ders veren bireylerin özne olarak görülmemesi anlamına gelecek ve belirlenimci bir tutum içerektir. Yüksek öğretim sisteminin ve öğretmen eğitimi sisteminin getirdiği sınırlılıklar içinde de hareket etseler öğretmen eğitimcileri her zaman kendilerine dayatılan teknik odaklı öğretmen eğitimi anlayışına meydan okuma şansına sahiptirler.

Araştırma kapsamında gerçekleştirilen mülakatlara 43 öğretmen adayı (21 son sınıf öğrencisi, 16 üçüncü sınıf öğrencisi ve 6 ikinci sınıf öğrencisi) katılmıştır. Öğrenci mülakatlarının büyük bölümü odak grup mülakatları biçiminde yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşmelerdir. Çalışmaya ayrıca 8 öğretmen eğitimcisi, 4 emekli öğretim üyesi, 2 program yöneticisi katılmıştır. Çalışmanın verileri iki yılda toplanmıştır. Doküman analizi için YÖK, MEB, üniversite, fakülte ve bölüm dokümanları, ders katalogları, websiteleri taranmış, gerekli dokümanlara ulaşılmıştır. Sınıf gözlemleri kapsamında 8 metot, 2 öğretmenlik uygulaması dersi 7 ile 10 hafta boyunca izlenmiştir.

Niteliksel çalışmanın doğasından kaynaklanan çok sayıda verinin yönetilmesi ve incelenmesi sürecinde analizin sistematik bir biçimde yürütülmesi için Wellington'ın (2000) veri analiz aşamaları takip edilmiştir (bkz. Şekil 3). Araştırmacı önce verileri okumuş, öğretmen rolleri açısından önemli olan bölümlerin altını çizmiş, daha sonra bu bölümleri kodlamıştır. Bir süre sonra bu kodlar yeniden okunmuş ve kategorilere ayrılmıştır. Kategoriler zaman içinde bölümlere ayrılmış, kimi zaman da farklı kategoriler birleştirilmiştir. Belirli bir süre sonra veriler başka çalışma sonuçlarıyla karşılaştırılmış, sonra tekrar verilere geri dönmüştür.

Araştırmanın güvenilir ve geçerli olmasının sağlanması için niteliksel çalışmalarda kullanılan kalite kriterlerine başvurulmuştur (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Bulguların inandırıcılığının sağlanması için veri toplama süreci uzun bir sürece yayılmış, araştırmacı sahada uzun süre vakit geçirmiş, dersleri gözlemlemiş, öğrenci ve öğretmen eğitimcileri ile görüşmeler yapmıştır. Araştırma raporunda programın

ince ayrıntılarla mümkün olduğunca geniş kapsamlı bir biçimde betimlenmesine özen gösterilmiştir. Ayrıca veri toplama sürecinde farklı veri kaynaklarından ve veri toplama yöntemlerinden yararlanılmıştır. Tezi programda araştırma görevlisi olarak çalışıp dersleri, öğrencileri ve öğretmen eğitimcilerini yakından tanıyan iki doktora öğrencisi de okumuş, bulguların program gerçeklerini yansıttığını dile getirmişlerdir. Tezin içerisinde araştırma yöntemleri ve veri toplama ve analiz süreçlerinin ayrıntıları açıklanmış, doğrulanabilirlik kriteri yerine getirilmiştir. Araştırmacının konumu ve özneliği açıkça ifade edilmiş, okuyucunun yanıltılması bu şekilde engellenmiştir. Durum analizine dayanan bu çalışma yenilense dahi program durağan olmadığı için benzer sonuçlar çıkmayabilir, ne var ki veriler başka araştırmacılara açılarak verilerin güvenilirliği denetlenebilir. Çalışma sonuçları başka programlar için genellenemez, ancak benzer programları tanıyan okuyucular kendi bağlamları için çıkarımlarda bulunabilirler.

Doküman analizinde öncelikli olarak YÖK dokümanları incelenmiştir. 2007 yılında yenilen öğretmen eğitimi programı “kendisine söyleneni yapan teknisyen öğretmen yerine, problem çözen ve öğrenmeyi öğreten öğretmenleri yetiştirmeyi hedeflemektedir.” (YÖK, 2007a). Bu tanımlama Kumaravadivelu’nun (2003) kategorizasyonuna göre, yeni programın düşünen uygulayıcı öğretmen yetiştirmeyi amaçladığını göstermektedir. YÖK 2007 programının ders dağılımları incelendiğinde ise benimsenen öğretmen eğitimi yaklaşımının hedeflenen öğretmen tipi ile örtüşmediği görülür. 2007 Yabancı Dil Öğretmen Eğitimi Programında method, eğitim ve dil derslerinin sayısı oldukça fazla olmasına rağmen, öğretmenlik uygulamasına ayrılan ders sayısı yalnızca ikidir. Bu ders dağılımı tablosu (bkz. Tablo 14) YÖK’ün programındaki anlayışın teknisist bir öğretmen eğitimi anlayışına dayandığını gösterir. Uygulamalı bilim anlayışı da denilen bu anlayışı göre, öğretmen adayları önce method derslerinde bilimsel verilere göre nasıl dil öğretilceğini öğrenir, daha sonra ise bu bilgiler ışığında öğrencilerine dil öğretir. Öğretmenliğin nasıl yapılacağı ile öğretmenlik uygulaması birbirinden farklı zaman ve yerlerde öğrenilen iki farklı bölüme ayrılmıştır. Tersine, düşünen uygulamacı yetiştirmeye yönelik öğretmen eğitimi yaklaşımı öğretmenliğin yaparak yaşarak öğrenileceğini savunur. Bu anlayışa göre, öğretmenlik meslek bilgileri ile uygulama birbirinden ayrılmaz parçalardır. Öğretmenlik mesleği öğretmenlerin her farklı

duruma yönelik farklı çözümler bulmasını gerektiren, önceden kimi method ve teknikler aracılığıyla reçete edilebilecek bir meslek değildir. Ayrıca öğretmenlerin eğitimi bütünsel olarak görmelerini sağlayan eğitim sosyolojisi, eğitim felsefesi gibi temel eğitim derslerinin 1997 yılında öğretmen eğitimi programlarından çıkarılması öğretmen adaylarının eğitimi dar bir bakış açısıyla, tekniklere indirgeyerek algılamalarına neden olmakta, düşünen uygulayıcı ve entelektüel öğretmenler yetiştirilmesine ket vurmaktadır. YÖK programının ders içerikleri incelendiğinde yabancı dil öğretmen eğitimi derslerinin içeriğinde düşünsel öğretmenliğe, eleştirel pedagojiye ya da eleştirel dilbilimine yönelik hiçbir kavram ya da referansa rastlanmamaktadır. Bu da programın teknisist yönelimini açığa çıkarmaktadır.

MEB dokümanları incelendiğinde öğretmenlerin taşıması gereken rolleri açıkça tarif eden bir belgeye rastlanmamıştır. Ancak Öğretmen Yeterlilikleri ve Okul Temelli Mesleki Gelişim belgeleri incelendiğinde MEB'in bir öğretmende olması gereken nitelikleri tarif ettiği görülür. Bu belgelerde ortak olarak vurgulanan nitelikler öğretmen adaylarının yaşam boyu öğrenen bireyler olmaları, öğrencilerinin farklı ihtiyaçlarını gözetmeleri, aileler ile iletişim içerisinde olmaları ve mesleki gelişimi ön planda tutmalarıdır. Bu belgelerde öğretmenlerin program geliştirme çalışmalarındaki ya da karar alma mekanizmalarındaki sorumluluğuna değinilmemiştir. Öğretmenlerin toplumsal hayatı dönüştürme, öğrencilerine eleştirel yurttaşlık bilinci geliştirme gibi sorumlulukları olduğundan da söz edilmemiştir. Kısacası MEB dokümanları da YÖK dokümanlarında olduğu öğretmeni düşünen uygulayıcı olarak tarif eder.

Programın yer aldığı üniversitenin dokümanlarına bakıldığında mezunlarının toplumsal sorumluluklarına gönderme yapıldığını, mezunların dünyayı değiştirebileceklerine atıflarda bulunulduğunu ve toplumsal, çevresel sorumluluklara değinildiği görülmektedir. Bu veriler ışığında, muhalif tavrıyla tanınan üniversitenin dönüştürücü entelektüel bir mezun yetiştirmeyi hedeflediği söylenebilir. Fakülte dokümanlarına bakıldığında ise fakülte websitesinde yayınlanan tanımın öğretmen adaylarına bilimsel gelişmeleri öğretmenlik pratiklerine uygulamak dışında başka bir rol vermeyerek pasif teknisyen öğretmen yetiştirmeye yönelik olduğu görülmektedir. Programın kendi dokümanlarında yer alan program çıktıları dokümanları da öğretmen adaylarının karar verme becerilerine, düşünsel öğretmenlik ve mesleki

gelişim özelliklerine gönderme yaparak düşünen uygulayıcı bir öğretmen tarifi yapmaktadır. Her ne kadar 2007 programı Yabancı Diller Eğitimi bölümü tarafından belirli değişiklikler ile uygulansa da YÖK'ün getirdiği teknisist anlayıştan sıyrılabilmiş değildir. Ders dağılımlarında öğretmenlik uygulaması dersi sayısı aynı kalmış, method, dil ve eğitim derslerinin sayısı azalırken, edebiyat ve dilbilim derslerinin sayısı artmıştır (Tablo 14). Doküman analizi sonuçlarına göre, farklı kurumların yetiştirmeyi amaçladığı öğretmenler farklılık göstermektedir. Üniversite dokümanları daha çok dönüştürücü entelektüel yetiştirmeye yönelik olsa da fakülte dokümanlarının öğretmen adaylarına pasif bir rol verdiği görülmektedir. YÖK, MEB ve YDE bölümü düşünen uygulayıcı öğretmen yetiştirmeyi hedefleseler de uyguladıkları öğretmen eğitimi programı teknisyen öğretmen yetiştirmeye yöneliktir.

Çalışma katılımcıları ile yapılan mülakatlarda dokümanlarda belirtilenin aksine YDE programının belirli bir misyonu olmadığı ortaya çıkmıştır. Emekli öğretim üyeleri program geliştirme için herhangi bir bilimsel çalışma yapılmadığını, programın zaten YÖK tarafından dayatıldığını, bu süreçte kendi bilgi birikimlerinin ve deneyimlerinin hiçe sayıldığını dile getirmiş, programda YÖK'ün izin verdiği ölçüde değişiklik yapılması gerektiği dönemlerde de bölümün hoca profiline araştırma alanlarının alınan kararlarda etkili olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Emekli öğretim üyelerine göre edebiyat hocaları edebiyat derslerini artırmak istemiş, dilbilim hocaları da dilbilim derslerine ağırlık verilmesinden yana olmuşlardır. Ne var ki emekli öğretim üyelerinden birinin (TEB) söylediğine göre, programda yapılan değişikliklerde yetiştirilmesi hedeflenen öğretmenin özellikleri düşünülmemiştir. Öğrenciler de programla ilgili benzer gözlemlerini paylaşmışlardır. Bir öğrenci (S5) programın misyonunun bulanık olduğunu ifade etmiş, programın ciddi şekilde gözden geçirilmesi gerektiğini savunmuştur. Öğrencilere programda ne tür bir öğretmen yetiştirildiği sorulduğunda ise çok sayıda öğrenci programın öğretmen değil, akademisyen yetiştirdiğini ifade etmiştir. Öğrencilerin söylediğine göre, programda yer alan kimi edebiyat ve dilbilim dersleri çok ileri düzeyde, bilim insanı yetiştirmeye yönelik olarak verilmektedir. Bu derslerin bir bölümü katılımcıların belirttiği üzere, öğretmen adaylarının daha öncelikli gördükleri kimi alanlarda yetişmelerini (sınıf yönetimi, dil öğretimi, özel öğrenciler için eğitim, vs.) engellemektedir. Katılımcı kimi öğrenciler ise program öğretmen yetiştiriyorsa bile

bu öğretmenlerin özel okullarda ya da seçkin devlet okullarında görev yapmak üzere yetiştirildiğini, kendilerinin kısıtlı olanakları olan sınıflarda, farklı ihtiyaçları olan öğrencilerle nasıl çalışacaklarını bilmediklerini, aldıkları eğitimin ülkenin gerçeklerinden oldukça farklı olduğunu dile getirmişlerdir. Hem öğrenciler, hem de öğretmen eğitimcileri tarafından sözü edilen bir başka önemli konu da öğretmenlik mesleğinin kimi öğretim üyeleri tarafından küçümsendiği, özellikle de MEB okullarında çalışmanın hor görüldüğüne ilişkindir. Anlaşılan odur ki toplum içerisinde egemen olman öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik değer yitimi öğretmen yetiştiren bu bölüme de sirayet etmiştir.

Görüşme analizleri programda yetişen öğretmenin özelliklerine yönelik kimi çelişkili sonuçlar doğurmuştur. Kimi öğrenciler bölümde aktif, dinamik, düşünen öğretmenler yetiştirildiğini belirtirken kimi öğrencilerse programın böyle hedefleri olsa da kendilerinin o yetkinlikte olmadığını dile getirmiştir. Kimi öğrencilerse programın, özellikle de aldıkları kimi method derslerinin yaratıcılıklarını körelttiğini, kendilerini sınırlandırdığını ifade etmişlerdir. Bazı öğrenciler aldıkları method derslerinden bazılarının kendilerini boğduğunu ve hatta bu derslerde varoluşsal sorunlar yaşadıklarını belirtmişlerdir. Bunun yanında, kimi method derslerinde ise yabancı dil öğretiminin aslında ne kadar geniş bir alan olduğunu fark ettiklerini söyleyen öğrenciler de olmuştur. Programın dönüştürücü yönü söz konusu olduğunda, öğrencilerin ortak görüşü programın öyle bir hedefinin olmadığı, ama dönüştürücü entelektüel öğretmenler yetiştirmek isteyen kimi hocaların programda ders verdiği yönünde olmuştur. Kimi öğrenciler kimi edebiyat derslerinde kendilerini sorguladıklarını, başkalarını yargılamamayı ve dünyaya daha geniş bakmayı öğrendiklerini söylemişlerdir. Ayrıca üniversite ortamında, kampüsün farklılara saygılı atmosferinde dünyalarının genişlediğini söyleyen çok sayıda katılımcı öğrenci de mevcuttur. Ne var ki hem toplumun genelinde, hem de program özelinde daha çok bireysel kariyer hedeflerine yönlendirildiklerini, kamusal yarar adına çalışmayı öğrenmediklerini, politik ve güncel konuların derslerde tartışılmadığını belirten öğrenciler de olmuştur.

Görüşme analizleri özetlenecek olursa ortaya çıkan sonuç programın belirli bir misyonunun olmadığı, yetiştirilen öğretmen adaylarının da kimi derslerde daha teknik noktalara yöneltildiği, kimi derslerde ise daha düşünsel konulara

değınildiğidir. Bu da göstermektedir ki program bir yandan YÖK'ten aldığı teknisist öğretmen eğitimi programının etkisiyle teknik konulara ağırlık vermekte, diğeryandan da düşünsel öğretmen eğitime odaklanan öğretim üyelerinin etkisiyle eğitimin farklı boyutlarına odaklanmaktadır. Bu durumda görüşmelere dayanılarak programın pasif teknisyen öğretmen ile düşünsel öğretmen arasında bir öğretmen yetiştirdiğı söylenebilir.

Ders gözlemlerinden elde edilen veriler de aslında benzeri olgulara işaret etmektedir. Programda izlenen derslerde daha çok teknik ve method ağırlıklı konulara yönelinmiş, bunların arkasında yatan teorik ve felsefi konulara daha az yer verilmiştir. Programda model olma, micro-ders anlatma gibi teknikler daha çok kullanılırken, kavramlara, duygulara ve değerlere çok yer verilmemiştir. Her ne kadar hemen her derste öğrencilerden düşünce yazıları yazmaları istense, öğrenciler sürekli olarak düşünmeye kanalize edilse de öğrencilerin düşünsel sorgulamaları yüzeysel boyutta kalmış, derine inememiştir. Öğretimsel hedeflerin neyi amaçladığı ya da pedagojik eylemlerin ahlaki ve etik sonuçları üzerine düşünce geliştirme kısıtlı kalmıştır. İzlenilen derslerde demokrasi, sosyal adalet, eşitlik, öğretmen özerkliği, dil emperyalizmi gibi konulara hemen hiç değinilmemiştir.

Farklı veri toplama enstrümanlarından elde edilen veriler bir araya getirildiğinde görölmektedir ki araştırma bulguları yabancı dil öğretmeni yetiştiren lisans programının belirli bir misyonu olmadığını göstermektedir. Program çıktılarını gösteren dokümana göre, yabancı diller eğitimi lisans programı düşünen bir uygulayıcı yetiştirmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Mülakat ve gözlem bulguları ise programın düşünen öğretmen yetiştirmeye yönelik yanları olsa da programın daha çok teknisyen öğretmen yetiştirmeye çalıştığını işaret eder gibi görünmektedir.

Araştırma bulgularının eleştirel bir bakış açısıyla yorumlanması sonucunda yabancı diller eğitimi lisans programının daha çok teknisyen öğretmen yetiştirmeye odaklanmasının politik-ekonomik, sosyo-kültürel ve kurumsal boyutları tartışılmıştır. Politik-ekonomik düzlemde Dünya Bankası gibi uluslararası kuruluşların etkisiyle Yüksek Öğretim Kurulu tarafından şekillenen Türkiye'deki öğretmen eğitimi sistemi, öğretmenlerin sistem içinde önderlik edici, aktif roller almasını istemeyerek daha çok teknisyen öğretmen yetiştirmeyi tercih eder görünmektedir. Her ne kadar bu kurumlar söylem düzeyinde düşünsel öğretmenler yetiştirmeyi hedefler görünseler de

uygulamada benimsedikleri yaklaşım öğretmen adaylarının eğitimi belirli bir tarihsel ve politik gerçeklik içinde görmelerine olanak sağlamamaktadır. Ağırlıkla teknik konulara odaklanan program, öğretmen adaylarında sınıfta karşılaştıkları sorunların doğru tekniği kullanmamaktan kaynaklandığı gibi yanlış algılamalara yol açabilmektedir (Güven, 2008). Ayrıca Türkiye ve dünyada benimsenen neoliberal ekonomik politikaların öğretmen yetiştirme sistemine büyük bir etkisi olduğu gözlemlenmiştir. Kamu kaynaklarında yapılan kesintiler, eğitim fakültelerinin kaynak sıkıntıları çekmesine, sınıfların kalabalık olmasına, öğretim üyesine başına düşen öğrenci sayısının yüksek olmasına neden olmaktadır. Bunun yanı sıra, akademisyenler de kısıtlı maaşları nedeniyle mali sıkıntılar yaşamakta, ek gelir kaynakları bulmaya zorlanmaktadır. Bunların da dışında öğretim üyeleri hem ağır ders yüklerinin altından kalkmaya çabalamakta, hem de uluslararası yayın baskısı ile yüz yüze kalmaktadırlar. Tüm bu faktörler öğretmen eğitimcilerinin öğretmen adaylarına istedikleri ölçüde bir eğitim vermelerini engellemektedir. Öğretim üyeleri isteseler ve koşullar izin verse dahi YÖK'ün getirdiği öğretmen eğitimi programının ötesine geçme şansına sahip değillerdir.

Türkiye'de düşünce ve ifade özgürlüğü üzerindeki kısıtlamalar, üniversitelerin özgür olamaması, akademik özgürlüklerin yeterince gelişmiş olmaması nedeniyle bilim insanları kendilerini ifade etmekte güçlük çekmekte, öğretmen eğitimcileri kendi istedikleri şekilde değil, YÖK'ün istediği şekilde öğretmen yetiştirmeye mecbur bırakılmaktadır. Öğrencileri üzerinde denetim sahibi olmadıkları gibi (ideolojik proleterleşme), kendi öğretim süreçleri üzerinde de denetimleri sınırlıdır (teknik proleterleşme), çünkü program YÖK tarafından gönderilmektedir. Bu da öğretmen eğitimcilerinin yaratıcılığı sınırlandırarak onları kısmen de olsa vasıfsızlaştırmaktadır (Derber, 1983).

Teknisyen öğretmen yetiştirilmesinin kurumsal nedenleri arasında programda çalışan öğretim üyelerinin farklı çalışma alanları nedeniyle ortak bir amaç etrafında birleşememeleri gösterilebilir. Programda çalışan kimi öğretim üyelerinin eğitimci olmaması, onların öğretmenlik mesleğini hafife almalarına sebep olmakta, öğrencileri farklı alanlara yönlendirmelerine yol açmaktadır. Ortak bir amaç üzerinde birleşilememesi ise programın sistematik sonuçlara yönelmesini engellemekte, misyonsuz bir program ortaya çıkmaktadır. Bölümün kampüs içerisinde merkezden

uzakta bir yerde alması da bazı katılımcılara göre, programın düşünsel olarak da üniversite ortamının kenarında kalmasına ve izole olmasına neden olmaktadır. Programın içinde yer aldığı üniversitenin prestijli bir kurum olması ve sistem içinde ülkenin en üst düzey mevkilerinde çalışacak profesyoneller yetiştirme misyonunu edinmiş olması, oradan çıkan mezunların bu prestij ve ayrıcalık durumunu sorunsallaştırmadan prestijli kurumlarda çalışılması gerektiği yanılması neden olmaktadır. Program da araştırma üniversitesi olan üniversitenin genel misyonunu sahiplenmiş görünmektedir.

Bu doktora tezinden yapılan çıkarımlara göre, daha düşünsel ve dönüştürücü öğretmenler yetiştirilebilmesi için öncelikle yüksek öğretim kurumlarının hem her tür kamu kurumunun, hem de üniversitelerle işbirliği yapan ticari şirketlerin etkisinden özgür olmaları gerekmektedir. Neoliberal politikalardan uzaklaşmadıkça eğitim fakültelerinin fiziksel olanaklarının da akademisyenlerin içinde çalıştıkları zor koşulların da düzelmesi mümkün değildir. Öğretmen eğitim kurumlarının bağımsız olarak kendi programlarını yapması, gerekirse benzer programlarla işbirliği içinde aşağıdan yukarıya bir ulusal öğretmen eğitimi politikası geliştirmeleri gerekmektedir. İzlenecek yeni programlarda teknisist anlayışın ötesine geçilmeli, öğretmenlik mesleğinin koşullara uygun çözümler bulmayı gerektiren geniş kapsamlı entelektüel bir meslek olduğunun üzerinde durulmalıdır. Temel eğitim derslerinin (eğitim sosyolojisi, eğitim felsefesi ve program geliştirme) yanında, eleştirel pedagoji, güncel eğitimsel konular, vb. dersler programlarda zorunlu dersler olarak okutulmalıdır.

Önceki çalışmalarda vurgulandığı üzere, öğretmen adaylarının uygulama ile iç içe eğitim alabilmeleri için yoğun ve kapsamlı öğretmenlik uygulaması pratikleri benimsenmelidir. Öğretmen adayları ikinci sınıftan itibaren haftada en az bir gün okullarda yalnız gözlem değil, birebir öğretmenlik yapabilmelidir. Bu deneyimler üniversitede alacakları seminer dersleri, teori dersleri ve yapacakları eylem araştırmaları ile desteklenmelidir. Ayrıca rehber öğretmenler için MEB ile üniversitelerin işbirliğinde hazırlanacak ayrıntılı eğitim programları geliştirilmeli, üniversite hocaları ile öğretmenler uyum ve işbirliği içinde çalışmalı, aralarındaki hiyerarşik ilişkilere son verilmelidir.

Yabancı dil öğretmen eğitimi programlarının ise çerçevesi genişletilmeli, eleştirel uygulamalı dilbilim konularına, İngilizce öğretiminin politik ve ekonomik boyutlarına değinilmelidir. Öğretmen özerkliği, toplumsal adalet, eşitlik ve özgürlük konularına programlarda yer verilmelidir. Eleştirel uygulamalı dilbilim zorunlu ders kapsamına alınmalıdır. Bu çalışmada incelenen programda ise programın öncelikleri yeniden gözden geçirilerek program yeniden yapılandırılmalıdır. Temel eğitim derslerine yer açacak şekilde kimi ileri düzeydeki edebiyat ve dilbilim dersleri seçmeli hale getirilmelidir. Programda yer alan farklı akademik alanlarda ilerlemek isteyen öğrenciler içinse edebiyat, dilbilim, çeviri, uygulamalı dilbilim gibi alanlarda yandal programları açılabilir.

Bu çalışma zaman kısıtlamaları nedeniyle programda yer alan tüm ders gruplarını inceleyip o alanlarda çalışan öğretim üyeleri ile görüşmelere yer verememiştir. İleriki çalışmalarda eksik kalan alanlar incelenebilir. Bunun yanında Türkiye'deki farklı programlarda ne tür öğretmen rollerine odaklanıldığı, öğretmen adaylarının kendilerini hangi öğretmen rollerine daha yakın hissettiği, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin öğretmen algısı araştırılabilir.

APPENDIX I: VITA

PERSONAL INFORMATION

S. Yasemin Tezgiden Cakcak

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Nationality: Turkish (TC)

Date and Place of Birth: 1 November 1979 , Afyonkarahisar

EDUCATION

2009-Present Middle East Technical University - Ankara, Turkey PhD, English Language Teaching PhD Dissertation Title: Preparing Teacher Candidates As Passive Technicians, Reflective Practitioners or Transformative Intellectuals?
2005-2006 Bilkent University - Ankara, Turkey MA, TEFL Master Thesis Title: Effects of Instruction in Vocabulary Learning Strategies
1997-2001 Boğaziçi University - Istanbul, Turkey BA, Translation and Interpreting

WORK EXPERIENCE

Department of Foreign Language Education - February 2010 - Present Turkey As an instructor teaching courses like practice teaching, teaching language skills translation and reading and writing.
Afyon Kocatepe University - 2004-2010 School of Foreign Languages Afyon / Turkey As an instructor of English at the Preparatory Programme
Syracuse University - 2006-2007 Syracuse/NY/USA As a Turkish teaching assistant under the FLTA Programme
Cumhuriyet Super High School - 2003-2004 Afyon / Turkey As a teacher of English.
Milli Piyango Anatolian High School - 2002-2003 Afyon / Turkey As a teacher of English.

ACADEMIC WORKS

Tezgiden Cakcak, Y. (2014, June). Empowering Potential of Critical Reading for Non-Native English Teacher Candidates. Paper presented at the 4th International Conference on Critical Education in Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Thessaloniki, Greece.
Tezgiden Cakcak, Y. (2013, April). What Teacher Roles are Included in a Teacher Education Program to the Exclusion of Others? Paper presented at DPR 13 Conference: Discourses of Inclusion and Exclusion in University of Greenwich, London, UK.
Tezgiden, Y. (2011, June). Hearing Different Voices in Academic Writing Courses. Paper presentation, Conference proceedings of the 2 nd International Conference on Language Education, Eclipsing Expectations in Sabancı University, Istanbul, Turkey.
Tezgiden, Y. (2006, March). Effects of Instruction in Vocabulary Learning Strategies. Paper presented at 6 th Graduate Student Forum, TESOL 2006, Tampa, Florida, USA.
Tezgiden, Y. (2001, June). A Critical View on the Translation of <i>Mor Yıllar</i> . Paper presented at Translation Criticism Workshop, Boğaziçi University Translation and Interpreting Department, Istanbul, Turkey.

PUBLISHED WORKS OF TRANSLATION

Tozer, S. & Senese, G. (2015). Egemen İdeoloji ve Öğretmenin Mesleki Otoritesi. <i>Eleştirel Pedagoji</i> 7(39), 31-36.
Sadig Al-Ali, N. (2009). <i>Iraklı Kadınların Anlatılmayan Öyküsü 1948'den Bugüne</i> . İstanbul: İletişim Yayınları.
Kuspit, D. (2006). <i>Sanatın Sonu</i> . İstanbul: Metis Yayınları.
Eco, U. (2005). Kant ve Ornitorenk. <i>Cogito</i> , 41-42.
Arendt, H. (2005). Kant'ın Siyaset Felsefesi Üzerine Notlar. <i>Cogito</i> , 41-42.
Callinicos, A. (2004). <i>Toplum Kuramı</i> . İstanbul: İletişim Yayınları.
Kuran, T. (2002). <i>İslâm'ın Ekonomik Yüzleri</i> . İstanbul: İletişim Yayınları.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Advanced English, Intermediate French

ACCOMPLISHMENTS

Ranked 2nd in Turkey in 1997 ÖYS-University Entrance Exam (Foreign Language)

APPENDIX J: TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü

Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü

Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü

Enformatik Enstitüsü

Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü

YAZARIN

Soyadı : Tezgiden Cakcak

Adı : Sebahat Yasemin

Bölümü : İngiliz Dili Eğitimi

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) : PREPARING TEACHER CANDIDATES AS PASSIVE TECHNICIANS, REFLECTIVE PRACTITIONERS OR TRANSFORMATIVE INTELLECTUALS?

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans Doktora

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.

2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.

3. Tezimden bir bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz.

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ: