

WORK EXPERIENCES OF NON-LOCAL NON-NATIVE ENGLISH SPEAKING
TEACHERS IN TURKEY: A CASE STUDY

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TEACHERS IN TURKEY: A CASE STUDY

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Ayşe Eser Tüzel, certify that

- I am the sole author of this thesis and that I have fully acknowledged and documented in my thesis all sources of ideas and words, including digital resources, which have been produced or published by another person or institution;
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ABSTRACT

Work Experiences of Non-local Non-native English-Speaking Teachers in Turkey: A Case Study

The aim of this study is to qualitatively investigate the workplace experiences of 25 non-local non-native English-speaking teachers (henceforth non-local NNESTs), a third group of English teachers besides local NNESTs and native English-speaking teachers (henceforth NESTs). Additionally, the expectations of 25 local NNESTs, 25 non-local NNESTs, and seven administrators were met. The study took place in seven K-12 schools in a district of Istanbul, where a larger number of non-local teachers were hired. Data were collected through semi-structured interviews. The results revealed four major themes: unequal treatment between local and non-local NNESTs; lack of proficiency in Turkish among non-local NNESTs; challenges regarding school regulations; and the recruitment process. Besides disadvantages, advantages – i.e., personal and professional growth – were reported by non-local NNESTs. Regarding the second theme of the thesis, namely the expectations of the groups, all three groups agreed on the following issues: the professional contribution of non-local NNESTs, school achievement, and communication flow among groups. Non-local NNESTs, on the other hand, had distinct expectations in terms of fair treatment and attitudes toward them, whereas local NNESTs' and administrators' expectations focused on the non-local NNESTs' faster integration to school culture. The implication of the study is that, contrary to employment practices, the native/non-native dichotomy persists in the Turkish context, necessitating comprehensive training based on the reported needs and expectations of all three groups in order for those teachers to effectively participate in Turkish education.

ÖZET

Anadili İngilizce Olmayan Yabancı İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Türkiye'deki İş Deneyimleri ile ilgili bir Vaka Çalışması

Bu çalışmanın amacı, yerli İngilizce öğretmenleri (YİÖ) ve anadili İngilizce olan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin (ADİÖ) yanı sıra üçüncü bir İngilizce öğretmeni grubu olarak, anadili İngilizce olmayan 25 yabancı İngilizce öğretmenin (YİÖÖ) işyeri deneyimlerini niteliksel olarak araştırmaktır. Araştırmada yirmibeş YİÖÖ, yirmibeş (YİÖ) ve yedi okul yöneticisinin beklentileri ele alınmaktadır. Çalışma, İstanbul'un bir ilçesinde, çok sayıda YİÖÖ'nün işe alındığı yedi K12 okulunda gerçekleştirilmiştir. Yorumlayıcı fenomenolojik analiz yöntemi benimsenen çalışmada veriler, yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler yoluyla toplanmıştır. Sonuçlar dört ana zorluğu ortaya çıkarmaktadır: YİÖ ve YİÖÖ arasında eşit olmayan muamele, YİÖÖ'lerin Türkçelerinin iletişimsel açıdan yetersizliği, okul kuralları ve işe alım süreci ile ilgili zorluklar. Sonuçlar, YİÖÖ'ler tarafından kişisel ve profesyonel gelişim gibi avantajlarının da olduğunu altını çizmektedir. Tezin ikinci teması olan grupların beklentileri ile ilgili olarak üç grubun aşağıdaki konularda mutabık kaldığı görülmektedir: YİÖÖ'lerin eğitim öğretim ortamına mesleki katkısı, okul başarısı ve okul yönetimi ile ilgili konular. Ayrıca bulgular, YİÖÖ'lerin buldukları ortamda adil muamele, diğer paydaşların onlara karşı tutumlar konusunda beklentilerinin altını çizerken, YİÖ ve okul yöneticilerinin ise YİÖÖ'lerden okul kültürüne daha hızlı adapte olmalarını beklediklerini göstermektedir. Sonuçlar ışığında ana dili İngilizce olan ve olmayan öğretmen ikileminin Türkiye bağlamında hala belirgin olduğu ortaya çıkmakta, yabancı öğretmenlerin Türk eğitimine etkin katılımının sağlanması için kapsamlı hizmet içi eğitimler önerilmektedir.

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ABBREVIATIONS

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELF: English as a Lingua Franca

ELT: English Language Teaching

ESL: English as a Second Language

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

NS: Native Speaker

NNS: Non-Native Speaker

NEST: Native English Speaking Teacher

NNEST: Non- Native English Speaking Teacher

Non-local NNEST: Non-Local Non-Native English Speaking Teacher

Local NNEST: Local Non-Native English Speaking Teacher

ICC: Intercultural Communicative Competence

TEFL: Teaching English as a Foreign Language

TESOL: Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

WE: World Englishes

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the overall aim of the study conducted as part of this thesis. It consists of two subsections: a personal background and a research background. The personal background section presents the researcher's personal viewpoint on the issues explored in the study and her motivation behind conducting it. The research background section provides a brief overview of the study's objectives and highlights previous research on non-native foreign teachers working in countries other than their own. Moreover, the research background section explains the significance of the study by outlining its purpose and the specific research questions addressed.

1.1 Personal background

I have a background as an English teacher, having graduated from Marmara University with a degree in English language teaching. Following my graduation, I began working in the English preparatory unit at the same university. During my teaching tenure, I was accepted into the graduate program at Boğaziçi University, where I pursued and successfully obtained my MA degree in English Language Education in 2002. Subsequently, I was granted admission to pursue a PhD in the same department. Throughout my studies, I concurrently continued teaching English, and at some point in my career, I ventured into establishing my own educational consulting company, which also involved the recruitment of English language teachers for schools.

Throughout my professional life in the Turkish educational context, I have gained an understanding that there are various perspectives to consider while

teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL). Each party involved in teaching and learning English in English as a foreign language (EFL) context, i.e., learners and teachers, has their own distinct priorities. For instance, learners strive to maximize their learning outcomes in English classes, while teachers seek effective methods to deliver lesson objectives to their students. Having worked as an education consultant and business developer for newly established schools, as well as a curriculum designer and recruiter of foreign teachers for government pilot schools, I have had the opportunity to observe various issues that affect administrators, local teachers, and non-local non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs).

Native teachers are often seen as a point of pride for employers and parents (see Mahboob et al., 2004; Palfreyman, 2005). Despite being given advantages over their "nonnative speaker" counterparts by recruiters, it was evident that they disapproved of such discriminatory methods, even if they enjoyed the privileges that came with them. Some native teachers who taught alongside non-native teachers felt sympathy for their colleagues and were uncomfortable witnessing this mistreatment. They made efforts on certain occasions to address these discriminatory actions with their recruiters but encountered challenges due to a bureaucratic management system. These discriminatory behaviors became an unspoken issue that hindered initiatives aimed at bridging the gap and easing tensions between native and non-native teachers. Therefore, it should not be assumed that "native speaker" teachers actively seek or enjoy the benefits bestowed upon them. As Al-Omrani (2008) suggests, these "native speaker" teachers also believe that recruiters should be held accountable for widening the gap between "native" and "nonnative" English language teachers.

Local teachers tend to focus their comments on methodology when native teachers are involved but on accent when it comes to non-local NNESTs. Non-local

NNESTs are often perceived as having a transitional identity. In an EFL setting like Türkiye, for example, non-local NNESTs are at a disadvantage compared to both local teachers and NESTs (Native English Speaking Teachers). They do not have the advantage of speaking the students' first language or the status that NESTs often enjoy as perceived superior teachers with higher salaries.

In general, schools that hire foreign staff can be categorized as Private International and Private Turkish schools. Private International schools can further be divided into two subcategories: Western International schools, which typically follow the International Baccalaureate curriculum, and Middle Eastern International schools, which have a curriculum focused on religious teachings in Arabic. Western International schools are usually twice as expensive as the other group.

Turkish private schools can be classified into three levels: A, B, and C, based on their yearly fees. Group A schools have fees ranging from 100,000 to 200,000 Turkish Lira, while Group B schools range from 50,000 to 100,000 Turkish Lira. Group C schools are typically those with fees below 50,000 Turkish Lira.¹ International Western schools and Group A schools rarely hire non-local NNESTs, and in some cases, they only hire them as substitute teachers.

It was deeply concerning for me to witness school administrators or human resources departments considering non-local NNESTs as the "worst-case scenario teachers" or as a last resort when no other options were available. These types of comments were frequently made during our staff recruitment meetings, despite many of these teachers being equally or even more experienced than native applicants. Unfortunately, I frequently heard these harsh and demeaning generalizations from

¹ For February 2020, dollar rate = 6.7 TL

administrators, local teachers, and parents. On one hand, I knew many dedicated and qualified teachers who chose to come to Türkiye because they had heard positive things about the country from their colleagues. On the other hand, some teachers had to come to Türkiye due to political or economic situations in their home countries. Türkiye became their new home, and they struggled with the challenges of relocation, pushing themselves to do their best and fearing the possibility of unemployment.

I have also noticed that associating non-local NNESTs with "economic and political powerlessness" is a common attitude among locals, influenced by the foreign teachers' current political situation or past colonial history. Even though both Nigeria and Australia have colonial history, an Australian teacher and a Nigerian teacher would not receive the same tolerance for a linguistic error. It would be considered a "slip of the tongue" for the Australian teacher but "bad English" for the Nigerian teacher.

This perspective leads stakeholders to question the effectiveness of non-local NNESTs in teaching more than they question native teachers, despite the fact that native teachers in Türkiye also face numerous challenges and criticism from stakeholders. As emphasized by Petric (2009), prejudiced attitudes towards foreigners pose potential threats to classroom interaction and the success of non-local NNESTs' teaching. The dynamics of political relations and diplomacy between the country of origin of non-local NNESTs and the students' country play a significant role in shaping the foreign teacher's image.

With these considerations in mind, I would like to elaborate on my decision to investigate non-native speaker teachers whose first languages differ from the first language(s) of the students in the educational settings where they are employed.

1.2 Statement of the problem

English became one of the most taught and learned languages with a current estimate of over one billion English learners worldwide. It has a special status in at least seventy countries worldwide, making the English language not only dominated by British or Americans, but shared amongst many groups of non- native speakers (Crystal, 1997). Accordingly, the increasing number of English learners has increased, which has resulted in an increase in the need of English teachers.

Türkiye is not an exception among the countries that have an increasing demand for qualified English teachers due to the great importance given to English since the 1980s and accordingly the support it receives from the government for its spread (Doğançay-Aktuna, 1998). Given the fact that English is an important part of foreign language teaching especially since 1997 with the increasing attempts to join the EU, the Turkish government has taken a number of initiatives in revising the curriculum, teaching methods, teacher training and teacher education institutions (Kırkgöz, 2009). These attempts are reflected on the increasing number of private schools with foreign language-oriented curricula and international staff recruitment practices on the level of both foreign teacher and administrative staff who contribute to schools' credibility and preferability in the education market that is becoming more competitive each day.

As of today, the policies to reach the desired level of proficiency of Turkish youth and nation in general continue to be planned (Coşkun, 2013), and so does the demand for foreign teachers. However, the demand has changed character due to economic and practical reasons. There has been an increasing demand for non-local non-native English speaking teachers (non-local NNESTs) in the last five years. The high foreign currency rates in Türkiye limit the number of schools that can afford to

hire native teachers. To this end, many native teachers travel to teach in better paying countries with high salary rates such as Japan and United Arab Emirates. Other than the dual-citizens and the ones married with Turkish spouses, native teachers leave Türkiye in maximum two or three years because the whole world is a global market for them, and they have higher chances of employment. To that end, besides native English-speaking teachers of English (NESTs), teaching English has become a global profession with numerous non-local NNESTs working outside their home countries and Türkiye is not an exception to this. In contrast to the less availability of native teachers, the number and availability of non-local NNESTs are on the rise due to lower salary rate and current migration policies of the Turkish government. Especially in the last five years, Türkiye has come to constitute a major transit and receiving country of nationals of Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Iran, Iraq, Pakistan as well as African countries (Özçürümez & Senses, 2011). Among these groups there are a considerable number of Iranian, Pakistani and African teachers of English who seek teaching job opportunities in Türkiye. More than five million foreign nationals are presently present on Turkish territory, with 3.6 million of them looking for international protection, according to the most recent data available from the Turkish Presidency of Migration Management (PMM). The majority (3.652.633 people) are Syrians who have been given temporary protection status. An additional category of foreign nationals consists of those who have applied for international protection from nations including Afghanistan, Iraq, and the Islamic Republic of Iran.

This situation has reflections on Turkish education in both K12 and university levels. In K12 level, parents and student profiles at schools are becoming more multinational. The number and variety of international schools in Türkiye are increasing to cater their needs. It is also possible to see such mobility and its

reflections at academic level. This academic mobility is affected by two factors. The first one is the country's international expansion, which began in the 1980s, growing trade ties, becoming a candidate for the EU, as a result of regulations aimed at making Türkiye a regional tourist destination, many foreigners learning about Türkiye, being invited to the nation (such as from former USSR and European countries), and some choosing to live here by purchasing real estate. The creation of assistance programs for overseas students and academic mobility is the second reason. Some of those who are here as a result of these agreements arrived directly through these initiatives. Others include foreign spouses and business partners who travel with Turkish academics for a while, return to Türkiye afterwards, and thus actively take part in this mobility. The number of foreign academics choosing Turkish private universities is increasing. According to Deniz (2020), those who come from developed countries are employed by private universities whereas those who come from countries less developed than Türkiye are employed by public universities. Most of the academics are employed in temporary positions and the academic expectations from them are limited to the lectures. This situation changes the transnationalization of higher education by employing foreign academics (macro level); increases the attractiveness of Türkiye for the academics who are under the stress of academic performance (meso level) and causes it to become ethnic clustering in many cities (micro level) (Deniz, 2020).

As mentioned above, there is an increasing demand supported by the maturity of conditions in Türkiye to the advantage of non-local NNESTs in various academic levels and thus the predominance has changed in favor of non-native teachers within the native-non-native dichotomy. Although the number of non-local NNESTs is continuously growing, relatively little is known about their professional experiences

and expectations in the hosting country, Türkiye. For this reason, given the limited number of previous research and the researcher's personal familiarity with such issues concerning non-local NNESTs, this research was driven by a desire to gain an understanding of non-local NNESTs' specific work experiences as perceived by themselves and the other stakeholders, i.e., local non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) and administrators in addition to the expectations of each party.

1.3 Purpose of the study and research questions

This study was motivated by Moussu and Llurda (2008) who highlighted lack of research on the perspective of employers in the EFL context, such as the Turkish context, and encouraged additional studies. Other research that inspired and helped to model this dissertation are Mahboob's (2004) and Clark and Paran's (2007) studies who explored the issues in the employment of English teachers respectively in the US and the UK, and Selvi's (2010) content analysis of English teaching job adverts around the world. These three studies have shown that in those specific contexts there is a clear preference for native English speaking teachers. Nevertheless, when looking at research carried out on the native/non-native debate with a specific focus on the Turkish ELT context (e.g., Atay, 2008; Celik, 2006; Coşkun, 2013; Ozturk & Atay, 2010), it was noticed that current studies focused on self-perceptions and student perceptions of native teachers. The focus of these studies were local NNESTs. However, in Türkiye, like in many other EFL countries, there is a third category of teachers that is seldom taken into perspective: non-local NNESTs.

As this is an area that definitely requires more research, this dissertation aims to focus on the non-local NNESTs working in the present EFL context, to see where they stand in the growing English teaching job market of Türkiye and how their

contribution to Turkish Education could be increased. Hence, the current study sought to comprehend the work experiences of non-local NNESTs working in Türkiye from their own and colleagues' viewpoints, notably local NNESTs and school administrators, as well as to investigate the expectations of these parties from one another.

The following research questions are addressed in the current study:

- i. How do non-local NNESTs perceive their transnational teaching experience in the Turkish EFL work environment?
- ii. What are common and different expectations of non-local NNESTs, local NNESTs and administrators from each other in the work environment?

1.4 Significance of the study

Much research has revealed that the construct “native speaker” is unsound (Phillipson, 1992). Because NNESTs have the potential to be effective instructors who are respected by their pupils, their colleagues, and their supervisors, discrimination against so-called normative speakers based on their first language is unethical (Seidlhofer & Jenkins, 2003). Indeed, as evidenced by the previous research (e.g., Cheung, 2002; Mahboob, 2003; Moussu, 2002), all teachers complement each other in the right context and system, which is also aimed to be evidenced in the present study.

Although there has been a rich amount of research on local non-NESTs in Türkiye, to the best knowledge of the researcher, no research so far has focused on non-local NNESTs. While the number and significance of Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers (NNESTs) in the Turkish education system have been on the rise, a persistent challenge remains. NNESTs encounter difficulties when attempting to

secure teaching positions in esteemed institutions. This issue stems from the fact that such premier schools extend certain employment privileges exclusively to Native English-Speaking Teachers (NESTs). These privileges encompass perks such as complimentary lodging, transportation facilities, a regular half-day off, and complimentary travel tickets. Additionally, each semester, NESTs enjoy an advantage in recruitment, as they are often hired solely on the basis of their native speaker status, without necessitating further qualifications beyond that criterion (Braine, 1999). There is definitely need for academic research results to be able to form carefully planned policies for the integration of these teachers into Turkish education system in the most cost and time effective ways, without them feeling undervalued and disrespected and also in ways that give all parties personal and professional development opportunities. It is therefore important to conduct this study and share its results with the academic community.

This study offers valuable insights for language courses, private language schools, and selected public schools, as well as universities that engage with these instructors. Regrettably, the primary rationale behind the recruitment of foreign educators by these institutions predominantly revolves around the image they seek to project for prestige. However, delving into a deeper understanding of these instructors could enlighten administrators and local educators about the substantial contributions they can bring to their institutions beyond mere image considerations. Furthermore, I believe this study could serve as a guiding resource for policy-makers within the Ministry of Education, facilitating the transformation of non-local Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers (NNESTs) from a challenge into an asset. This transformation would involve addressing the shortcomings in migration processes,

recruitment systems, and the overall framework that impacts the long-term positive outcomes these NNESTs can contribute to the English language teaching in Türkiye.

1.5 Definition of key terms

The definitions of key terms according to how they are used for the purposes of this study are listed alphabetically below, to avoid the problem of definitional variance.

- **Non-local NNEST: Non-local Non-Native English-Speaking Teacher.** An ESL/EFL teacher whose first language is not English. Teachers teaching in countries other than their actual residing country (in this case expat non-native teachers or migrant teachers teaching in Türkiye)
- **Local NNEST: Local Non-Native English-Speaking Teacher.** (Turkish teachers of English who teach in Türkiye in this case). Someone who has learned a language other than English as a first language, and is learning or has learned English as an additional language. In EFL settings, the NNESTs' first language is often that of the EFL students.
- **NEST: Native English-Speaking ESL/EFL Teacher.** An ESL/EFL teacher whose first language is English. (This definition seems to be widely accepted today, but has meant, in the past, that the teacher spoke natively the first language of the EFL students, as for example, in Edge's (1988) article).
- **TESOL: Teachers of English (or Teaching English) to Speakers of Other Languages or Teaching English as a Second or Other Language.** This acronym can describe three things: 1) the international professional organization, created in 1966, of ESL and EFL teachers. TESOL includes different Interest Sections (IS) such as the IEP IS, or the Higher Education IS, as well as different caucuses, such as the Nonnative English Speakers in

TESOL caucus; 2) the teaching and research field, sometimes also called TESL; and 3) the educational program and qualification (MA TESOL, for example).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This study aims to provide insights into the self-perceived work experiences of non-local non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) in the Turkish EFL (English as a Foreign Language) context. These teachers have become a significant group due to the rapid increase in transnational mobility and the expectations placed on them by local English teachers and school administrators. To achieve this goal, this chapter presents a review of the relevant literature, which is divided into two main sections.

The first section focuses on the theoretical premises based on native speakerism as the dominant ideology in EFL contexts and explores the impact of intercultural communicative competence on non-local NNESTs in these new communication domains. This section explains the native and non-native dichotomy in English Language Teaching (ELT) and introduces the concept of non-local NNESTs, emphasizing the importance of their degree of interculturality in terms of their intercultural communicative competence, adaptation to the society and similar.

The second section provides a summary of both local and global research conducted on NNESTs, offering diverse perspectives and situating the present study within the global research landscape. This comprehensive review aims to shed light on the topic and provide a solid foundation for the study's investigation into the work experiences of local and non-local NNESTs in the Turkish EFL context.

2.1 Intercultural communication

Before going into the details of intercultural communication and its function in language teaching, it would be better to say a few word about culture. Brown (2007)

defines culture as a way of life, as the context within which people exist, think, feel, and relate to others, as the “glue” (p. 188) that binds groups of people together. Likewise, Sowden (2007) argues that “culture tended to mean that body of social, artistic, and intellectual traditions associated historically with a particular social, ethnic or national group” (pp. 304-305). Culture, a difficult concept to define, may be done at both the macro and micro levels. It could be characterized at the macro level as the culture of a nation. The individual's membership in several sub-cultural systems, such as ethnicity, gender, generation, occupation, and area, can be used to describe culture at the micro level. Therefore, each person is concurrently situated inside a variety of micro-level sub-cultural systems in addition to the macro-level national culture during the communication process. People who are situated in comparable macro and micro cultural systems during interaction are more likely to communicate effectively than people from diverse macro and micro cultural systems. To this end, successful interaction among people from different cultural backgrounds guarantees achieved intercultural communication. Similarly, according to Byram (1997), “part of the success of such interaction will depend on the establishing and maintenance of human relationships, something which depends on attitudinal factors” (pp. 32–33).

The integration of interculturality into language instruction is crucial in the current era of globalization, migration, and immigration in order to prepare language learners to become proficient intercultural speakers (Byram, 2020), who are defined as competent communicators (Byram & Zarate, 1996) who engage with complexity and multiple identities and who "avoid the stereotyping which accompanies perceiving someone through a single identity" (Roberts et al., 2001, p. 5). Successful intercultural speakers are able to build relationships with those they live and work

with who speak other languages and have different cultures, in addition to effectively conveying information. Intercultural speakers can move around the intercultural space, where communication takes place between speakers of different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, unlike monolingual native speakers (NSs). The "third place" in intercultural communication is what Kramsch (1993, p. 236) refers to as the intersection of the target language's culture and the social dynamics of the learner's context. In line with this idea, Wilkinson (2020) asserts that intercultural speakers are able to communicate with those from other linguistic and cultural backgrounds by navigating the space between languages and cultures.

In the context of English language instruction, interculturality has emerged as a crucial aspect, especially concerning the communication skills of non-native English speakers. Interculturality underscores the significance of not just linguistic proficiency, but also the ability to navigate and bridge cultural differences in communication. It acknowledges that English serves as a medium for cross-cultural interaction, necessitating an understanding of diverse cultural norms, practices, and sensitivities. For non-native English speakers, intercultural competence is paramount for effective communication in a globalized world, enabling them to engage in meaningful exchanges that transcend linguistic boundaries (Wilkinson, 2020; Zheng, 2014). In addition, interculturality brings with it "change" (Dervin and Chen 2023) that enables those involved in intercultural encounters enrich their world views, understanding of other people and their cultures. In a recent book on interculturality and education, Dervin and Chen (2023) problematizes the significance of interculturality and discuss it in relation to its impact on education. They take a distinct approach by not providing direct instructions on intercultural communication, but rather by encouraging readers to critically reflect on how they

can navigate and reshape various aspects related to interculturality. They bring about original and thought-provoking viewpoints, delving into the complexities of interculturality and its inherent challenges. Dervin and Chen (2023) emphasize the communication aspects of interculturality rather than typical practical applications of it in various communicative interactions. This enables the ideas presented in the book to offer researchers a lens through which to observe, analyze, and contribute to today's intricate and divided global landscape. It is important to critically examine and enhance one's own perceptions of interculturality through a more reflexive and interactive standpoint. One of the ways of doing that is to explore the intricacies and complexities of intercultural communication through an interculturality lens, therefore, it is important to establish a deeper understanding of interculturality and multifaceted dimensions through developing an understanding of what "intercultural communication" is. In simple terms, intercultural communication refers to verbal and nonverbal interactions between people from different cultures. Recently, intercultural communication emerged as the most common way of communication as a result of the developments such as globalization, the development of the technology (Zheng, 2014). According to some prominent researchers, the nature of foreign language education has changed substantially as a result of the social and technological developments that occur worldwide and this puts a remarkable emphasis on the term intercultural communicative competence (e.g., Baker, 2012; Jenkins, 2009; Rajagopalan, 2005; Sowden, 2012). In a similar vein, Byram & Wenger (2018) state that more contact with multicultural users pave the way for intercultural dimension of the use of English worldwide. Therefore, it is acknowledged that one of the basic objectives of language teaching must be to equip students with the necessary skills in terms of cultural elements (Jin, 2014; Kramersch, 2013).

For intercultural communication, there should be a language that functions as a means of communication. The ongoing discussion has on the neutral position of this language of intercultural communication (see Baker, 2011). That is, the language of intercultural communication is, to a great extent, affected by the position of that language in the world. According to Phipps and Guilherme (2004), languages in intercultural communication “are never just neutral” (p. 1). Similarly, Baker (2011) states that “communication is always embedded in and constitutive of social situations and involves speakers with purposes and positions, none of which are neutral” (p. 4). To this end, much research has reported the dominance of a specific culture rather than cultures in language teaching, which is a hinder against emergence of intercultural communication (e.g., Sariçoban & Kırmızı, 2020). Likewise, English used as a lingua franca in intercultural communication is not a culturally neutral language as has been suggested by some researchers (e.g., Kirkpatrick, 2007). To this end, as Baker (2011) argues, we need to approach the language of the communication with caution since this language should cover all the cultures included in the communication.

As discussed earlier, effective intercultural communication through English cannot be limited to the understanding of the lexis, grammar, and phonology of one particular "linguistic code" (e.g. Standard British English). Understanding the sociocultural context in which communication occurs must be added to this; for example, knowing the sociocultural norms of just the United Kingdom or the United States is obviously insufficient for the use of English internationally. It is crucial to present various cultural contexts of English (see Porto, 2010). Thus, culture “should be seen as an emergent, negotiated resource in communication which moves between and across local, national, and global contexts” (Baker, 2011, p. 64).

2.1.1 Intercultural awareness

Intercultural awareness is a way of understanding the types of information, abilities, and attitudes required for effective cross-cultural communication that explicitly acknowledges the cultural component of communicative competence (Baker, 2011, 2012). Intercultural speaker is the one who has developed this awareness.

Intercultural speaker refers to the speaker who can “mediate/interpret the values, beliefs and behaviours (the ‘cultures’) of themselves and of others and to ‘stand on the bridge’ or indeed ‘be the bridge’ between people of different languages and cultures” (Byram, 2006, p. 12).

Byram (1997) treats intercultural awareness as a part of intercultural communicative competence. A fundamental component of intercultural awareness is an awareness of the relative nature of cultural norms, which results in the understanding of your own culture as well as other culture(s). As Baker (2011) points out, with intercultural awareness, culture is not limited to the knowledge of target or local cultures, or both, but culture is seen to be more fluid and dynamic in nature in which “sociocultural contexts are constructed” (p. 65). Thus, Baker (2011) gives a basic definition of intercultural awareness:

Intercultural awareness is a conscious understanding of the role culturally based forms, practices, and frames of understanding can have in intercultural communication, and an ability to put these conceptions into practice in a flexible and context specific manner in real time communication. (p. 66)

Here, intercultural awareness is not bound to a specific culture (target or local). Of course, one can have knowledge of a specific culture, but after each new encounter/interaction, there will be a revision in the knowledge of culture. To put it differently, new interactions will update and expand our cultural knowledge. To illustrate, culture in English language teaching can not be limited to English,

American or local culture. Encounter with English speakers from different L1 backgrounds will revise your culture knowledge. Therefore, Baker (2011, p. 68) strongly argues that “the knowledge, awareness, and skills associated with intercultural awareness will be constantly under revision and change based on each new intercultural encounter ... always in progress towards a goal that is constantly changing”.

Intercultural awareness has recently gained notice. The idea of "cultural awareness," which has to do with how countries conceptualize culture, emphasizes both the "intercultural" and the "transcultural" facets of life. This entails moving away from cross-cultural comparisons, in which cultures are viewed as distinct, comparable entities, such as Italian or British culture. An intercultural approach, in contrast, studies communication on a level where cultural differences are pertinent to comprehension but avoids presuming anything about cultural difference. Additionally, according to Baker, (2012), the phrase intercultural awareness allows for a more holistic alternative to exploring knowledge, abilities, and attitudes, avoiding the problematic dichotomy between competence and performance. Examining the connections between culture, language, and communication would be wise through: investigating regional cultures; investigating language learning resources; investigating the media and arts both online and through more "traditional" mediums; using cultural informants; and engaging in intercultural communication both face to face and electronically (Baker, 2012).

People with this ability develop intercultural communicative competence besides language-based competences. As Baker (2012) points out, intercultural communicative competence has become one of the most needed qualifications in such a globalized and glocalised world in which cultural exchange is inevitable.

2.1.2 Intercultural communicative competence and critical cultural awareness

People from all over the world come into touch with people from various backgrounds on a regular basis in the globalized world of today in settings like business, tourism, international events, academia etc. Intercultural communicative competence (IC) has been increasingly important in recent years, as it is crucial for English language teachers, who outnumber native English speakers, to expand their knowledge in order to keep up with the demands of this modern period and develop intercultural communicative competence.

IC is regarded as an essential component of language teaching (e.g. Byram, 1997; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Scollon & Scollon, 2001). IC is seen as “the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on one’s intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitude” (Deardorff, 2006, p. 247-248). Scholars and international organizations have emphasized the importance of including cultural considerations in language instruction. Intercultural competence is one of the general competences that all language learners need to develop, according to the Common European Framework (CEFR) of the Council of Europe, which “provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe” (2001, p. 1). Declarative knowledge, skills and knowledge, existential competence, and the capacity to learn are all examples of generic competences, according to the CEFR.

Byram (1997), a pioneer in the field, exhorts English-speaking people to gain intercultural competence, which encompasses four skills: linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and intercultural competence. He includes other competencies in his paradigm, although he primarily concentrates on intercultural competence. Intercultural competence contains four elements, in

accordance with Byram (1997): attitudes, knowledge, skills, and political/critical education. The first element, attitudes, is regarded as a requirement for effective cross-cultural communication. The concept of attitudes is defined as "curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one's own" (Byram, 1997, p. 50). He distinguishes between two types of knowledge in the second part of the paradigm and claims that knowledge encompasses not just knowledge of our own and other cultures, but also awareness of how our knowledge is formed through socialization in our culture. The socialization process and how it shapes views in other societies must therefore be understood by intercultural speakers.

Skills make up the third part of intercultural communication competency. Byram (1997) provides examples of two different kinds of skills: a) skills of interpreting and relating, or the "ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it, and relate it to documents from one's own" (p. 52); and b) skills of discovery and interaction, or the "ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes, and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and intercultural interaction" (p. 53). Intercultural speakers can recognize ethnocentric viewpoints in written materials like textbooks, travel brochures, or television programs by using their interpretation and related skills.

Political education and critical cultural awareness are the final elements of the paradigm. Critical cultural awareness refers to the "ability to evaluate critically and on the basis of explicit criteria perspectives, practices, and products in one's own and other cultures and countries" (Byram, 1997, p. 53). Byram (1997) encourages the integration of political education into the teaching of intercultural education in order

to foster students' critical cultural awareness. Byram (1997) contends that language teachers must provide students with the knowledge, attitudes, and abilities necessary for intercultural communication within the context of political education, which fosters critical cultural awareness. His IC model puts critical cultural awareness in a pivotal position and it is in the center of the framework. The model highlights the additional educational benefits of foreign or second language teaching, which go beyond cultural understanding and language abilities. In order to challenge learners' implicit assumptions about cultural norms and behaviors in both their own and other cultures, critical cultural awareness places a strong emphasis on the role of teachers. According to Byram (1997), students will not be successful while developing critical cultural awareness without the help of a teacher, and critical cultural awareness is an essential knowledge foundation for successfully preparing language learners for intercultural communication. In short, critical cultural awareness encompasses a critique of both our own communities and societies as well as those of other nations. This is due to the fact that studying a foreign language necessarily raises awareness of the people and societies of the other countries where that language is spoken.

According to Baker (2012), critical cultural awareness is an essential knowledge foundation for successfully preparing language learners for intercultural communication. Also, teachers must carefully analyze power dynamics before introducing students' national culture or a certain set of dominant beliefs, values, or behaviors in a community. Instead, Byram (2020) argues that educators should push students to develop the ability to communicate with any foreign language speaker.

He asserts that:

Foreign language instruction should focus on preparing students with the tools to access and analyze whatever cultural practices and meaning they meet, regardless of their status in society, rather than attempting to create representations of other cultures. (pp. 56-57)

Lastly, intracultural sensitivity is a requirement for intercultural competence (Hammer et al., 2003). As a result, IC is highly risky at low intercultural sensitivity levels (Dong et al., 2008). Intercultural sensitivity, a component of intercultural communication skills, demonstrates basic empathy and respect for different people and cultures. As Ward (2001) summarized that in meeting the challenges of the global marketplace, it is no longer suitable to limit the frame of reference to one's own culture. To avoid rigidity in teaching and be effective in operating intercultural communication situations will help the foreign teachers. To illustrate, exposing students to different situations or scenarios may help increase of intercultural awareness. Also foreign teachers need to be aware of the impact of cultural influences on learning and teaching in order to understand and cope with the difference of learners. To be successful in teaching, in short, foreign teachers need to develop their teaching intercultural communication and linguistic skills. In order for them to cope with the dominance of native speakerism, they should prioritize this issue.

Despite the efforts of the integration of other cultures and raising cultural awareness while learning/teaching languages, there is still a dominance of the ideological aspects of native speakerism in language teaching, especially during recruitment of the teachers. In the following sections, ideology of native speakerism, and nativeness vs non-nativeness dichotomy are discussed.

2.2 Native speakerism as an ideology

Native speaker of English was considered to be an ideal teacher besides being a model speaker for an important period of time. The ideology behind this idea goes back to the Chomskyan perspective, which considers native speaker as the ideal

person. This was a “pervasive ideology” in English language teaching (Holliday, 2006, p. 385). According to Holliday (2006), this perspective idealizes native speaker as the only and true source of English language and English language teaching methodology, and the impact of this ideology has found echoes in a wide range of aspects, from the recruitment of language teachers to the ownership of language. Of these aspects, the recruitment of the language teachers has been the most affected one by the native speakerism ideology. Although this perspective seems to be inapplicable in a world with diversity, language mix, and contact (Canagarajah, 1999), native vs non-native dichotomy is still a hot issue in ELT, which is discussed in the following section.

2.3 Native-non-native dichotomy in ELT

For several reasons, research has been problematic surrounding the use of the term "nativeness". Thus, "native speaker" has been left without a specific definition, and in fact, "native speaker" is seen as a complex concept and subject of a scholarly dispute (Braine, 1999; Ellis, 2002; Mahboob, 2004). In other words, due to the statement “there is no such thing as the native or non-native speaker” (Medgyes, 1994, p.9), there have been many attempts to find out what exactly a native speaker is by researchers with various objectives (e.g., Cook, 1999; Kramsch, 1997). Generally speaking, nativeness is used to differentiate between those who are native speakers of English and those who are not (Al-Omrani, 2008).

In the context of early linguistic theories, the first attempt to identify the first recorded language was carried out with a bio-developmental orientation: "The first language a human being learns to speak is his or her native language; this human being is a native speaker of this language" (Bloomfield, 1933, p. 43). For example,

the definition of “native speaker” offered by Cook (1999) states that native speaker is “the speaker of a language learned before any other language in childhood” (p. 187). This definition is in line with Medgyes’s definition (2006), which stated that native speaker is “someone who speaks a language as his or her mother tongue, first language, or L1” (p. 417). From a different standpoint, Kramsch (1997) highlighted that NS is someone who has an intuitive understanding of what is grammatical and ungrammatical in the language, and also possesses social behavior and cultural knowledge (p. 362). Offering a more complicated frame for the definition of NS, Davies (2003) stated “the skill of communicating within any setting, constructing fluent and spontaneous speech, and differentiating between their speech and the standard form of the language can be considered to be other non-developmental features of an NS (p. 117). To begin with, there are several proposed definitions for “NS” and many inconsistencies among these qualities, and this makes it difficult to know whether someone is a “NS” or “NNS” (not native) of a language. The ideal native speaker is commonly stated to be an individual created through Chomsky's (1965, p. 24) theory of an ideal speaker-listener, who is described as “the only source of reliable linguistic information ... the second language learner's ultimate goal is to achieve the intrinsic competence of the idealized native speaker”. Furthermore, he pointed out that “linguistic theories primarily focused on describing how an ideal native speaker performed, whose knowledge of their language was perfect and who was unaffected by irrelevant grammatical features like distractions, the abundance of interest, or communication in a homogeneous speech community” (Liaw, 2004, p. 36). As a result, the belief has given rise to the widespread myth that the NS is the ultimate authority in English language, but a nonnative speaker, whose native language was one other than English, is labeled with a negative stereotype and

experiences a disadvantage when competing with native speakers for recognition (Bae, 2006). However, the condition that the analysis discovered is to be able to speak the first language learned and this means that someone is not NS of a language regardless of age, which means that a person cannot be called a native speaker of a language, regardless of when it was learned (Cook, 1999).

It's only logical that the efforts to describe NS have led to the need to define NS (as well as NNS and differentiate between the two). While Ns share five qualities, the NNS population shares six traits:

- i. childhood acquisition of the language
- ii. intuition about acceptability and productivity in language use
- iii. intuition about group language grammar
- iv. a wide range of communicative competence
- v. creative use of the language
- vi. the capacity to interpret and translate into their L1

Davies (2003) names the other trait as childhood acquisition of the language, while the other features can be obtained even without having learned the language as a non-native speaker who is exposed to it and engages in practice. Thus, this question boils down to whether or not someone has learned the language early enough to be referred to as a native speaker of a language.

Although separate debate over determining and classifying NNS versus NS have been ended by some researchers saying that “people are either native speakers or not” (Rampton, 1990, p. 97), it is not in dispute that the issue of idealization of NS has stirred disagreement. The concept of "native speaker fallacy" is defined by Phillipson (1992) in reference to the "misidealization" of the native speaker language teacher. He suggested that "the higher capability in showing fluent, idiomatically

appropriate language, in comprehending the cultural connotation of the language, and in being the final arbitrator of the acceptability of any given samples of language" can all be achieved by training for NNESTs (p. 194). Expanding on this idea, Holliday (2006, p.385) states that it is a pervasive ideology in ELT and known as "native-speakerism" because it subscribes to the idea that "native-speaker" teachers are representatives of a Western culture, and therefore represent and can bestow upon students the values of the English language and English language teaching methodology.

In the field of NS scholarship, a number of people have come out against the idealization of the concept. While Cook (1999) sees non-native English speakers as separate individuals rather than language deficiencies, some writers believe they should be considered full human beings instead. Cook (1991) underlines the importance of thinking of learners of a second language as capable users of a second language rather than as individuals who cannot speak it fluently. This encourages teachers to regard nonnative speakers as capable users of the language rather than people who cannot communicate in it. Likewise, Rampton (1990) stated that NNS could be defined as "those with professional expertise instead in order to accommodate all of the users who are effective with a language" (p. 390). However, it is believed that native speaker–nonnative speaker distinction has a strong influence on the worldwide community of ELT, and the ability of NEST in the target language as a teacher-ability is seen as an indicator of superior teaching skills in that language (Hacon, 2018). Similarly, this distinction creates unequal treatment during recruitment process, which is usually in favor of NESTs.

The distinction between NESTs and NNESTs also results in a kind of 'Othering' of NNESTs. According to Palfreyman (2005), "Othering refers to the

ways in which the discourse of a particular group defines other groups in opposition to itself: an Us and Them view that constructs an identity for the Other and, implicitly, for the Self (p. 213-214)'. The 'Other' mostly denotes to the perceptions of national or ethnic culture. Thus, this situation results in social distance and prejudice against the Other. As for language teachers, there is a kind of othering of NNESTs. Since othering affects how people view many of the problems that administrators and instructors deal with, it is crucial for the stakeholders to take this into account. These concerns include classroom interaction, ideas about what should be taught and how it should be evaluated, and the relative positions of teachers who speak English as a second language and those who do not (Braine, 1999; Medgyes, 1986). In some circumstances, power relations are related to processes of othering. NESTs are mostly treated as the owner of the language and in this case NNESTs become 'others' who speak English as a second language. The issue of ownership ranks NESTs at the top, and in turn this creates an asymmetric relationship.

Scholars have discussed how native speaker–nonnative speaker distinction is not linguistically, but rather, politically driven (e.g. Canagarajah, 1999; Kachru & Nelson, 1996). Canagarajah (1999) discovered that NSs of English are in majority in the field of English language teaching due to the global demand for NESTs caused by the NS fallacy. It is his belief that the concept of NS should be abandoned since so many people have more than one language as their native language.

In practice, NESTs and NNESTs have not proven to be differentiable; as a result, some academics believe that NS and NNS should be seen as a continuum rather than a dichotomy (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 2001; Liu, 1999). Regarding training of teachers, Liu (1999) noted that "the focus must be shifted away from the NS and NNS dichotomy to the importance of being professional and the professional

training of teachers” (p. 101), since the dichotomy of NS and NNS remains simplistic and irrelevant in explaining proficiency (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004), and the key to teachers' abilities is to be properly trained to teach the language. The point holds true, as Phillipson (1992) points out, when he argues, "it is arguable, in general, that nonnative teachers may, in fact, be better qualified than native speakers, if they have gone through the complex process of acquiring English as a second or foreign language" (p. 25) and the dichotomy loses meaning because nonnative speakers become aware of their status as self-sufficient rightful speakers of EIL instead of considering themselves to be as or less successful speakers of a native variety of English (Llurda, 2004).

Reviewing various definitions proposed, this study avoids confusion by adopting the definition of an NS as someone typically from inner circle countries, which are Canada, America, The United Kingdom, Australia or New Zealand (Kachru, 1986), who learnt English as their first language. It deals with NS-NNS differentiation as put simply by Braine (2010): “NS of a language as someone who speaks the language as his/her first language and, accordingly, an NNS is someone who speaks that language as a second or foreign language” (p.13).

Although defining teachers' capabilities and efficiencies over their national identities belongs to the overly simplistic view which correlates language and culture in national terms, for example English and the UK or US (Baker, 2011); native / non-native dichotomy exists in Türkiye. As will be further discussed in the following sections of the current study Non-local NNESTs face challenges due to this dichotomy and because of their not being professionally equipped with the necessary teaching skills and coping strategies global teaching contexts which EIL require. The only way to end this dichotomy would be to define “a good teacher” with different

set of teaching skills that are not inborn. Their professional target should not be to reach a native-like accent and no employees should be expecting this from them. However, since English language teachers are expected to effectively act as cultural facilitators (Luk, 2012) to promote the learner aim of becoming an intercultural speaker rather than a native speaker their competence in intercultural teaching, and personal capabilities to communicate with other stakeholders in the work place should be recognized and appropriately developed.

2.4 English language teaching in Türkiye

It is common sense that people should study English to be able to survive in any profession, with the hope that doing so will lead to a better life, a better career, and a better education. This is due to the dominance of English in international business, technology, science, and academia. Similar to this, Türkiye's strategic and geopolitical position makes it crucial for Turkish citizens to learn English in order to keep up with events in other countries where English is the most frequently spoken language (Bayyurt et al., 2023).

In Türkiye, Turkish is both the primary language of education and the official language. At all educational levels, English is the foreign language that is most frequently taught, however German, French, and Spanish are also available as elective courses. Students invest time, effort, and money into learning English, starting with their early education and continuing for years after graduating.

The strategies to ensure that every educated Turkish person has at least "a working knowledge of English" (Karakaş, 2013, p. 163) encourage the teaching of English. At the age of 8 or 9 (2nd grade), pupils begin taking English classes in public schools. However, English is typically taught in private institutions beginning

in kindergarten and continuing through grade 12. select disciplines are also taught in English in select private schools. Since there are so many different kinds of high schools in Türkiye, from regular high schools to vocational high schools, the number of hours of English instruction per week varies greatly from one institution to another. As clearly stated by Karakaş (2013), “Vocational schools give particular importance and time to vocational English classes in their curricula while high schools aim to teach students a basic knowledge of English” (p. 167). The contact hours of English in vocational schools is still not enough to fulfil the needs of the students to become interculturally competent users of English as the curriculum usually follows Turkish Ministry of National Education curriculum that focuses on developing students’ basic skills in English rather than specializing on a particular area of study. As Bayyurt and Karataş (2011) indicated it is important to carry out a needs analysis in the case of vocational schools to find out about students’ specific language needs in their profession. In their study in a tourism management high school in İstanbul, they found that the students needed to develop their conversational skills to be able to communicate with the tourists visiting Türkiye. On a different note, they also indicated that the English curricula of tourism vocational high school needed to emphasize the interculturality aspect of learning a foreign language to communicate in service encounters.

In certain state and private universities, English is also the foreign language that is taught the most at the postsecondary level. The English language is included in the curriculum in universities where Turkish is the primary language of instruction, and students are expected to take English lessons. It is generally offered to first-year students in order to “promote students’ knowledge of general English and equip them with the necessary skills to read and understand English publications

in their subject area” (Kırkgöz, 2007, p. 219). On the other side, students who do not have the necessary level of English proficiency are provided one-year intensive English classes at EMI institutions. Preparatory schools are those where students are primarily taught specialized language skills, particularly academic English. Students can begin taking classes in their chosen disciplines once they have successfully completed their preparatory year.

Many academics advocate for approaching English-medium education from a multilingual perspective, highlighting the need to raise awareness of the diversity of English. They argue that the monolingual Anglophone native norm should not be the only criteria used to evaluate the English used in EMI (Bayyurt and İnal, 2023; Fang & Baker 2021; Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019; Sahan & Rose, 2021; Preece, 2022).

There is a growing consensus that redefining "English" in English-medium instruction to encompass students' own variety of English and their multilingual capabilities is a logical step. Implementing a policy that recognizes world Englishes as a concept and embraces English in all its forms is bound to reshape the way instructors, university administrators, and policymakers conceive "proficiency" and "successful interaction" in English and how students perceive them (İnal, Bayyurt & Kerestecioğlu, 2021). Hence, the contribution of various stakeholders constitute an important part of EMI in the Turkish context. The most important of these stakeholders are English language teachers, language learners and school administrators. Since the demographics of English language teachers go beyond the so called native speaking English teachers (see the next section for more details), and it is common belief that a language is best taught by its native speakers, it becomes a problem when it comes to hiring English language teachers. Therefore, various stakeholders in different countries employ different strategies in their hiring

processes of English teachers – i.e. not only NESTs (if they can find enough people), NNESTs (not only the local ones but also the non-locals).

When considering the employment of English language teachers in Türkiye, a significant proportion of English teachers in both state and many private institutions are Turkish non-native English-speaking teachers - i.e. local NNESTs. A typical NNEST in Türkiye is of Turkish nationality and typically holds a BA degree in fields related to English Language Teaching (ELT), linguistics, or English/American literature. They are often found teaching at various levels within public schools, including elementary, secondary, and higher education contexts (Aslan & Thompson, 2016, p. 6). As indicated by the 2019 report of the Turkish Higher Education Council (Yükseköğretim Kurulu [YÖK], 2019), there are a total of 5,862 instructors working within the preparatory schools of universities in Türkiye. This includes a mix of both native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) and local NNESTs. While some NESTs serve as English teachers in Türkiye's primary and secondary schools, a significant number are also employed within preparatory schools (Tatar, 2019). This reality extends to non-local NNEST teachers as well. Given the limited availability of NESTs for employment within the Turkish educational context, owing to factors such as immigration dynamics, a reliance on teachers from Asian, Middle Eastern, and African nations has emerged. This practice is observable across educational levels, ranging from K12 to higher education institutions. Hence, in the realm of private schools in Istanbul, Tatar's (2019) study reveals that more than a third of English language instructors are NESTs, with a majority originating from inner-circle English-speaking nations. It is noteworthy that the landscape has undergone considerable transformation in recent years, particularly within the past five years. Notably, the historical dominance of non-native English-speaking foreign teachers in

schools has seen a significant shift, a change that will be explored in the subsequent section in detail.

2.4.1 Non-native English teachers in Türkiye: local NNESTs vs non-local NNESTs

Two groups of teachers are designated “native” and “non-native” by the dichotomy of “native-non-native” in the field of ELT. When a great number of English-speaking countries are in the spotlight, the group of NNESTs further separates into two distinct categories: local English teachers and non-local English teachers. Similarly, the recent changes in the employment of NNESTs from different countries, such as Nigeria, Syria, and Iran, have enabled the grouping of NNEST in Türkiye. As seen from the teaching standpoint, the two groups of NNESTs are comparable to one another, as they both perform the job of teaching English. However, when one takes their previous experiences and problems into consideration, then a different experience and set of problems occur.

The manner in which giving and constructing information is produced is influenced by the personal pattern and distinctive communication style of each culture (Rampton, 1990). For instance, we could consider it advantageous for more effective language teaching to concentrate on students’ own language use (Scollon & Scollon, 2001). Because NNESTs have a great deal of experience with a foreign language, they can be aware of the needs of their pupils in regard to the language and culture. When compared with NNESTs, however, it is suggested that learning English might lead to better abilities for teaching learning strategies, and as a result, having learned English, people might become better qualified to teach strategies (Medgyes, 1986). However, according to this analysis, the absence of common communication systems and cultural values can influence the strength of learners’ relationships with

themselves. Since foreign teachers do not fully grasp the teaching context in which they find themselves, they need also to be knowledgeable about the influence of the teaching context on students to enable them to grasp and adjust to the unique learner expectations. A brief way of saying, it is that foreign teachers must expand their understanding of intercultural communication and linguistic skills, which differentiates them from Turkish teachers of English in the category of NNESTs and should be viewed as a serious consideration with regards to their experience. In addition, teaching English has become a global profession, and there are both local and non-local NNESTs as well as NESTs who work in EFL settings. It can be assumed, however, that non-local NNESTs working in an EFL setting, like Türkiye, are in a disadvantageous position when compared to both local NNESTs and NESTs as they don't have either the advantage of speaking the students' L1, nor the status the NESTs often have as better teachers. Non-local NNESTs are still treated in a discriminative way, especially compared to NESTs during the recruitment process. Othering, as a discriminatory practice, is still a part of recruitment process (for more information see the previous section where "othering" is explained).

Türkiye as an EFL setting hosts both NEST and non-local NNEST teachers, with almost one third of English language teachers being NESTs predominantly from inner circle countries (Tatar, 2019). As reported in Turkish Ministry of National Education 2021 report (MEB, 2021), within the last five years, the predominance of NESTs as preferred English teachers has changed in favor of non-local NNESTs. How this change occurred can be seen in the following diagram (Figure 1).

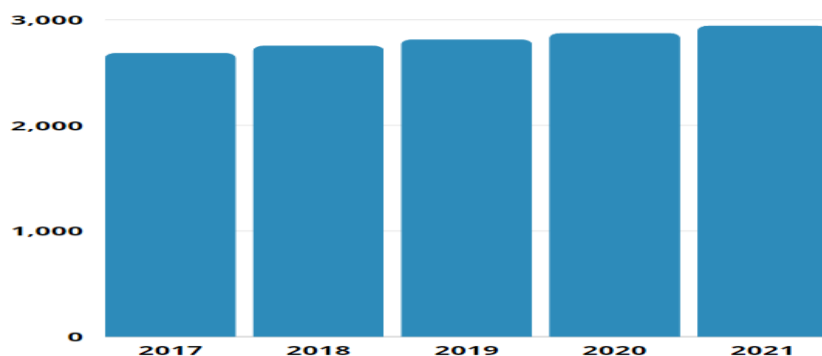


Fig. 1 The yearly growth of foreign teachers in Türkiye since 2017 (MEB, 2021)

The diagram presented in Figure 1 provides an overview of the foreign teachers engaged in English language teaching in Türkiye. The data distinctly depicts Türkiye's consistent appeal to foreign teachers, a trend evident in the steady increase over the years. Notably, the count climbed to 2682 in 2017, followed by subsequent annual increments. The figures stood at 2751 in 2018, rising further to 2809 in 2019. Subsequently, the trajectory experienced a gradual ascent, reaching 2870 in 2020, and eventually attaining a more modest augmentation of 2940 in 2021. This cumulative growth signifies an approximate annual increase of about 2%. It also implies that the number is increasing each year as demand for English language teaching is very high with the opening of English medium schools and universities each year all over Türkiye (Bayyurt et al., 2023).

Within the realm of foreign English language educators in Türkiye, a distinctive subset emerges: the non-local NNESTs. These educators fall under the non-native classification, as their mother tongue is not English, and they originate from countries beyond the inner circle of English-speaking nations. The cohort comprises individuals from outer circle countries, including but not limited to Iran, Nigeria, Algeria, and Russia. It is pertinent to categorize them as foreign teachers

due to their instruction of English within an alternative cultural and contextual milieu, diverging both from the culture associated with the target language and their own cultural origin.

Having elucidated the prevailing state of non-nativeness within the context of Türkiye, it is imperative to delve into an exposition of the recruitment practices associated with non-local NNESTs operating within the Turkish education system.

2.5 Recruitment practices of non-local NNESTs

Even though showing variation across countries and education levels, recruitment of teachers is an important concern in education. Schools with effective recruitment systems can better identify and hire teachers with the right skills and motivations to succeed in their organizations. When employees are successful in their jobs, organizations benefit through increased productivity, higher quality products and services (Roberts et al., 2001). The recruitment process is commonly described as consisting of a number of related and well-structured steps such as recruitment activities (e.g. HR planning, job analysis, recruitment sources, advertisements, agencies, internet, job fair); pre-selection activities (e.g. short-listing by checking references, resumes or preselection interviews); selection activities (e.g. interviews, bio-data, assessment centres) and orientation activities (Roberts et al., 2001).

Recruitment is an important concern as an important means to balance the increasing demand of both local and non-local NNEST teacher demand in Türkiye. Recruitment of an English teacher requires various documentation and procedures for local and non-local teachers for K-12 schools. Local teachers who graduate from a four-year graduate program can apply for an appropriate position in K-12 or English preparatory schools in higher education. Those who are the graduates of

liberal arts namely as; English and/or American literature, or translation studies most institutions also require a pedagogical formation certificate for teaching positions. In recent years, language teacher recruitment process has become a tough process for the candidates, as they have to go through several examinations such as KPSS (Kılıçkaya & Krajka, 2013) as well as the interviews, the score of which is used to assign the candidates to the teaching positions. Teachers can directly apply to the human resources departments at schools through appointment and submit their resumes or make online applications through the web site of the schools without the guidance of recruitment agencies. At schools hiring practices for local teachers follow the procedures of first interview, demonstration lesson, second interview and signing of the contracts which are conducted in a centralized way; that is to say by the school administrators without any outside interference. When we consider the recruitment practices for NNESTs in Türkiye for non-local teachers, we can divide the process into two phases. The initial phase is overseen by governmental bodies, including the Turkish Ministry of Migration, the Turkish Ministry of Labour, the Turkish Ministry of National Education (MoNE), and the Turkish Higher Council of Education (HCE). This phase involves the formal verification of documentation, encompassing educational credentials such as diplomas, certificates like TESOL / TEFL, and equivalence certificates. Subsequently, the second phase, administered by the school administration, entails a comprehensive process. This includes conducting initial and subsequent interviews, organizing a demonstration lesson, and culminating with the formalization of employment contracts (Skliar, 2014).

Presented below is the most current compilation of criteria established by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) for the recruitment of non-local teachers .

Table 1. Hiring Regulations for Foreign Teachers

TO WORK AS AN ENGLISH TEACHER	TO WORK AS AN ENGLISH SENIOR EDUCATOR	TO WORK AS AN ENGLISH MASTER EDUCATOR
-Valid Passport -English Education Bachelor Degree -YÖK Equivalency Confirmation OR -Employment Letter that shows at least 2 years of teaching experience at public schools in the home country (This letter must be signed and sealed by the state authorities of the home country)	-Valid Passport -English Education Bachelor Degree English Education Master Degree (YÖK Equivalency or Employment Letter are not needed)	- Valid Passport - Bachelor Degree (any subject) - Teaching Certificate (TEFL&TESOL&CELTA) - C1 or C2 Level English Exam Test Result (One of KPDS, ÜDS, YDS, CPE, CAE, YÖKDİL, PTE, TOEFL Exams) PS: If the Bachelor Degree is about English Language or Literature, exam result is not needed.

As can be seen from the table, documentation for both non-local NNESTs and local NNESTs are the same. The only additional requirement asked from the non-local NNESTs as different from the non-local NNESTs is the proficiency exam result. That recruitment procedures can be challenging for NNESTs due to discriminatory practices in the world context have been documented in the literature (Clark & Paran, 2007; Mahboob, 2004; Mahboob & Golden, 2013; Zhang & Zhan, 2014). To stop discriminatory employment practices against NNESTs in the ELT field, the TESOL association has released two statements. The first statement, “Statement on Non-Native English Speakers and Hiring Practices,” was released in 1992. The second, “Position Statement Against Discrimination of Non-Native English Speakers in the Field of TESOL,” was released in 2006.

Mahboob et al. (2004) conducted a study in which they explored the views of employers about the “native speaker criteria” in intensive English programs in the USA. They observed that “nativeness” was the most important factor in hiring decisions. Additionally, they found negative relationship between the importance given to this criterion and the number of NNESTs hired. In a further study, Clark and

Paran (2007) examined the employability of NNESTs in English language teaching institutions in the UK. They discovered that NESTs continue to enjoy privileges since they are seen as the perfect instructor and model speaker. 72.3% of the employers evaluated the “native English speaker criterion” as being either highly or very significant. In a more recent study, Mahboob and Golden (2013) examined 103 job advertisements from the website ESL Jobs World (www.esljobsworld.com), 50 of which were for jobs in East Asia and 53 were for jobs in the Middle East, to investigate the requirements that employers advertise when hiring English language teachers. They discovered that “nativeness was the single most frequent criterion mentioned in the advertisements across the two regions” (Mahboob & Golden, 2013, p.73).

In the Turkish context discriminatory practices in the recruitment of non-local NNESTs have revealed that the nativeness criterion is being prioritized over teaching qualifications (Bayram, Öztürk & İnal, 2020; Selvi, 2010; Tatar, 2019). Selvi (2010) examined job advertisements on two popular websites. He organized the advertisements gathered over a predetermined period of time in two distinct databases before analyzing them. The findings indicated that nativeness was a job criterion that was taken into account as a qualification for the hiring process in the majority of job advertisements. Put it differently, the majority of job advertisements discriminate against applicants based on their “nativeness as well as variety of English spoken, location of academic degrees attained, and location of residence or citizenship” (Selvi, 2010, p. 173).

Another study regarding this issue by Tatar & Yıldız (2010) indicated that foreign teachers as long as one “looks” or “sounds” native, he/she could easily be hired. This also implies that nativeness is about “looking foreign” more than

anything. The findings revealed that being a native speaker was among the least important criteria as long as they look like foreign. Even though the participants did not value being a native speaker as a significant criterion, they might have a tendency to favor native speaker instructors, as one of them reported she would prefer a native speaker over a NNEST when both candidates have the same qualifications.

It can be concluded that unfortunately non-local NNESTs in Türkiye face discriminatory attitudes during their recruitment phases. These practices are observed in the school administrative phase of recruitment.

2.6 Teachers' transnational work experience

The concept of transnational experience encompasses various dimensions, including overseas engagement (Ogawa, 2019), expatriate assignments (Zhu et al., 2016), working holidays (Li, 2020), and international exposure (Ott & Iskhakova, 2019). Although individuals may pursue living abroad for diverse motivations, this experience can serve as a catalyst for exploration across numerous facets of their lives. The accumulation of transnational encounters contributes to the enrichment of their cultural repertoires, subsequently influencing the emergence of multifaceted identities. Embedded within social contexts are an array of factors conditioning identity, which significantly influence the process of identity formation, negotiation, and reproduction (Vertovec, 2001). Drawing on Canagarajah's (2020) definition, "transnational" denotes a space that transcends nation-states, wherein relationships, experiences, and affiliations are not confined by traditional boundaries. As Molina (2020) indicates Canagarajah's work may create the third space those transnational people need to see their homeland stopping to be the sole frame of reference. This experience of immigrant people represents a transnational positioning that can be

somewhat isolating, evoking a sense of longing for belonging. This may lead immigrants to find themselves situated within the communities they gravitate towards, fostering feelings of attachment and belonging in their daily lives. Consequently, immigrants frequently grapple with the complex task of shaping and reconstructing hybrid identities, as they endeavor to harmonize societal values, cultural interpretations, behavioral norms, and a sense of affiliation. In this respect, non-local NNESTs' experience with their transnational identities becomes apparent in their narratives of their distinctive experiences occupying a nebulous space that navigates the realms of international education, tourism, and immigrant integration (Molina, 2020). This narrative is of particular relevance to the present study, as it seeks to comprehensively fathom the experiences of non-local NNESTs in Türkiye.

In this context, the overarching aim is to unravel the intricate tapestry of these educators' journeys, gaining a profound insight into their encounters.

2.7 Research on non-local NNESTs in ELT

A considerable body of research has already been dedicated to the domain of Non-Native English Speaking Teachers (NNESTs) within various English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts. This scholarly discourse is exemplified by notable works, including those authored by Medgyes (1994), Moussu and Llurda (2008), and Skliar (2014). These works have undergone meticulous scrutiny, being systematically classified according to their specific thematic orientations. For example, Moussu and Llurda (2008) carried out a detailed study in two different settings: the arena of teacher education in ESL/EFL environments and the intrinsic advantages attributed to NNESTs within ESL/EFL classrooms. Within the former domain, critical inquiries surround the pedagogical competence of NNESTs, while the latter delves into

multifaceted merits, they contribute to the classroom environment. These contributions extend to their influence on student outcomes, the professional identity of the NNESTs themselves, and the overarching institutional administration. In an endeavor to holistically characterize this intricate field, Braine (2010) embraced a comprehensive scope, encompassing a spectrum of perspectives ranging from NNESTs' self-conceptualizations and students' perceptual stances towards NNESTs to evaluations proffered by native-speaking educators concerning nonnative teacher trainees. Additionally, program administrators' viewpoints pertaining to the role and contributions of NNESTs were integrated into this comprehensive examination.

It should be underlined that most of the studies in the existing body of literature on NNESTs have focused on their teaching experiences in their home countries (e.g. Braine, 2010; Medgyes, 1994). The majority of this research approached NNESTs as a single homogenous group who favorably share the students' L1 and understand their local culture. Those studies were apparently referring to 'local NNESTs' (Yazan & Rudolph, 2018) and neglecting a large portion of non-local NNESTs who, as a result of globalized world, travel to various corners of the globe and teach in contexts to which they are not local. As of today, due to reasons such as having the goal of teaching experience abroad, earning more salaries, improving instructional teaching skills, earning more salary, and limited teaching options in their own country, it has become common for non-local NNESTs to teach abroad and become non-local NNESTs in the global teaching contexts (Putri, 2020). As a result of the focus of present study, research studies were examined in three categories: self-perceptions of NNESTs, the local non-natives' perspectives and administrators' perspectives and work experiences of non-local NNESTs.

There have been many discussions on the self-perceptions of NNESTs in a variety of different teaching environments. An earlier study, which was done by Reves and Medgyes (1994), included 216 NNESTs from ten different countries. In this study, the researchers examined whether the NNESTs' perceptions of themselves and their teaching attitudes were affected by their perceptions of NESTs and NNESTs. When it came to NNESTs' advantages as language teachers, the researchers discovered that NNESTs demonstrated greater empathy and paid attention to accuracy, therefore leading them to believe that NNESTs should be made aware of their advantages as language teachers. The same results were discovered by Kamhi-Stein et al. (2004), who posed the question to NNESTs about their self-confidence in speaking and teaching English and found that NNESTs had more positive self-perceptions regarding their instructional abilities.

In another study, Amin (2004) investigated the stories of immigrant women with NNESTs who are immigrants in Canada to provide further insight. From the data compiled from the stories of the instructors, the researcher discovered that they were aware of nativist discourses that position them as distinct from native English-speaking professionals, yet they regarded themselves as effective teachers, no matter how frequently they were compared to the standard. NNESTs' perceptions on their standing in the study were studied in a previous study by Tajeddin and Adeb (2016), who used questionnaires and semi-structured interviews to obtain the data. Their findings suggested that the teachers believed that NESTs and NNESTs both had their own individual strengths in their own terms regardless of whether they were natives or non-natives.

In a very recent study, Yan (2020) investigated the experiences of an immigrant teacher (i.e., non-native foreign teachers) in New Zealand, whose

experiences were followed over a period of 6 years from the teacher's reflective journals. Analysis of data showed that an intertwined relationship between the expectations and the experiences. That is, with new experiences, the teacher's expectations were revised.

As for Turkish context, as in many other parts of the world, English plays a very important role in various domains of society; in business relations, tourism, and the academia. Similarly, English is the preferred language in intercultural communication, and language of medium of instruction in many institutions. It is therefore the most taught foreign language in the country (Çoskun, 2013).

Research towards NNESTs in Turkish EFL context has focused mainly on local NNESTs whose mother tongue is Turkish. In one of these studies, Atay (2008) studied the interests and concerns of 116 Turkish prospective English teachers concerning their future career choices. The interviews revealed that the majority of the participants felt that native teachers had a greater edge than nonnative teachers when it came to teaching English, pointing to the necessity of proficiency in a native-like way while teaching English.

Tatar and Yıldız (2010) reported on the strengths and flaws that instructors believe they have prior to and after service. As part of the study, the researchers found that having NNEST led to a number of challenges, including the inability to acquire students' trust, language deficiencies, and an unfamiliarity with the target language cultural backgrounds. The study also showed that some of the benefits of being a NNEST included the ability to use the shared L1 and culture with students, experience as an English language learner, effective classroom management skills, conscious knowledge of the L2 grammar, and the relevant capacity to explain grammatical concepts through interlinguistic comparisons with students' L1. In the

same line, Skliar (2014) aimed to investigate teachers' self-perceptions of being NNEST and collected data from teachers and students of English at two prestigious English-medium colleges in Ankara through questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Analysis of data from teachers showed that experiencing learning a foreign language and sharing same L1 are the main advantages of NNESTs. As for the teachers, there were preferred attitudes toward native English speakers in the field of ELT.

In a recent study, Yeşilçınar and Çakır (2020) developed a scale of the attitudes of teachers towards assessment and evaluation of language teachers while recruited in Türkiye. The study revealed that having content knowledge, enough motivation to teach and pleasant teaching environment were some of the characteristics of effective teacher stated by the participants. Interest in new developments in teaching methodology and technology was another promising characteristic of an effective teacher. Regarding the scale items about the fairness of the current teacher evaluation and assessment in Türkiye, the teachers stated that the current system was not fair and valid since it did not assess the skills of an effective teacher.

NNESTs are a sub-group of English teachers who specialize in the Turkish language, and NNESTs identified their advantages and limitations. It was also said that the advantages of this group of teachers are their ability to broaden students' international outlook and perspective with the addition of a third culture and language group representative in the classroom, as well as their experiences of learning English as a foreign language, understanding of students' problems and needs, and exposure to international teaching experiences. Other than the aforementioned problems, being unfamiliar with Turkish culture, speaking with a heavy accent, not having enough knowledge of Turkish, and lacking knowledge

about the culture of the English-speaking world, the main drawback is that people may not be able to effectively communicate with Turkish students. Local non-native speaking teachers of English compose another group of participants whose voices should be included to be able to understand the overall perception about NNESTs, since they are engaged in teamwork with NNESTs. The review of literature shows that including perceptions of local non-native teachers about NNESTs is not common practice of research in studies.

Among the few studies on local teachers, Öztürk and Atay (2010) examined the attitudes of three Turkish teachers on the use of NESTs or NNESTs for 18 months. Through conducting interviews with these non-native instructors, they were able to obtain the result that being a non-native teacher has a detrimental impact on the morale of participants and they see themselves less in rank compared to the participants in the NESTs. A prominent conclusion of this study is that it showcases the current position of Türkiye in regard to NESTs/NNESTs since it shows that institutions in Türkiye prefer to hire native teachers and use them in the advertisement of their schools.

Administrators are another group, perceptions of whom offer important insights to understand the status of teachers. Inviting English program directors to take part in her study, Moussu (2006) found that rather than utilizing nativeness as a recruiting criterion, they recruit teachers on the basis of their “linguistic preparation, teaching experience, and international awareness” (p. 171).

Mahboob et. Al. (2004) examined the attitudes of program directors regarding native and nonnative ELT specialists who are active in intensive English programs on college campuses in the United States. The survey aimed at eliciting information about the different stakeholders in general. The first half of this report focuses on the

criteria that administrators use to choose and assess English language teachers. The second segment included questions such as whether the teachers were native English speakers, whether they were men or women, and if they were graduate or undergraduate students. The third component featured questions regarding student demographics, which is, for example, the number of students in each program, their ethnicity, and what fraction of them completed their study at a university or college in the United States. Unlike Moussu (2006), which claimed that most program administrators placed significance on teachers' native-English speaker status, it was discovered that program administrators gave relative weight to teachers' proficiency in English. A notable conclusion reached in the study is that the ratio of NNESTs to NESTs in the programs was low: out of a total of 1,425 ESL teachers in these programs, only 112 were NNESTs.

Alenazi (2014) focused on the NNESTs' employability in Saudi Arabia, with reference to the criteria used in hiring processes, whether being NESTs/NNESTs influences their employment opportunities and less qualified NESTs are preferred over more qualified NNESTs. Data were collected from 56 Saudi recruiters via survey, listening task, a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. It was discovered that although the applicants' academic credentials, teaching experience, native English speaker status, nationality, and accents were used as recruiting factors, the hiring practices of the participants showed that speaking the language fluently came first. The likelihood of employment for NNESTs decreased in direct proportion to the weight recruiters gave to the NES criterion. Additionally, effects of applicants' nationality and accent were comparable. Finally, the study discovered that many program administrators stated a preference to hire NESTs, even though they were less competent than NNESTs, either directly or indirectly.

Another study which revealed the reality of the othering of the non-local teachers in China, Shi (2017) sought the responsibilities of two NESTs, looking at them from the standpoint of administrators. The findings of the study showed that “both professors put forth a lot of effort to teach the style of English academic writing that they were already familiar with” (Shi, 2017, p. 1). As for the Chinese professors, they thought that the NESTs were disadvantaged over local Chinese teachers since they do not know their students’ specific learning demands, which is the need for a mixture of methodical knowledge, learning and interactive classroom instruction. Based on the outcomes of the study, it was concluded that the locals and NESTs were “otherized” (p. 12), and so it was recommended that in order to debate more about better practice and prevent stereotyping, both sides exchange perspectives.

Atamtürk, Atamtürk, and Dimililer (2018) also reached out to two administrators in order to consult their perspectives on NNESTs in the Turkish Cypriot context. It was found that the administrators placed emphasis on the importance of teaching ability, as well as their effectiveness rather than whether they were a NEST or NNEST. Citations included in the study provide a limited number of references on teachers of English who are not located in the United States, including those who are non-local non-native English speakers.

In a very recent study conducted with administrators, Bayram et al. (2020) investigated the perspectives of the administrators on the recruitment of non-native English teachers, i.e., Turkish non-native as well as foreign non-native English instructors teaching at university level. The results of the questionnaire revealed that experiences in teaching and educational background were among the most important priorities while recruiting English teachers; however, without a practical application,

these skills were not enough to be a good teacher. A similar study was conducted by Tatar (2019). In her study, Tatar explored administrators' criteria while recruiting local and non-native foreign English teachers for primary and secondary schools. As in Bayram et al. (2020) study, the findings showed that native language criteria were one of the least important criteria. On the other hand, teaching experiences and educational background were one of the most important criteria.

Among the studies conducted about transnational work experiences of non-local NNESTs, Ulla (2019) used a modified questionnaire and an individual follow-up interview to explore the perceptions of 56 Filipino teachers about the circumstances and difficulties of working as EFL teachers in Thailand. The results showed that teacher participants had a positive opinion of working as EFL teachers in Bangkok. They came to Bangkok to teach for a variety of reasons, including the decent pay, opportunity to support their families financially, ability to expand their teaching expertise, and chance to interact with individuals from other cultural backgrounds. However, several professional and private concerns were also observed, including the apparent dearth of programs for teachers' professional development, cultural distinctions, language barriers, and absences from family festivities and other significant occasions. The results imply that although overall satisfaction was high, there were certain personal and professional difficulties for Filipino teachers, especially those resulting from their status as so-called NNESTs of English.

In the qualitative case study conducted with 17 Indonesian NNESTs in Thailand, even though transitioning to the teaching environment proved difficult, Putri (2020) discovered that the Indonesian EFL teachers did not have any trouble adjusting to the new cultures in Thailand. Furthermore, although earning less money

than NESTs, Indonesian EFL teachers received the same treatment as NESTs. The survey also revealed challenges in English lessons, such as student motivation, linguistic shortcomings, and plagiarism, which spur Indonesian EFL teachers' innovation. As the studies above indicate, non-local NNESTs encounter difficulties which diminish their teaching quality as well as finding opportunities for their professional development during their transnational teaching experiences.

2.7.1 Research on intercultural competence in ELT

Research on intercultural competence or intercultural communicative competence (IC) have focused on the teachers' knowledge and abilities in covering cultural content in their English language teaching practice (Atay, et al., 2009; Bayyurt, 2006; Bektaş-Çetinkaya & Çelik, 2013; Bon, 2022; Imsa-Ard, 2023; Kural & Bayyurt, 2016; Östermark, 2009; Sercu et al., 2005). After conducting a study examining the perceptions of the cultural aspect within the training of 100 prospective language teachers in Finland, Östermark (2009) arrived at the determination that cultural elements received limited attention. Consequently, the researcher recommended a more pronounced and intensive emphasis on cultural dimensions from the outset of teacher education.

Sercu et al. (2005) identified, through an examination involving 424 foreign language educators across Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece, Mexico, Poland, Spain, and Sweden, that the existing profiles of foreign language instructors do not align with the envisioned role of a 'foreign language and intercultural competence teacher' (p. 55). They raised concerns regarding the adequacy of both pre-service and in-service educational programs in preparing educators for the effective instruction of intercultural competence. This concern stemmed from the study's findings, which

indicated that a substantial proportion of foreign language instructors perceive teaching culture as primarily involving the transmission of information led by the teacher.

To enhance their students' intercultural competence (IC), Bon (2022) examined teachers' educational objectives, perspectives on IC, and the extent to which these aims and perspectives translated into their instructional strategies. Although a significant portion of the participants in the study acknowledged the essential role of IC in language education, the consistent incorporation of IC assessment and cultural integration into their teaching methodologies was limited. This deficiency was attributed to the inadequate representation of multicultural content within textbooks and a general lack of awareness about these pedagogical concepts among educators. Similar to this, Imsa-ard (2023) found in his research of 395 Thai EFL instructors teaching English in secondary schools that they had strong IC and IS levels. Correlational research discovered significant connections between the various IC and sensitivity components, with the exception of the association between the knowledge dimension of IC and the respect for other cultures and interaction pleasure dimensions of sensitivity. The research carried out in Türkiye concentrate on the opinions of local pre-/in-service NNESTs on culture and their IC skills. In their investigation of the role of IC in the teaching of foreign languages, Atay et al. (2009) gathered the opinions and viewpoints of Turkish EFL instructors. It also aims to demonstrate how these perspectives are reflected in academic environments. The researchers collected the data through the use of a questionnaire distributed to 503 instructors. The results of their study showed that although local NNEST English language teachers in Türkiye are aware of the value of culture in language acquisition, they do not always include cultural content in their lessons.

Bektaş-Çetinkaya and Çelik (2013) undertook a distinct study to assess the readiness of prospective Turkish EFL teachers in addressing cultural aspects within the classroom to foster their students' intercultural competence development. Employing a combination of quantitative and qualitative research methods, including surveys and interviews, the researchers collected data. The findings revealed that, despite their eagerness to acquire knowledge, teacher candidates exhibited deficiencies in their familiarity with diverse cultures. Furthermore, the outcomes underscored that the curriculum for preparing Turkish pre-service English teachers inadequately equips them with the necessary comprehension of Intercultural Communicative Competence (IC).

In a comparable manner, Kural and Bayyurt (2016) directed their attention towards the execution of a process-oriented framework for a syllabus aimed at cultivating intercultural competence (IC) and fostering awareness of English as a lingua franca (ELF). The study's objective was to prepare Turkish government-sponsored individuals for effective global communication in English-speaking L1 countries. Their investigation involved a cohort of 10 students undergoing English preparatory courses for their overseas study, along with preparatory school administrators. The research outcomes underscored the significance of incorporating IC and ELF awareness within language preparation programs as a prerequisite for a successful stay abroad.

All in all, it can be said that the range of research on IC in the Turkish EFL context, varied from teachers perceptions of IC in their English language teaching to developing an IC syllabus for learners of English to prepare them to study abroad – e.g. English L1 and/or English as a lingua franca contexts.

2.8 Conclusion

The existing body of literature reviewed here indicates that research concerning Non-Native English Speaking Teachers (NNESTs) has consistently contributed to bridging the gap between Native English Speaking Teachers (NESTs) and NNESTs. This research has not only challenged the prevailing notion of the native speaker but has also uncovered shared attributes and distinctions between native and non-native speakers that contribute to their competence as language educators. It is increasingly recognized that an effective language teacher is defined by their professional preparedness rather than their native or non-native status (Ulate, 2011).

Nevertheless, despite these advancements, the NEST-non-NNEST divide remains prevalent within English Language Teaching (ELT), resulting in persistently high levels of employment discrimination. While the evolution of the English teacher profile within the Turkish EFL context reflects these changes, the continued presence of this dichotomy underscores the need for further investigation. Thus, exploring the experiences of non-local NNESTs working in non-English-speaking countries is likely to yield valuable insights in response to the evolving landscape.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The present study set out to understand the experiences and expectations of non-local NNESTs working in Türkiye as well as their colleagues' expectations, namely local teachers and school administrators. This chapter presents the details of the methodology employed in the study. It begins with the research design and questions, followed by a description of the setting in which the study was conducted. It continues with the data collection instrument used, and finally, data collection and analysis procedures are presented.

3.1 Research design: Interpretive phenomenological analysis

Interpretive phenomenological analysis (IPA) was employed in this study in order to better understand the experiences of NNESTs working at K12 private schools in Türkiye. IPA is a methodology for psychological qualitative research with an idiographic focus that tries to provide insights into how a specific individual interprets a specific phenomenon in a specific setting (Lopez & Willis, 2004). These occurrences typically involve events that have some personal meaning for the individual, like a significant life event or the emergence of a significant relationship. Therefore, IPA is particularly suitable for investigations that seek to explore the “uniqueness of a person’s experiences, how experiences are made meaningful, and how these meanings manifest themselves within the context of the person both as an individual and in their many cultural roles” (Shaw, 2001, p. 48). Thus, it can reveal accounts of teaching and learning experiences from the standpoint of those experiencing it (Noon, 2018).

As far as the research methodology is concerned, IPA studies involve a close examination of the experiences and meaning-making activities of a small number of people. Because they can provide the researcher with some valuable insight into the subject of the study, as in purposive sampling, participants are specifically encouraged to participate rather than chosen at random. A basic IPA study's small-scale design demonstrates how something is interpreted in a certain context and from a shared perspective, a technique frequently referred to as homogenous sampling. Participants are typically required to share certain experiences with each other. Advanced IPA study designs could combine samples that present various viewpoints on a common experience.

In IPA, researchers collect qualitative information from participants using methods like open-ended interviews and daily journals. Usually, the interviewer adopts a curious and facilitative demeanor and approaches these from a position of flexible and open-ended inquiry. It typically calls for rich, in-depth, personally salient accounts that are recorded in a way that enables the researcher to work with an accurate verbatim transcript. In data analysis, this viewpoint is preserved. The researcher examines their own preconceptions about the data and makes an effort to set them aside in order to concentrate on understanding the participant's sensory reality. The focus switches back and forth between the participant's main claims and the researcher's evaluation of the significance of those claims as transcripts are transcribed in great detail. The analyst makes an effort to make sense of the participant's attempts to make sense of their own experiences because the hermeneutic posture of IPA is one of inquiry and meaning-making, generating a double hermeneutic. After detailed data transcription, the researcher works closely and intensively with the text in order to catalog the emerging codes and turn them

into themes. Evidence from the text is given to back up the themes produced by a quote from the text. In IPA, the analyst aims to balance phenomenological description with insightful interpretation. The results of IPA research include the voices of participants, the reflections of the researcher, a complex description and interpretation of the research questions, and its contribution to literature that calls for change (Saldana, 2013).

In the present study, IPA approach was chosen as the research design because the IPA methodology is descriptive and interpretive in nature, with the goal of better understanding the structure and features of individual experiences, which is in line with the research topics in issue. It also allows the researcher to reach conclusions from the data collection phase in an attempt to better understand the participant experiences (Moustakas, 1994). Based on IPA methodology, as IPA research investigates phenomena in context-specific environments, with the goal of making sense of them and/or interpreting phenomena in terms of the meanings that people attribute to them (Denzin, Lincoln & Giardina, 2011; Smith, 2010), the researcher gathered data in the natural setting, at the location where participants confronted with the challenges or problems (teaching English in Türkiye) that are the subject of the study. As necessitated by the concept of “researcher as an important instrument,” which refers to how the researcher gets information by interviewing the subjects, the study instrument (open-ended interview questions) was created in advance by the researcher.

During data collection, the researcher placed herself in the center, as suggested by IPA research. To put it another way, the researcher conveyed the researcher’s background, such as his or her previous work experience or unique experiences or history, and how all of this contributed to an interpretation of the information in the

study, as well as what the researcher hoped to gain from conducting such a study (Moustakas, 1994). Another characteristic of IPA research is complex reasoning, which is accomplished by inductive logic. All the data were reviewed and made sense of by the researcher. The researcher grouped it into categories or themes that were common to all the data sources. The researcher constructed patterns, categories, and themes from the ‘bottom up,’ arranging the data inductively and therefore into increasingly abstract units of information as the investigation progressed (Creswell, 2013; Saldana, 2013). Through this inductive method, the researcher was able to switch back and forth between the topics and the database until a thorough set of themes has been identified and documented (Creswell, 2013; Saldana, 2013). In addition, the researcher used deductive reasoning to develop themes, which were regularly evaluated against the available data (Creswell, 2013; Saldana, 2013). Over the course of the entire study process, the researcher maintained a laser-like concentration on discovering the meanings that the participants attached to their experiences.

Through this study design, the current investigation addresses the following research questions:

- i How do non-local NNESTs perceive their transnational teaching experience in the Turkish EFL work environment?
- ii What are common and different expectations of non-local NNESTs, local NNESTs and administrators from each other in the work environment?

3.2 Research setting

Türkiye has been a hub for non-local NNESTs especially for the last few years, which is the reason leading to the present study. In Türkiye, there are several job

opportunities, and the great majority of those opportunities are in private sectors. In the private sector, foreign teachers are employed in private Turkish schools established by corporate bodies of Turkish citizenship. These schools provide public education courses at pre-primary, primary and secondary levels. A foreign teacher with a bachelor's degree in any discipline and a TESOL certificate (e.g., TEFL, a Trinity TESOL, a CELTA or DELTA) can work at those schools. In the same sector, non-local NNESTs are also hired at private foreign schools (e.g., Austrian, French, Italian, American and German schools) and private schools for minorities formed by Jewish, Greek and Armenian minorities. International schools in Türkiye also hire foreign teachers. Preschools and kindergartens may hire foreign teachers in Türkiye as those schools most of the time do not look for strict teaching certification. Lastly, non-local NNESTs are employed at private universities or government universities provided that they have the required conditions, which are usually a masters or a PhD coupled with some proof of experience and some academic articles. However, it's not as popular as private schools for several reasons, mostly the lack of job offers within universities compared to the school job market, which is thriving all year long.

Given the great number of opportunities foreign teachers to work in the private sector in Türkiye, the research setting was determined as İstanbul, which is the city where many private schools are located. The researcher wanted to focus on Sarıyer district of İstanbul due to several reasons. The first reason is that most schools, which hire foreign teachers, are located here. The second reason is that foreign teachers prefer to live in these areas. Another reason is that the district of education heads in this district was eager to contribute to the study. Seven schools were contacted about

the study and the participants working at those schools were invited. The school profiles are summarized in Table 2 below.

Table 2. School Profiles

School	Grades	Number of foreign English teachers employed (Non-Native/ Native)	Number of local English teachers employed
School A	5	3 NN / 0 N	6
School B	10	1 NN / 1 N	8
School C	6	2 NN / 1 N	6
School D	10	2 NN / 1 N	7
School E	10	1 NN / 1 N	5
School F	6	2 NN / 0 N	5
School G	11	2 NN / 1 N	6

The schools were all private schools located in Sarıyer district and consisted of kindergarten (two years consisting of preschool and preparatory year), primary (grades 1-4), secondary (grades 5-8), and high school (grades 9-12) levels. Only one school did not have a high school section. English is a required subject at all levels and is taught using a unified curriculum, while French and German are available as electives. The number of hours of English instruction per week at schools was 10 to 12 lowering to 7 to 10 at high schools. English instruction begins as early as preschool level in private schools.

3.3 The participants

The participants of the study consisted of three different groups, namely non-native foreign teachers, local English teachers and school administrators. The participants were chosen through probability sampling, the design that uses probabilities to sample data. The main objective of this design is to generalize the results in order to achieve representativeness of the larger population (Cohen et al., 2007), which is in line with the aim of the study. Thus, the private schools located in Sarıyer were chosen through random sampling method and the participants working at those

schools were contacted. The local English teachers, non-local NNESTs and school administrators who were willing to be interviewed were listed. As a result, 25 local NNESTs, 25 non-local NNESTs and 7 school administrators took part in the study. Details related to participants' profiles are given in the following sections.

3.3.1 Non-local NNESTs

This cohort of participants encompassed 25 non-local NNESTs currently employed at various schools in Istanbul (refer to Appendix E for details). By analyzing the table, a more lucid understanding can be gained about the demographic of foreign instructors who opt for Türkiye as their English teaching destination. Evidently, the predominant number of teachers in Türkiye originate from non-native English-speaking backgrounds, representing diverse countries and continents, drawn by various motivations to teach in this locale. Notably, it's intriguing that among the participants, ten non-local NNESTs are from African nations, a departure from the norm due to geographical factors. Simultaneously, eleven educators hail from multiple Asian countries, with Iran being a prominent source, while Ukraine and Spain contribute two and one teachers, respectively. Regarding their educational background, the majority of these instructors hold a Bachelor's degree in diverse fields, and intriguingly, only seven possess degrees in English or education-related domains, which prompts questions about their pedagogical prowess and familiarity with educational principles. Further, a few teachers also boast Master's degrees in various disciplines. Virtually all participants possess some form of teaching certification, ranging from well-known ones like CELTA, a rarity in this study, to more commonly chosen options like TEFL certificates, while a minority lack any formal teacher training credentials.

Turning to their practical experience, all teachers exhibit substantial teaching know-how both within Türkiye and abroad, with a teaching tenure ranging from 4 to 13 years. Lastly, more than half of the participants are female (15), with the remaining (10) being male, and their ages span from 25 to 43 years.

3.3.2 Local NNESTs

This group of participants consisted of 25 local NNESTs. The information about this group of participants is summarized in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Local English Teachers Profiles

Participant code	Education	Years of teaching experience
LT1	Translational Studies	6
LT2	English Literature	7
LT3	English language Teaching BA	4
LT4	English/German language teaching	4
LT5	American Literature	3
LT6	English language Teaching	10
LT7	English language Teaching	6
LT8	Translational Studies	9
LT9	American Literature	8
LT10	English language Teaching	4
LT11	English language Teaching	2
LT12	English Literature BA & MA	3
LT13	English Literature	5
LT14	English Literature	8
LT15	American Literature	11
LT16	American Literature	20
LT17	English language Teaching	22
LT18	American Literature	2
LT19	BA on Translational Studies MA on English language teaching	7
LT20	American Literature	6
LT21	English Literature	12
LT22	English language Teaching	4
LT23	English language Teaching	13
LT24	Translational Studies	12
LT25	Translational Studies	7

Of 25 local English teachers interviewed, 21 were female and 4 male participants.

Their ages ranged between 25 and 52. They graduated from the English language teaching, translation and literature departments of Turkish universities. Two teachers

held Master of Arts degrees in English Language Teaching and English Literature. English Language Teaching, two of them were retired from state schools, others were teaching at private schools from the start in various levels from kindergarten grades to high school. Seven of them had never taught kindergarten grades. Six of them had always worked at high school levels. Their experience in teaching English ranged between 2 to 22 years. The average rate of working at the same school is 5 years. They worked with a range of 2 to 25 foreign teachers in their teaching careers.

3.3.3 School administrators

Seven school administrators took part in this group of participants. The participants' profile in this group is summarized in Table 4 below.

Table 4. School Administrators Profiles

Participant code	Years of teaching experience	Experience in administration
A1	10	2
A2	15	2
A3	16	4
A4	25	9
A5	30	15
A6	15	2
A7	17	3

Four male and three female administrators participated in the study. Their age range was 45-55. Six of them had teaching backgrounds as Science, Maths and PE branches. Their experience in administration ranged between 2 to 15 years. The minimum number of foreign teachers they worked with was between 5 and 40. Average rate of working at the same school for the administrators was eight years.

3.4 Data collection tool: Interviews

Due to the nature of this research, the main focus was obtaining raw qualitative data

with a slight focus on the quantitative aspects of the problem at hand. Therefore, the research opted for interviews in order to collect data and get an understanding of the situation being investigated.

Interviews were used in this study since it was suitable and aligned with the concept of studying actual individuals in their natural environment (Creswell, 2013). The researcher determines and creates the interview questions usually as a first step when opting for an interview-driven approach (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). These inquiries were open-ended and focused on the most important aspect of the study phenomenon to be investigated. In this study, one-on-one interviews were conducted since the research questions needed to encourage participants to discuss their ideas, challenges, and experiences with the researchers. Before data collection, the interview questions were piloted with two non-local NNESTs to improve the instrument, as “a procedure in which a researcher makes changes in an instrument based on feedback from a small number of individuals who complete and evaluate the instrument” (Creswell, 2012, p. 390).

As emphasized by Berg (2007), reading about interviewing does not automatically make a researcher a great interviewer and interviewing abilities are refined via practice. I conducted two interviews with the participants throughout the piloting. These interviews yielded some insights for the refinement of the questions. I discovered how important piloting is at this stage. I had to adapt the questions in some cases, since it was difficult to follow the planned interview guide. One of the subjects in this pilot study tended to expound on his responses and cover areas that I intended to touch with additional questions, despite the fact that I had prepared a lengthy list of questions. For instance, after responding to the question, “Could you tell me about your previous work experience in different countries?”, the participant

went on to elaborate and address another question I had prepared, "How did you find the job in Türkiye?" Additionally, I had no idea how much the researchers' presence would affect the interviews. I had a brief conversation with them, and then began recording to avoid this issue. They may have felt a little more at ease and acclimated to the recorder's presence after doing this, in my opinion. Finally, even for a pilot study, scheduling and executing the interviews was more difficult than I had anticipated. We had to move the interviews around a few times because the participant was so busy. I discovered that I had to adjust to any unforeseen changes during the subsequent interviews with the key participants. I made an effort to stay in touch with the participants as a result. In order to take advantage of any opportunity to gather data, I also made myself available the majority of the time.

Upon making sure that in-depth interviews provided respondents with greater flexibility and possibilities to explore other factors that were not specifically addressed in the interview protocol (Axinn & Pearce, 2006), the researcher conducted interviews with the participants in order to gain an understanding of their opinions. After the transcripts of the interviews were completed, the researcher scheduled 45 minutes of member verification for each participant. The researcher wished to be certain that the interview transcriptions were accurate before publishing them. The researcher did individual interviews with each participant in a location that was convenient for them. The researcher's personal computer was used to save the audio recordings of the interviews, which were then deleted after they had been transcribed. The researcher took notes, listened intently, and asked questions to gain a deeper understanding of the conditions and the participants' perceptions of their own experiences. As suggested by Cozby (2009), debriefing took place after the conclusion was reached. This provided the researcher with an opportunity to address

issues such as withholding information, deceit, and the potential for injury to participants. The purpose of the debriefing session was to ensure that the research did not have any adverse effects on the participants' physical or psychological well-being. The researcher made certain that the participants were comfortable with the fact that they had taken part in the study (Cozby, 2009). At this point, the researcher informed the participants of the study's goal and provided them with information on the research's practical implications (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). The interview approach appears to be a tangible and straightforward method of gathering critical information from important individuals in an efficient and regulated manner (Butin, 2010).

Interviewing is a difficult task that takes a great deal of practice, thoroughness, and adherence to established scholarly norms (Creswell, 2012). Unlike surveys, interviews are conducted face-to-face, which is advantageous since it allows the researcher to observe and record participants' body language and facial expressions, as well as ask follow-up questions and generally feel more personable throughout the process (Butin, 2010). For practical purposes, the questions were wide and comprehensive so that the participants could develop meanings for circumstances – meanings that are generally forged in talks or interactions with other people – as they occurred. The more open-ended the questions, the better, because the researcher paid close attention to what was said or done in their everyday lives, and the interpretivist framework allowed the processes of interaction amongst persons to be observed and understood (Creswell, 2013). The research also focused on the specific contents in which individuals live and work, in order to better understand the historical and cultural contexts in which the participants lived and worked (Creswell, 2013).

Regarding the current study, the researcher conducted semi-structured individual interviews with the three groups of stakeholders, i.e. non-local NNESTs,

local NNESTs, and administrators. Semi-structured interviews were chosen for the current study since they both provide an opportunity to cover pre-determined topics and also allow enough flexibility for interviewees to develop their ideas about the topic. There were two main reasons behind conducting interviews. The first one is that, non-local NNESTs hold certain prejudices towards filling in written documents due to their negative experiences in the past. Another reason is that they are not familiar with the idea of an outsider coming to their schools and asking personal and professional questions. They were suspicious of the goals of the study and even worried that their replies would be used against them and even risk their contracts. They also did not understand why native teachers were not included in the interviews. Even when the school administrators informed their staff about the researcher and the goals of the study, most of the non-local NNESTs did not want to voluntarily participate in the study. The researcher realized that in order to reach the true perceptions of these teachers, trust should be built between the participants and researcher, and therefore individual interviews that would take place in private rooms would help them feel secure to share their ideas and they would not be held responsible for their positive or negative comments. Through clarification and extension of the stakeholders' answers to the questions in the interviews and collecting information about their personal teaching and learning experiences, the researcher aimed at gaining in-depth understanding of the participants' attitudes and practices. The interview questions of teachers and administrators were adapted from the studies of Arva and Medgyes (2000) and Moussu (2006).

All interviews in this study conducted in English were audio-recorded, transcribed, and analyzed. Duration of the interviews conducted with three groups of participants were as follows:

Table 5. Summary of Interviews

Data Source	Non-local NNESTs	Local NNESTs	Administrators	Total Data
Interviews	25	25	7	57
	15 face to face 10 online meetings (due to Covid)	18 face to face 7 online meetings (due to Covid and heavy school schedule)	5 face to face 2 online (due to Covid and heavy school schedule)	57 meetings/
	15h /5 mins	7h/23 mins	5h/10 mins	27h/38 mins

As stated before, in order to exclude the problematic issues related to the conduction and analysis of the interviews, and to make sure that statements in the interviews are understandable for the participants, a pilot of the present study was conducted in February 2020. Before conducting the pilot, the arrangements were made with the administration of two private k12 schools in Sarıyer, Istanbul. The major rationale behind the decision to conduct the pilot at these private language schools was that non-local NNESTs can be easily found there.

After getting the permission from the MoNE and administrations of two private school, the major areas to be addressed by the pilot and the relevant stakeholders were specified. Next, the researcher followed the main steps in her data collection procedures which are listed below.

First, the researcher arranged individual interviews with two non-local teacher participants in order to clarify some points in the participants' answers and to ask them to comment on various topics related to non-local non-native English teachers. In general, two interviews with the administrators and two individual interviews with local teachers were conducted within the framework of the present pilot. The interviewing procedures and conditions were discussed and verified in advance with the teachers and administrators. All groups agreed to be recorded. All Interviews

were partially transcribed for the further analysis. At the end of each interview, the interviewees were asked to comment on the clarity and meaningfulness of the interview questions. All of the participants approved the interview questions; therefore, the interview questions further employed for the teacher and administrator interviews in the actual study remained unchanged (see Appendices D, E and F).

Analysis of the qualitative data performed within the framework of the pilot study demonstrated that the interview questions were understandable for the participants, and the data collected through the interviews are sufficient for answering the research questions posed by the study.

The questions asked during the interviews changed based on groups. Non-local NNESTs were asked some preliminary questions about why they had chosen to teach in Türkiye and why that school. Later, the subjects were asked more specifically about their views on two main categories as working environment, namely, recruitment and orientation phase, expectations from Turkish and foreign colleagues and administrators, general attitudes of teachers and administrators towards their nationality, opportunities for professional development, future career plans teaching experiences, namely; what they like/dislike about teaching in Türkiye, challenges and how they deal with them, teaching skills they would like to improve, impact of Türkiye experience on their professional development and their suggestions for the newcomer foreign teachers (See Appendix A).

Local teachers of English were asked demographic questions and preliminary questions including their years of experience and number of foreign teachers they worked with. The interview questions were about their experiences with foreign teachers, positive and negative aspects of working with them, preferences of

nationality, expectations from these teachers, collaborative practices and foreign teachers' contributions to the Turkish education system (See Appendix B).

The interview questions directed to administrators were about hiring procedures, challenges they face when working with these teachers, their perceptions about the strengths and weaknesses of these teachers, preferences of nationality, and expectations from these teachers, and foreign teachers' contributions to the Turkish education system (See Appendix C).

3.5 Data collection procedures

The study was designed in a way not to intrude on the lives and encroach on the time of the participants. Each interview took about 20-30 minutes. All data gathered during the study were kept and remained confidential. Recordings and transcriptions were labeled according to pseudonyms. The participants were informed about the aim of the study. And a written consent was obtained from each teacher participant before the study. The informed consent incorporated expectations of the researcher from the participants and the approximate time to be spent in participation, assurance of the fact that participation is on a voluntary basis and that participants are free to withdraw at any time, assurance of the confidentiality of the responses collected, and a statement of agreement to participate voluntarily upon adequate explanation of the aim of the research. The participants were assured that the data would be utilized only for research purposes, and that in the event of any publication or presentation resulting from the research, no personally identifiable information would be shared. The researcher was identified by name, address, telephone number and e-mail in case the participants had questions about the study.

As soon as clearance from Boğaziçi University Ethical Committee was obtained official letters of intention to conduct the present study were sent to the Türkiye Private Schools Union (TÖZOK) and Sarıyer District of education. Next, the researcher met with the chair and the director of the education district and provided a general verbal description of the study, discussed the data collection procedures, set specific time-frames, and presented data collection instruments, i.e. interview questions.

The participants were invited to the interviews in accordance with the study objectives, and the same process was used with each participant. Prior to data collection, ethical approval was received from the Ethics Committee for Master and Ph.D. Theses in Social Sciences and Humanities (See Appendix D). The researcher confirms the following research and publication ethics during data collection and the writing of the article. First, ethics committee approval within the scope of the research has been obtained from Boğaziçi University Research Ethics Committee with the decision dated 11.02.2021. Participants were also duly informed about the scope of the research, their rights, and the withdrawal procedure prior to the data collection. To ensure anonymity, pseudonyms were given to the participants, and ethical principles were considered during the interview. Participants were given a consent form and information about the study after being invited to participate. The subjects were provided with all the information they would need to understand the study in the consent form. They gave their permission before the data collection procedure began. Prior to the interviews, individuals were required to complete a profile form that asked about their demographics (such as age, gender, nationality, and marital status) and other open-ended questions that the researchers used to learn more about their professional backgrounds (teaching experience, teaching certificate,

their field and level of education). For the interviews, the researcher arranged the time for each subject on their convenient day and conducted face-to-face interviews separately with each subject. The interviews were audio-recorded with their permission. The data were collected over an 8-month period. The timing of the data collection procedure is given in Table 6 below.

Table 6. Research Timeline

January 2020- February 2020	Confirmation of the teachers for accepting the invitation Piloting
February 2020- May 2020	Interviews with non-native foreign teachers
January 2021- February 2021	Interviews with the local teachers
April 2021- May 2021	Interviews with the administrators

3.6 Data analysis

As described by Smith (2010) and Saldana (2013), the qualitative based approach involves the completion of the following seven steps: 1) The researcher's verbatim transcription of the findings; 2) reading the transcripts multiple times to become familiarized with the specifics of each interview is step two; 3) open coding is achieved by finding and underlining noteworthy assertions in first notes, and then translating initial notes into themes, as described above; 4) creating a table of themes by clustering and connecting themes in order to capture the most strongly expressed worries of respondents regarding this particular topic; 5) discussion of the themes via the lens of a theoretical framework; 6) consistency check of the interpreter by having a peer perform coding, and 7) triangulation through participant evaluations and verification of coding and interpretation. After the data had been gathered, the following stage was to organize the information into categories. The goal was to find any patterns that represented notions that the participants presented during the data collection phase of the project (Saldana, 2013). The information was then arranged into logical categories that summarized and gave sense to the texts or notes (Saldana,

2013). It was necessary to develop specific codes that would allow for the researcher to group replies into the above-mentioned categories, which in turn would reveal emerging themes. In this data aggregation phase, subcategories were discovered that were not obvious during the earlier stages of the research project's development. In order for this additional information to be incorporated into the research findings, these subcategories were recognized and coded by the researchers (Creswell, 2013; Saldana, 2013). Despite the fact that pre-set categories were created during the early phase of the research, emergent categories were discovered during the resetting of the initial direction of the investigation. The anticipated procedure was to begin with pre-determined categories and gradually add emergent categories as they were specified. By including these new categories, it was possible to gain a better understanding of the problem under investigation (Saldana, 2013).

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents the findings of the present study conducted to understand the perceived experiences of non-local NNESTs regarding their work experiences in Türkiye and the expectations of non-local NNESTs, local NNESTs and school administrators. The first section of the chapter provides findings related to the non-local NNESTs' perceived experiences, whereas the following section presents the findings revealed in the data obtained from the expectations of the three groups of participants.

It is important to remember the research questions before reporting the results as they will follow the the order of the research questions.

Through this study design, the current investigation addresses the following research questions:

- i How do non-local NNESTs perceive their transnational teaching experience in the Turkish EFL work environment?
- ii What are common and different expectations of non-local NNESTs, local NNESTs and administrators from each other in the work environment?

4.1 Work Experiences of the non-local NNESTs

The first research question of the present study aimed at understanding what kind of work experiences non-local NNESTs had when teaching as an EFL teacher in Türkiye. Data were collected through interviews. Data analysis revealed several themes and subthemes that shed light on their experiences ranging from their

recruitment process to their current teaching situation in the work environment, as shown in Table 7 below.

Table 7. Experiences of Non-Local NNESTs

Categories	Themes	Subthemes	Frequency	%
Challenges	Recruitment Process	Getting a legal work permit	12	6.2
		The job interviews	8	4.1
		Unclear employment contracts	15	7.8
		Selection bias	10	5.2
	Unequal treatment between NESTs and NNESTs	Unequal salary	23	12
		Unequal parental attitude	7	3.6
	Level of Proficiency in Turkish	Not being able to communicate effectively with school administrators	18	9.4
			12	6.2
		Not being able to communicate effectively with other subject area teachers	18	9.4
			12	6.2
School regulations	The presence of too many decision makers	9	4.7	
	Absence of specific rules and/or regulations	14	7.3	
Advantages	Professional growth	Instructional delivery	11	5.7
		Digital literacy	10	5.2
		Intercultural awareness	8	4.1
		Classroom management skills	5	2.6
	Personal growth	Increased self-confidence	7	4.1
		Empathy level	14	7.3
		Awareness of their own culture	8	4.1

Note: Frequencies represent the number of respondents who gave a particular response.

As indicated in Table 7, the analysis of comments from the non-local NNEST participants revealed the emergence of six distinct themes. These themes encompassed their perceptions of challenges within the recruitment process, the perceived disparities in treatment between native and non-native English teachers, difficulties arising from the absence of Turkish language proficiency, issues stemming from school regulations, and their perceptions of personal and professional

development. The subsections below present the themes and subthemes emerging from the data with relevant quotations from data followed by discussion. In sum, two major categories emerged from data analysis: Challenges and Advantages.

Challenges were divided into four major themes: *perceived challenges in the recruitment process*; *perceived disparities in treatment between NESTs and NNESTs*; *no/lower level of proficiency in Turkish*; and *challenges due to school regulations*.

Advantages were divided into two major themes: *professional growth* and *personal growth*. In this section, the results will be reported in the order presented in Table 7.

4.1.1 Challenges in the recruitment process

When they were asked about their work experience (i.e., teaching experience) in Türkiye, almost all of the non-local NNEST participants linked it back to their arrival in Türkiye and discussed the difficulties they had throughout the recruiting process when questioned about their overall teaching experience in Türkiye. The following subthemes emerged from the examination of their comments: *difficulties in obtaining a valid work visa*, *difficulties encountered during employment interviews*, *the issue of selection bias*, and *difficulties in contract activation and termination*.

4.1.1.1 Challenges with getting a legal work permit

Around half of the participating teachers in the study brought attention to the difficulty associated with obtaining a legal work permit. They noted that the process was both time-consuming and intricate due to legal regulations. Under the stipulations of Article 8 of the International Labour Law No. 6735, foreign teachers planning to work in educational sectors necessitating professional qualifications are obliged to acquire a preliminary work permit from the Ministry of National

Education before submitting their work permit applications to the Ministry of Labour and Social Security..

P3, for example, described the process as follows:

Actually, the recruitment process began even before I arrived in Türkiye. My employing school did the application for a pre-permit from the Ministry of National Education. I applied to the Turkish Consulate back in my country to obtain a work permit. They sent my documents to the Turkish Ministry of Labour who evaluated the eligibility of the applicants. All these procedures took a lot of time.

Similarly, P12 referred to the process of getting a work permit as “long and complex” and stated that:

In Türkiye, each year it is getting more difficult for us to keep up with the new requirements of the government, which brings us more paperwork. The paperwork is a challenge not only for myself but also for the school I am going to teach at since the regulations make it difficult to employ foreign teachers.

P9 approached the issue from the employing school’s perspective and said that:

Getting a work permit is a big obstacle for all foreign teachers. Some schools ask us to start the process even before we arrive in Türkiye. The main reason is that the whole process is long. The process of obtaining a work permit discourages some schools from recruiting foreign teachers. Another problem is that when we decide to quit from a school, the school has the right to cancel our work permit. So, we have to start the process again.

P17 also stated her feelings about the process as follows:

What I found the most difficult in the process of getting the permit was the waiting part. Although you expect to get the permit, still you would not know what would happen. I remember how that uncertainty made me feel insecure. All my plans depended on that permit.

Considering the remarks above made by participants P3, P9, P12, and P17, it becomes evident that the extended duration required to secure a work permit posed a significant issue during the recruitment process for non-local NNESTs.

Consequently, some of the participants indicated that due to the considerable length

of the work permit application procedure, they were compelled to initiate work in their respective schools without legal authorization while awaiting the approval of their permits. As highlighted by one of the participants (P7),:

You first find a school to work at and then apply for the work permit. But the legal hiring process takes such a long time that the school year starts and we are asked to start teaching before the permit arrives. This makes us feel very uncomfortable and insecure as we know that it is forbidden for us to work without a work permit. The school can't get your salary started nor other benefits like health insurance.

The same concern was also mentioned by another participant - P15 - as follows:

It's illegal to work without a permit. It is a crime. If the police catch you, you have to pay a fine and you are banned from the country for five years. This is too risky and stressful for us.

Among the documents required for the preliminary permit from the Ministry of National Education is a certificate of equivalence to be obtained from the Council of Higher Education in Türkiye regarding the equivalence of the foreign teacher's undergraduate diploma or replacement certificate from abroad. During the interviews, some of the teachers specifically mentioned the challenging process of obtaining a certificate of equivalence due to the heavy paperwork required. As P2 mentioned, "getting this certificate requires a lot of paperwork on the part of the teacher". She said she had to get notarized Turkish translations and the certified copies of her original Bachelor's degree as well as her formation certificate. She also added that as employing schools did the application for the applicant foreign teachers, sometimes their documents were lost and they were asked to bring them again. This also shows that the non-local NNESTs were not used to preparing paperwork due to different recruitment processes they were accustomed to in their own countries.

Another participant – P22 – mentioned that in some cases, the administrators in their school did not know about the process of obtaining the equivalency certificate to exhibit their . She said “They did not know exactly which documents were required for the certificate, which made the process more challenging for me. I handed in my documents and then found out that there were missing ones. The process took much longer than expected.” Hence, the reason for the extended period of getting the work permit can be due to missing documents in the case of P22.

All the above findings reveal the administrative problems related to the legal processes influenced the teachers’ rights to start working. Regarding official certificate, another teacher – P3 – commented as follows:

Everyday something else comes up! I wouldn’t change Türkiye to any other country because of its friendly people. But I dread that we are not wanted any more and it is always one document asked before we get another. I hear the rumor that without a BA degree in ELT we would not be able to teach, and CELTA would not be enough.

Although this certification has been expected to be presented to the school administration by the non-local NNESTs for more than two decades, it is surprising to see that neither teachers nor the school administration seems to understand the significance of the certificate to be able to work in schools. While some schools give the utmost significance for non-local NNESTs to have the needed documentation to start working some other schools are not aware of these documentations causing problems for both administrators and teachers equally. P12 clearly states this point in the following quote from her interview:

The most difficult thing is that they tell you what you need to do, what paper you need etc. and you think that is valid for all schools or all foreign teachers. Then you find out that there are exceptions, some other teachers did not do any of them but they still found their ways. Because it all depends on the school at the end. If the administrator wants to do something hard he can make things easier for the staff.

As indicated in the comments of the teachers, getting a legal work permit was perceived as a challenge due to the rules and regulations to be followed during the process. The challenge of obtaining a permit to work composes an important part of their recruitment process and accordingly their teaching experiences in Turkish EFL context. Although this may constitute a challenge for the teachers and the administrators equally, one of the reasons for P12's perception of the delay in the recruitment process may be the unwillingness of the school administration to employ her as a teacher in that school. However, it may also be due to lack of familiarity with the Turkish culture and work ethics. This falls within the third level of the intelligibility definition that concerns the interpretability of context and situation (for detailed explanation of cultural interpretability see Bayyurt, 2018b). Since it is beyond the scope of this thesis, I will not discuss intelligibility in this thesis, however, I will refer to the interpretability of cultural information causing intercultural communication problems in this section and the following ones.

4.1.1.2 Challenges faced during teaching interviews

Teaching interviews were commonly perceived by teachers as another challenge in the hiring process. The first problem they mentioned was about the type of questions asked to the applicant nonnative teachers. 32% of the participants commented that their past teaching experiences were not questioned at all during the interviews. For example, one of the teachers (P18) stated, "The questions in the interviews focused on my personal life more than my professional experience." Similarly, P4 said, "I wish they asked more about my previous teaching experiences." The following comment of the P6 illustrates the same point:

I've been in interviews where I was asked if I was single or married. When I responded, they kept asking follow up questions about my husband. His nationality, his profession, etc. I found these questions irrelevant and felt uncomfortable.

Two of the teachers (P1 and P13) were concerned about the length of the interviews conducted for recruitment purposes. To illustrate, P1 stated:

The interviews did not last long enough to talk about my qualifications or share my previous experiences in the teaching profession. I think that they have to allocate more time for us to be able to show our expertise in the position we are applying for.

P13 also added, “a short interview gives me the impression that the interviewers focus on my accent of English rather than my expertise in the teaching profession. I cannot really show myself in a 15-minute-long interview.”

The explanation of this may be twofold, the first one involves the reasons for hiring non-local NNESTs as English teachers in schools as there are not enough number of NNESTs to be employed in the EFL contexts like Türkiye. In most of the cases, the non-local NNESTs are hired on the basis of their accents and if their accents resemble British or American standard English variety then they are hired. In most of the cases, the reason why they are not asked to talk about their qualifications as teachers may be due to the need to hire teachers for developing learners' listening and speaking skills. Another reason for such a disappointment on the part of the non-local NNESTs can best be explained in reference to the difficulties occurring in the earlier stages of the transnational work experiences of these teachers. For instance, Park (2012) found out a certain incongruity between the encounters of non-local NNESTs in their home countries and those in the nations where their transnational teaching endeavors unfolded. This research verified that for non-local NNESTs engaged in transnational settings, establishing a link between their prior experiences and their current situations is a pivotal aspect of their professional expertise. This

linkage may facilitate a more seamless transition to their new teaching environment. While the existing frameworks in language teacher education have previously overlooked this specific domain of knowledge, the current research endorses its inclusion within teacher preparation programs that aim to equip non-local NNESTs for teaching English in various settings. As a result, the insights provided by teachers in relation to job interviews underscore a set of challenges they encountered while teaching in Turkey might contribute to understand how this knowledge base can be constructed. Among these concerns, the nature of the questions posed during interviews stood out, with teachers expressing their reservations about the relevance and appropriateness of the questions to their professional expertise. that could be explained.

4.1.1.3 Challenges regarding the employment contract

Another challenge faced by most of the teachers (60%) during the recruitment process was the contract of employment prepared by schools. For some teachers, the terms and conditions of the employment contract were not well specified. According to those teachers, the uncertainty in the contracts led to manipulation and mistreatment in terms of working conditions. As P4 stated, “the contracts do not include a detailed job description.” Similarly, P16 said that “the requirements from the teachers are not clearly specified in the contracts- so the schools might make changes later.” P21 explained her concern as follows:

It would be nice if the contract contained open information on job specifications, time off, salary and termination of employment. This would make me feel more secure in the hiring process. Otherwise, the contract becomes open to changes without agreement.

A similar concern was also mentioned by P11:

I was asked to, for example, come to school on some weekends, cover the classes of absent teachers or teach for around 40 hours a week. As the requirements were not openly written in my employment contract, I could not object to the demands that she found unreasonable.

The comments of P22 also indicated that unspecified conditions on the contract resulted in the refusal of her demand for an extra payment for the hours she covered other teachers' classes. In relation to the missing information on the length of employment, P15 gave the following example:

I once taught at a language preparatory school of a private university and thought that I was employed for the complete year, I mean for 12 months. However, I later found out that the contract covered only 9 month-payment. Think twice before you quit your job! You are lucky if you leave with a happy end. I was laid off, I never reacted. But what happens is the school principal asked me to sign a resignation letter or else he would cancel my work permit!!! It is really unfair that schools have such a say in our legal permits even when we are leaving.

Another teacher (P14) approached the issue from another perspective and said:

Sometimes, I get the feeling that the schools do not write the contract in English on purpose. The contract my school prepared was in Turkish and I had difficulty in understanding the conditions. I think that schools should prepare the contracts in English to eliminate any misunderstandings.

Therefore, according to the participants, unclear specifications given in the contracts as well as the language used created problems for the teachers during their teaching experience in Türkiye.

In sum, the challenges revolving around employment agreements, predominantly arising from unclear job specifications and language-related issues, have been underscored as an additional difficulty faced by non-local NNESTs. A comparison of these findings with earlier research reveals a consistent thread of perceived challenges for non-local NNESTs across different contexts. This persistence in challenges echoes the insights of Hasanah and Utami (2019) in their exploration of emerging obstacles in EFL teaching. They emphasize the crucial role

of a supportive school atmosphere from the outset of the hiring process, underlining the significance of attitudes displayed by school administrators, fellow educators, staff, parents, and students (Hasanah & Utami, 2019; Oder & Eisenschmidt, 2018). In this regard, the documentation of challenges encountered by non-local NNESTs in relation to their job specifications not only enhances our understanding of the experiences they undergo during the hiring process but also sheds light on their specific needs as non-local NNESTs within the domain of English language teaching in EFL contexts.

4.1.1.4 The problem of selection bias

Another finding related to the challenges non-local NNESTs came across was perceived selection bias. The teachers perceived that their origin, physical appearance, gender and accent affected the teacher recruitment process (see Table 7). Focusing on the native speaker status, P6 stated, “Native teachers are more valued regardless of their teaching qualifications and experiences.” Similarly, P13 mentioned, “if one of the applicant teachers is a native speaker teacher, foreign applicant teachers have a very low probability of getting the job advertised.” Referring to the effect of physical appearance on the recruitment decision, P1 said, “I believe that teachers with more Western looks have a higher chance of getting hired.” Another teacher (P20) also expressed her feelings as follows: “Russian teachers are more commonly preferred as they look more American than us. Rather than the qualifications you have for the position, your look might become the criteria.” These findings are consistent with McKay's (2003) assertion that the perception of ideal English teachers as white, blue-eyed, blonde individuals often refers to NESTs. In a parallel vein, Garcia-Ponce (2020, p. 73), in a study focused on

ESOL teachers in Mexico, identified discriminatory practices in TESOL as actions driven by bias related to gender, ethnicity, physical appearance, temporary or permanent physical or cognitive limitations, and linguistic proficiency (including pronunciation, accent, or any language-related aspect) that result in inequalities in accessing resources or opportunities within the foreign language teaching profession. In this study, the examination of teachers' perceptions of such discriminatory practices during the recruitment process mirrors the findings of both McKay(2003) and Garcia-Ponce's (2020) research, despite the distinct contexts. However, this study distinguishes itself by analyzing a less explored cohort of teachers, namely the non-local NNESTs.

Religion can be another factor influencing the selection of teachers in schools. As one of the female teachers (P22) indicates she prefers to send her application without her hijab on to get the job as she concerned about not getting it otherwise. She says: “I am covered back in my country. However, when I send my CV to schools I prefer to share a photo without a hijab. Otherwise, I would not get a job easily.” In some cases, the opposite may occur as well, so, this shows religious factors like dress code might influence the hiring processes.

Gender was perceived to be another factor leading to selection bias. As one of the teachers said (P4) “Female teachers are more advantageous, especially in kindergarten positions.” A male teacher (P12) with the experience of applying to a kindergarten teacher position in Türkiye explained this situation as follows:

Kindergartens usually prefer female teachers. I have a great experience in kindergarten to the degree that I can train kindergarten teachers. But in Türkiye having male teachers in kindergarten is an exceptional case. So I had to teach other grades which I don't feel comfortable with.

As mentioned earlier in this section, accent is also mentioned by teachers in relation to the perceived selection bias. Their common belief about accent was that schools

preferred nonnative teachers with native-like accents resembling Standard British or American accents. In other words, having a native-like accent gave those teachers an advantage in the recruitment process. As P2 expressed “Based on my experience, I can say that accent is one of the major selection criteria.” Another teacher (P8) said that during one of the interviews for the teaching position she applied for, she was asked about her accent- whether she spoke American or British English.

The non-local NNESTs acknowledged a prevailing bias directed towards them, which they attributed in part to their unfamiliarity with the recruitment culture in their host country, diverging from the recruitment practices they were accustomed to in their home countries. They expressed that their inquiries about job details during interviews often led to misunderstandings by human resources officers and/or administrators. Consequently, they are often perceived as overly assertive or problematic candidates by the human resources officers and administrators.

In sum, the teachers' feedback highlighted that they perceived “job selection bias” as an additional challenge during their job applications. While the nature of this bias ranged from gender to accent in their remarks, almost all the participants acknowledged the notion that factors beyond their teaching abilities were considered in the hiring process.

4.1.2 Perceived unequal treatment between NESTs and non-local NNESTs

The second major theme that emerged from non-local NNESTs' comments on their experiences as a teacher in Türkiye was perceived “*unequal treatment between native and nonnative English teachers*”. This major theme involved the following two subthemes: *inequality in terms of salary* and *inequality in terms of parental attitudes*.

4.1.2.1 Inequality in terms of salary

A majority of the teachers (92%) interviewed stated that NESTs and non-local NNESTs were treated unequally in terms of their salaries. They said that non-local NNESTs were paid less than native teachers regardless of their academic qualifications, teaching experience or workload. For example, P9 stated that “I have an MA in English Language Teaching but have been paid much less than my native speaker colleague. This is not fair and makes me feel inferior.” Another teacher (P18) having experienced the disparity between the salaries of native and nonnative teachers said that her more than 15 years of experience did not mean much when it came to payment. In her own words, she added that “I wish my school found me worthy as a nonnative teacher.” P16 said “it was very disappointing for me to hear that my native colleague earned more than I did for the same teaching hours.” So teachers referring to the inequality in payments reported that the nativeness issue played an important role in the decisions of schools regarding the salary deserved by the participants.

The following quote from one of the teachers emphasizes the concern of non-local NNESTs about being nonnative, which is disadvantageous when it comes to payment, even though they are more similar to NESTs than local NNESTs in terms of employee rights and sometimes superior to them in terms of their teaching qualifications.

It is so confusing that for every rule there is an exception in employment issues. On one hand there are strict rules and policies. Like the state curriculum we have to follow. As a foreigner you think ok I got this. Just when you think you have learned the system Bang! You learn there is an exception, and you start everything all over. There are always exceptions for every situation. They can be changed the next day, you never know. Why would I get paid less if I'm married to a Turkish spouse? My friends say there is no such rule. Others tell me there is or will be or used to be. I go nuts! (P12)

The above findings showed the discrepancy between native and non-native teachers in terms of salary. The non-local NNEST participants' answers during the interviews indicated that payment was an issue for which they were discriminated against NESTs and thus among the most important challenges they experienced during their teaching in Türkiye. While confirming earlier studies (e.g. Garcia-Ponce, 2020; Rajagopalan, 2018) on unequal payment of NNESTs as compared to NESTs, this study contributes to the field with the inclusion of an emerging group of NNESTs, that I term as “non-local NNESTs”, who are foreign to the host country and less privileged against NESTs in terms of the amount of monthly payment they receive. Furthermore, the findings of the earlier studies revealed that the unequal payment of the salaries is a prevalent worry for teachers with similar profiles in other ESOL contexts.

4.1.2.2 Inequality in terms of parental attitude

Some of the non-local NNESTs (28%) also believed that parents' attitudes toward native and nonnative teachers were unequal. According to the teachers, parents preferred and regarded native teachers as superior. "We often hear from parents asking the school administration why they hire nonnatives rather than native teachers," said P2. Similarly, P7 said that “there is a parental desire for native teachers in schools” increasing the disparity between native and nonnative teachers. The teachers claimed that parents' views also demonstrated their preference for NESTs to be stronger than non-local NNESTs. One of the teachers (P18) said, "Parents ask me too many questions about my qualifications—what did I study? Where did I work before? But they do not do the same to native teachers.

Additionally, some teachers claimed that parents regularly blamed the non-local NNESTs' possible lack of English language proficiency for their children's failure to learn the language. One teacher (P15) explained this as follows:

Parents tend to relate their children's failure in learning English to our being nonnative speakers of English. When, for example, a student makes a pronunciation mistake, we are first to blame. This never happens with native teachers.

The teachers' remarks revealed that the concept of nativeness also extended to parents' perceptions. According to the teachers, parents held contrasting views towards native and non-native teachers, demonstrating bias against the qualifications of non-native teachers in the teaching role. This finding supported the view that parents were also biased against non-local NNESTs through the lens of native speakerism as the dominant ideology in the ESOL profession (see Alenazi, 2014; Holliday, 2006; Tatar, 2019).

4.1.3. Challenges due to their changing levels of *proficiency in Turkish*

The third major theme that emerged from non-local NNESTs' interview data were the problems they experienced due to their limited understanding of/lack of proficiency in Turkish. They perceived that this situation led to some communication problems with school administrators and other subject area teachers.

4.1.3.1 Communication with school administrators

While talking about their experiences as English teachers in Türkiye, some of the non-local NNESTs (72%) mentioned communication problems they experienced with the administrators of their schools, especially with the ones who could not speak English. One of the teachers (P4) explained that "to talk to administrators, we need a

Turkish English teacher to translate. As teachers are always busy, it might be difficult to find someone to get help.” Another teacher (P12) said that “When there is someone to translate, I cannot really say what I want to say to the person I am talking to.” Similarly, P8 indicated that when she had to share some personal issues with administrators she did not feel comfortable with the presence of another teacher to translate. The following comment of the P14 also illustrates this point:

At the beginning of the term I had some problems with a teacher at my institution and wanted to share it with the administrator. But I could not express myself clearly and I was misunderstood. Then the administrator suggested inviting a Turkish English teacher for translation but I said no as I didn't want to share it with a third party.

The lack of Turkish language knowledge or a low level of Turkish language proficiency emerged as a significant problem for non-local NNESTs, leading to communication problems, particularly with school administrators. This language barrier presented a significant barrier in effectively conveying their messages to the administration, sometimes resulting in unresolved problems. Non-local NNESTs' teaching in Turkish EFL classrooms expressed that this language barrier posed a considerable communication challenge. While it might be considered typical for teachers to voice such concerns, it appears that this stands as the primary source of complaints for non-local NNESTs. They frequently relate these challenges to their limited language proficiency in Turkish, even though there might be other factors, such as, students' unfamiliarity with modes of communication in English with local NNESTs or their apprehensions about potential negative evaluations by their peers (Aydın, 2008).

4.1.3.2 Communication with other subject area teachers

Forty eight percent of non-local NNESTs (48%), who participated in the study, reported that they had some communication problems with other subject area teachers with whom they had to collaborate for school-related issues. For example, P17 reported:

I work in a primary school and have to collaborate with class teachers from time to time. We are expected to have regular meetings to discuss the issues emerging in their shared classrooms. However, due to their lack of competence in Turkish and English respectively we could not understand each other well and their communication stay at a limited level.

A similar concern was raised by another teacher, i.e. P10:

I work at a kindergarten level. When I first started working, there I had no Turkish. I had to collaborate with the class teacher regularly as most of the time we were in the class together. At the beginning this was hard as we could rarely understand each other. In time the situation got better as somehow, I improved in Turkish and she in English and developed our way of communication.

As can be understood from the comment above, language competence also created problems in school-related issues when they needed to be in contact with other teachers. Although both parties were able to improve their competence for an effective teaching, in-depth interaction between the teachers was still questionable. This finding is again an original finding in the sense that it contributed to wider literature on NNESTs and their interactions with other subject teachers.

4.1.4 Challenges related to school regulations

The fourth theme generated from the non-local NNESTs data was about the problems they experienced due to the regulations of the schools they were working at. Perceived reasons that led to these problems were the presence of too many

decision-makers and the absence of specific rules and/or regulations for nonnative teachers.

4.1.4.1. Presence of too many decision-makers

One of the problems mentioned by non-local NNESTs (36%) was the presence of too many decision-makers at the schools where they were working. The non-local NNESTs considered this problem as an organizational problem and believed that it caused some confusion among them. For example, P16 indicated that:

When I need to take a sick leave, I talk to many different people. I first ask about it to the Turkish English teacher I collaborate with. When she says she can cover my class, I talk to the head of the department. Sometimes the head gives permission but sometimes asks me to see the principal of the school. I really don't know who is responsible for such issues.

A similar concern was expressed by another teacher (P9) as follows: "I did not exactly know who the responsible person was for different issues such as sharing academic problems, taking a day off or solving school-related problems. I had to talk to many different people about the problem until I find the right person with an answer or solution. I felt frustrated with such disorganization." Thus, according to non-local NNESTs who participated in this study, the number of decision-makers was the reason for this disorganization, and they needed clear guidance for learning whom to contact in case of academic and personal problems. Again, it can be said that while this can be due to lack of familiarity with the local culture and the local school culture, it can also be due to other organizational problems.

4.1.4.2 Lack of specific regulations for the rights and responsibilities of non-local NNESTs

About half of the participating non-local NNESTs (56%) reported that their schools lacked rules and/or regulations for the rights and responsibilities of non-local NNESTs. In their opinion, the absence of well-established regulations resulted in some inconsistent implementations within and across schools. As P1 said “I was allowed to go on an Easter break while my friend from another school was not.” P19 stated, “while everyone had a break during the religious holidays in Türkiye nonnative teachers do not always have the chance of taking a break during the times of Easter, Thanksgiving or Christmas.” P2 approached the issue from another perspective and made the following comment: “When I first started working at my school I was not informed about any rules or regulations. I learned about them through trial and error.” She added that she felt “insecure” until she became familiar with the school organization.

Similarly, P18 said:

I would prefer that each school give us a small booklet about the general rules and regulations of the school in English. Language is not the main issue. Besides language, there are no stable rules and regulations at most Turkish schools and decisions are made on a monthly basis. I have to ask too many questions to other teachers to learn about school rules and regulations.

The remarks of non-local NNESTs highlighted that the lack of clear guidelines from the schools regarding teachers' individual rights resulted in challenges for these non-local NNESTs. As outsiders attempting to integrate and comprehend the norms of a community, they faced difficulties. The necessity for a comprehensive guide to educate teachers about their rights emerged as a shared concern among the participants.

4.1.5 Perceived professional growth

The fifth theme generated from the non-local NNESTs' data were perceived professional development. The teachers believed that teaching in Türkiye – a transnational context - contributed to their growth as a teacher in terms of instructional delivery, digital literacy, intercultural sensitivity and classroom management.

4.1.5.1 Instructional delivery

Fourty four percent of the non-local NNESTs (44%) believed that the experience of teaching in Türkiye helped their professional development in a positive way.. For example, P5 said her school organized workshops for teachers regularly and she attended all of them. She believed that those workshops gave her new teaching ideas to implement in her classes. Another teacher (P22) referred to the importance of collaboration for professional growth and stated that her collaboration with Turkish English teachers contributed to her teaching. See below for P22's comments on her professional development:

I work with my Turkish colleague to plan lessons and develop materials. I have learned many things from her. For example, for a speaking activity I have to cover in students' coursebook she gives me a lot of ideas. As she is Turkish and knows the students better than I do, her suggestions usually work very well.

P3 also mentioned her enhanced teaching methods and noted that she occasionally observed the instructional sessions led by her Turkish counterparts. This exposure to various classroom approaches allowed her to draw inspiration from how Turkish educators taught English, motivating her to experiment with diverse teaching strategies when working with her students. The following comments illustrating the present subtheme came from P12:

Turkish students have different learning preferences. They are different from the students I had back in my country. At the beginning, I taught as I was used to but in time I began to use activities that were more engaging for them. Once for example the Turkish English teacher told me that students had a favorite word game for vocabulary practice. In my next lesson we played it with students and had a great time. Now I use this game frequently in different classes.

The time spent teaching in Türkiye was qualified as a valuable time by some of the teachers in the study. They reported that they were able to learn from each other and also had a chance to take part in professional development activities that would contribute to their teaching skills. Several other non-local NNESTs also recounted their strengths in the knowledge of grammar and language structures, and the ability to make English more understandable and more accessible to students. These strengths are also confirmed by the administrators. The administrator N5 & N1 pointed out some excellent qualities of non-local NNESTs as language teachers when dealing with students' learning difficulties. These findings support the finding of Moussu and Llurda (2008) about the strengths of NNESTs.

4.1.5.2 Digital literacy

Teachers' experience in Türkiye was also perceived to contribute to their digital literacies. Some of the teachers (40%) mentioned that the training and/or workshops they attended resulted in the growth of their digital literacies. Here is the comment of P20 about this improvement:

In Istanbul I can find many teacher training opportunities. Most of them are actually free. There is a website that I follow for training or workshop announcements about technology integration. I attended some of them and try to apply new technologies in my classes.

P1 said that the school where she worked used a learning management system that she was not familiar with. She learned how to use it with the support of a local

NNEST. In the beginning she found the program challenging to use but then learned it thoroughly. She added that “I found the program very useful. I am thinking of using it when I go back to my country.” Another teacher (P7) talked about an automated writing evaluation program that she was supposed to use at her school. The teacher said that before working at her current school in Türkiye, she did not know that such a tool existed. When the school required its use by students and teachers, she learned how to use it. She indicated how she benefited from such knowledge by saying:

At school we use an automated writing evaluation tool called Write & Improve. Students submit their written work first to this program and get initial feedback. The program shows their spelling, punctuation and grammar mistakes and offers alternative words. We got a short training on how to use it for writing instruction. Now we use it with all classes.

P13 also mentioned that she collaborated with other English teachers to create digital materials such as slide presentations, online games or quizzes. She said her in-class technology use was limited to the use of whiteboard back in her country but in Türkiye, she learned how to use technology for materials development purposes. She concluded her comment by adding that she would go back to her country “as a better teacher” and apply the skills she developed in her own country.

The teachers’ comments showed that their experience in Turkish EFL context contributed to their digital literacy skills through the trainings they received at school. They believed that teaching experiences shaped by digital tools was a plus for their professional growth.

4.1.5.3 Intercultural awareness

Another observed advancement took place in the intercultural awareness of non-local NNESTs, with a percentage of 32%. They believed that their experience in Türkiye

significantly added to their comprehension and respect for cultural differences through improving their intercultural awareness. Regarding the connections between students and teachers, P1 remarked, “Working in Türkiye made me realize once more that student-teacher relationship varies in different cultures.” Similarly, P11 stated that she found Turkish students very different from the students back in her country by saying:

It took some time to get to know Turkish students and get used to their behaviors in the classroom. During the earlier weeks of school, they kept asking me so many questions- actually most of them were private questions such as my age, marital status or my reasons to come to Türkiye. I felt very uncomfortable about it at the beginning. But then I found out that they asked similar questions to their Turkish teachers as well. It is something normal for them.

P3 also brought up the fact that upon her initial arrival in Türkiye, she frequently drew comparisons between Turkish students and those she had taught in her home country. However, over time, she shared that she embraced these distinctions and refrained from making comparisons. Additionally, educators highlighted variations they observed concerning parental involvement within schools. They noted that certain parents in Türkiye tend to involve themselves in teachers' responsibilities and consider it customary to provide input on instructional methods. To illustrate this point P18 gives the following example:

Once I gave students coloring homework and asked students to color the picture of a monkey pink. One parent texted me through the school's communication app and said that the monkey could not be pink and her child didn't want to do the homework because of this. Such a thing happened to me for the first time in my life.

A similar comment was made by P22:

Parents comfortably share their opinions on the way we teach, the materials we create or the amount of homework. Once I gave a 4-page long weekend homework to my students. I got many objections from parents saying that their children could not complete it in two days, etc. Back in my country,

parents do not interfere with our decisions, but here I see that there is a different culture for parent involvement. They sometimes act as decision-makers because they are given the opportunity to do so by the administrators.

P4 also expressed that her school expected her to justify some of her pedagogical decisions to parents, which she found awkwardly different. Thus, the comparison of teaching experiences in various contexts made instructors aware of the importance of culture in school settings, which may result in varying practices and parental attitudes. As P20 stated:

Where I come from children are not provided and motivated towards comfort. It is no good for them. This is not only financial wise. I recognize that with Turks in general nobody chooses to change things and do not feel the responsibility. I can see that in student behaviour. Parents expect too much from school. I mostly find myself fearing about parents' reactions when I push a student to fulfill basic responsibilities in the classroom.

These results align with the findings of Chao (2016) who pointed out that how lack of awareness of interculturality, lack of ELF-aware materials for intercultural teaching (Bayyurt and Sifakis, 2015), and inadequate intercultural training in teacher education programs lead many NNESTs not to take into consideration the diverse uses of English across the Globe. NNESTs even overlook the importance of developing students' awareness of their own culture and other cultures, which is a useful ability in intercultural communication. Furthermore, external pressures from schools, parents, entrance exams, and societal norms emerged as significant factors influencing NNESTs' perspectives on English language and ELT methodologies.

4.1.5.4 Classroom management

Another area of professional improvement was perceived to be teachers' classroom management skills (20%). Their comments revealed that teachers had some classroom management problems at the beginning of the term but throughout the

term, there was an improvement in their classroom management skills. One of the non-local NNESTs (P12) made the following comment:

When I first started teaching in Türkiye, I had serious classroom management issues. I felt that students were somehow prejudiced against me. But as we got to know each other well, we developed a very positive relationship and the amount of discipline problems decreased significantly. Now I am more confident about classroom management.

On the other hand, P1 believed that:

My lack of Turkish is one of the reasons for classroom management problems I experience at the beginning of the term. As I could not understand what students are saying in Turkish, I could not react to students' behavior effectively. As I learned more and more Turkish, I could understand the reasons for problems and react appropriately. I believe that managing a language classroom is a challenge that I have to overcome.

Similarly, P14 stated that classroom management was one of her concerns at the beginning of her teaching experience in Türkiye. Back in her country, she felt competent in terms of her management skills but teaching in another culture was different. She did not know the class dynamics, general behaviors of Turkish students or the attitudes of other teachers and administrators towards classroom management issues. This uncertainty at the beginning of the term worried her a lot but as she observed other Turkish English teachers' classes, she learned about how to cope with Turkish students during their class sessions. P14.says:

I observed that teachers and students here in Türkiye develop very close relationships. They hug each other, know about each other's families and even share their phone numbers. This was not the case back in my country. But here I see that it is this close relationship that creates a very positive learning environment free from many discipline problems.

In summary, the outcomes demonstrated that non-local NNESTs from other different parts of the World held a positive view of their time spent in Türkiye. They conveyed that their positive experience in schools enriched their professional development by

enhancing their teaching techniques, digital proficiency, and classroom management skills.. Despite acknowledging the demanding nature of teaching in Türkiye, these distinctive instructional encounters led to notable improvements in the teaching skills of non-local NNESTs.

4.1.6 Personal growth

While talking about their experience of being an English teacher in Türkiye, non-local NNESTs also referred to its contribution to their personal growth. They believed that being a non-local NNEST in Türkiye improved their self-confidence, helped them become a more empathetic person and increased their appreciation of their own culture.

4.1.6.1 Increase in self-confidence

Teachers felt that teaching abroad helped them gain self-confidence (28%). They faced many challenges since their arrival in Türkiye and had to overcome them. In this sense, P5 commented that:

All the challenges I experienced during the recruitment process and my teaching in Türkiye have made me a stronger person since I realized that I could handle vagueness and inconsistency in almost all processes of working. In my home country, everything is pre-planned and there is no room for surprise.

Similarly, P1 said that she had to deal with a lot of problems that she could never predict before coming to Türkiye. She continued with the following comment:

“When I look back, I can see how much I have achieved. I survived in a country where I was a complete stranger. I think my experience here made me wiser and stronger.” P20 made the following comment:

Coming to Türkiye to teach was going out of my comfort zone. It took a few years More Expert guidance- carefully planned orientation (admin roles) for me to decide to teach in Türkiye. I had many questions in my mind. Would I be a successful teacher? Would I live a comfortable life with my salary? Would I make friends? Today I can say that I did everything myself. I never thought I could do this much. I feel ready for anything that comes my way.

As can be seen in their comments, for some of the foreign teachers interviewed, increased self-confidence was a gain and teaching in a completely different context had brought them the feeling of achievement and therefore appreciation of their success (e.g. Aneja, 2016; Küçükali, 2017).

4.1.6.2 Becoming more empathetic

As a result of their transnational experience 56% of the non-local NNESTs indicated that this experience increased their understanding of other cultures and tolerance towards people. Hence, they stated that they became more more empathetic and open-minded. P11 said:

In Türkiye, I had the opportunity of seeing and experiencing different ways of living other than my own country. Before coming here, I held some prejudiced and stereotypical opinions about Turkish people but in time I realized that Turkish people are very friendly and hospitable.

The following comment of the P16 illustrates a similar viewpoint:

When I am back in my country, I won't be the same person. I now see things differently. I have learned that there is always another way of living. I have become less judgmental about people.

P19 added, "I discovered that I had many common points with Turkish people," while P12 was saying, "being immersed in another culture broadened my horizons and I became a more understanding person towards other cultures and people."

For non-local NNESTs, the opportunity to engage with Turkish culture represented more than just a new experience; it was a transformative experience that

contributed profoundly to their personal and professional development.

Professionally, navigating the intricacies of a foreign educational system refined their adaptability and resourcefulness. It required them to synthesize their prior teaching practices with the cultural context of Türkiye, increasing their level of pedagogical flexibility. Hence, as can be seen in the quotations of these non-local NNESTs, these teachers' cross-cultural exposure not only broadened their pedagogical abilities but also fortified their ability to help diverse learners.

4.1.6.3 Appreciating their own culture

The responses of the 32% of the non-local NNESTs highlighted a perceived personal development linked to a heightened appreciation of their own cultures. To elaborate further, these educators articulated that their experiences of residing abroad, where they were exposed to and engaged with cultures distinct from their own, resulted in a profound deepening of their understanding of their own cultural backgrounds. To illustrate this point, P14 made the following point:

Once students asked me about Thanksgiving, I explained how and what we celebrate. I showed some photos of mine from that day. It was so interesting to talk about something that belonged to my culture. I somehow felt proud of my culture.

Similarly, P17 said that before she lived in Türkiye, she thought some things were unique to her experience in her own country. However, the Turkish experience enabled her to see the cultural issues on a broader perspective. P17 says:

When you are teaching in a new country, you become more understanding towards the host culture as well as your own culture. You expect others to respect your cultural differences and realize that you should do the same.

In addition to fostering greater cultural sensitivity, teaching in Türkiye increased the non-local NNESTs appreciation of their own cultural background. They indicated

that their experiences in Türkiye led them to treasure what they had learned, lived, and celebrated in their own culture, especially when prompted to share it in their teaching experience abroad.

To summarize, the findings in relation to the first research question about the experience of non-local NNESTs in Türkiye indicated that the foreign teachers experienced both challenges and advantages of teaching abroad. Their challenges consisted of problems experienced in recruitment process (i.e. getting a legal work permit, the job interviews, unclear employment contracts and selection bias), unequal treatment between NESTs and local/non-local NNESTs (i.e. unequal parental attitude, unequal salary), their incompetence in Turkish and unclear school regulations. On the other hand, they appreciated their experience in Türkiye because of its contribution to their own professional growth (i.e. in terms of instructional delivery, digital literacy, intercultural sensitivity and classroom management skills) and personal growth such as increased self-confidence, empathy level and awareness of their own culture.

4.2 Expectations of the stakeholders

Aligning with the study's objectives, the second question centered around the collective expectations held by non-local NNESTs, local NNESTs, and school administrators within their respective teaching environments. Understanding these expectations from various stakeholders shed light on the dynamics and interactions that shape the educational landscape. The second research question was about the common and different expectations of non-local NNESTs, local NNESTs, and administrators from each other in the work environment. The analysis of the data on

the expectations of these target groups bore the following categories and themes, documented in Table 8.

Table 8. Expectations of the Stakeholders

Categories			Frequency	%
Common expectations	Professional contribution	Intercultural awareness	Non-local NNESTs (15)	4.1
			Local NNESTs (16)	4.4
			School administrators (6)	1.6
		Collaboration	Non-local NNESTs (16)	4.4
			Local NNESTs (10)	2.7
			School administrators (5)	1.4
		Training	Non-local NNESTs (18)	5
			Local NNESTs (8)	2.2
			School administrators (2)	0.5
	School achievement	Student achievement	Non-local NNESTs (10)	2.7
			Local NNESTs (18)	5
			School administrators (7)	1.9
		School reputation	Non-local NNESTs (8)	2.2
			Local NNESTs (17)	4.7
			School administrators (7)	1.9
Communication	Information transfer	Non-local NNESTs (20)	5.5	
		Local NNESTs (8)	2.2	
		School administrators (6)	1.6	
	Turkish language proficiency	Non-local NNESTs (25)	6.9	
		Local NNESTs (25)	6.9	
Different Expectations	Fair treatment	Hiring	Non-local NNESTs (25)	6.9
		Salary	Non-local NNESTs s (20)	5.5
	Change in attitudes	Attitudes towards accent	Non-local NNESTs (12)	3.3
			Attitudes towards nationality	Non-local NNESTs (15)
		Attitudes towards friendship	Non-local NNESTs (13)	3.6
	Adaptation to the school culture	-	Local NNESTs (19)	5.3

Note: Frequencies represent the number of respondents who gave a particular response.

As shown in Table 8, the examination of data gathered from each participant group unveiled a spectrum of shared and distinct expectations held by each party. These expectations have been categorized into two overarching themes: 'professional contribution' and 'school achievement,' representing the shared expectations, and

'equitable treatment' and 'attitudinal shifts,' signifying the distinct expectations. The following sections provide a detailed analysis of each thematic dimension.

4.2.1 Professional contribution

The first theme emerging as a common expectation of all participants was “professional contribution”. Three subthemes emerged out of “professional contribution” as follows: Intercultural awareness, collaboration and training.

4.2.1.1 Intercultural awareness

A significant percentage of non-local NNESTs (60%), local NNESTs (64%), and administrators (86%) expressed "intercultural awareness" as one of their expectations regarding the interactions among these groups. In this respect, one of the local NNESTs (LP3) made the following comment:

I am happy to make friends of different cultures. I wouldn't have predicted it but I learned a lot from my foreign colleague's point of view. When we discuss a problem about our classroom for example, she looks at it from a different perspective. I relate this to her cultural background. Such an experience is important for my development not as a teacher only but also as a world citizen.

Another local NNEST (LP16) said that having foreign teachers at schools was a cultural enrichment both for teachers and students. She said:

I was prejudiced against the culture of the foreign teacher I worked with at my school and thus at the beginning I kept my distance. But as the time passed and we knew each other well, my attitudes totally changed for the positive. I think the foreign teacher's contribution to my teaching is irreplaceable.

Another local NNESTs (LP20) stated that the presence of teachers of different nationalities was “richness” at the school context. She believed that such a cultural variety increased students' intercultural awareness. She gave the following example:

At the beginning of the term, when the foreign teacher began to teach, some of the students and parents were unfortunately negative about her. I even heard some comments such as we don't want teachers from that country- I don't want to mention the name of the country here. But as they got to know her, their behaviors improved. I think having a foreign teacher increases students' intercultural tolerance. As a local teacher, this experience showed me that I should also include activities to help students achieve intercultural sensitivity.

Similar expectations in terms of cultural awareness were also observed in administrators' comments. A1, for instance, said that "Last term we organized a culture week in our school and asked foreign teachers to introduce their own cultures. This attracted a lot of attention especially from the students." A1 also mentioned his expectation of foreign teachers' contribution to students' understanding and tolerance towards cultural differences. In this respect, A1 makes the following comment:

This year we have employed two teachers from different nationalities. One was European and one was from the Middle East. Despite some initial different attitudes of students towards these teachers, in time both teachers were welcomed by all students. The relationship the teachers developed with our students positively impacted students' attitudes towards different cultures. This is why we preferred non-Turkish teachers.

Non-local NNESTs' comments also reflected their expectations from the other groups in relation to the development of their own intercultural understanding. For instance, P8 said:

When I first arrived in Türkiye everything was foreign to me. Especially at school I didn't know what was culturally appropriate. I wish the administration had organized an orientation program for us. I had many questions in my mind but I had to figure them out myself.

A similar comment came from P12:

The first few months were really difficult for me. So many things were new to me. I didn't know the students. I really needed the support of Turkish teachers I collaborated with but they were not always available. I wish they could inform me more about Turkish teaching context.

P2 referred to the culture week organized by the administration at her school and said that it was very useful to enhance students' intercultural understanding. She also stated that the organization was an opportunity to express herself and her culture. She anticipated that the school administration would organize such events on a more frequent basis to promote students' acceptance of diverse cultures. Furthermore, she mentioned feeling "better understood and more self-assured" after this experience, which had a positive impact on her teaching.

Local NNESTs state that having non-local NNESTs is an asset to have at schools as colleagues, regardless of their being native or non-native, as they have diverse educational and linguistic backgrounds and international teaching experiences. They expect these teachers to talk about their previous experiences in different countries with different profiles of students in their classes.

Yes, us and them are both accepted as Non-native teachers but they are different. They act more freely. We cannot teach abroad like them. I wish I could but it is very expensive to go abroad. I am not sure if I can find a job (I can experience it). (LP3)

As a result of the comments made by participants from all three groups, it was clear that the presence of foreign teachers was a real benefit in terms of intercultural awareness at schools, and they all agreed that there should be a greater emphasis on the benefits of this, both by the administration and the two groups of teachers – i.e. local and non-local NNESTs – themselves.

4.2.1.2 Collaboration

The second subtheme that was generated from the data in relation to expectations of local/non-local NNESTs and administrators was *collaboration*. Each party expected collaboration from each other so that their professional contribution might increase.

Non-local NNESTs (64%) usually focused on their collaboration with Turkish teachers at their institutions and believed that their collaboration contributed them professionally. One of the non-local NNESTs (P21) gave the following example to support her view that collaboration was needed to enhance non-local NNESTs' professional contribution in a context other than their own context: "With the help of a Turkish English teacher, I could solve the discipline problems in my classes. She often came to my class and talked to the students. I liked her way of calming the students." Another non-local NNEST (P15) said that "My Turkish colleague showed me how I should prepare students for a listening task. She shared her pre-listening techniques that she found useful for her own students. They worked well for my students as well." P4 also found the collaboration with local NNESTs valuable as those teachers knew the students well. She said that until she became familiar with students and the school environment, she frequently asked the opinion of her colleague on the lesson plans she developed. With his suggestions, she could improve her classroom teaching. P1 also believed that collaboration with local NNESTs would contribute to foreign teachers' academic development. She said, "She took me to each class and introduced me to students. She stayed in the class for the first ten minutes. I felt much more confident in teaching then." This finding is confirmed in Yim and Hwang's (2019) study where they emphasize the crucial role of more experienced local NNESTs in helping the newcomer non-local NNESTs to "engage in legitimate peripheral participation" in the teaching community in the Korean context (p.2).

Some non-local NNESTs indicated that they could not receive support from local teachers and expressed their willingness for more collaboration. For example, P22 stated the following:

I wish I could collaborate with Turkish teachers more. I really struggled in my classes as I was not familiar with the way students were used to learning. Some of my plans failed in the classroom.

In a similar vein, P20 made the following comment:

I often hear local NNESTs talking about their lessons with each other. They look at students' work together or focus on an individual student. I am not invited to those talks. I believe what they are talking about is also relevant to me as we are all teaching the same classes.

Some of the local NNESTs (40%) also found collaboration with non-local NNESTs fruitful for their own professional development. For instance, LP3 said "sharing a class with a foreign English teacher and creating lesson plans together helped me gain a different perspective on teaching. I believe we learned from each other."

Similarly, LP14 responded as follows: "I benefited from our collaboration with the foreign English teacher, especially in the lesson planning process. She had many different ideas that I had not implemented before." LP2's comment focused on another perspective. She stated that working with a non-local NNEST offered her the opportunity to use English more in an actual setting, and that this practice helped her language use. This finding is similar to the studies focusing on how an ELF-aware approach enhances teachers and learners use of English without any connection to nativespeakerism ideologies (see Bayyurt, 2017; Bayyurt and Sifakis, 2015, 2017).

The following comment also illustrates a similar expectation of a local NNEST (LP12): "So far I have worked with teachers from almost ten different countries. I found each very self-disciplined and open to sharing. I learned a lot of new things from them. I especially admired their eagerness to develop professionally."

The need for collaboration was also mentioned by one of the administrators (A3) as follows:

In the first weeks of the classes, students may have biases towards non-native foreign teachers especially if they had had a native teacher in the previous year. Not young learners but older students may consider non-native foreign teachers as a replacement for native teachers. Some foreign teachers may take the reactions of parents and students personally. We expect them to be patient for the first two weeks.

As shown in the comment above, the administrators (71%) expected the non-native foreign teachers to be more resilient for potential emotional problems they might encounter especially in the beginning. Another administrator (A4) stated that they were ready for help:

We were there for foreign teachers when they needed our support, especially at the beginning of the term when students were getting used to having them in their classes. We told students how they would benefit from various cultures.

Thus, according to the administrators, the non-local NNESTs should be more tolerant so that they would be able to overcome any difficulty they may experience.

Parents meetings were one of the events where the teachers had the chance to collaborate with each other. P17 stated that:

I surely understand that attendance to parents' meetings is a part of my job. And I don't expect to be treated differently. However, I can't speak Turkish and I'll be alone with the parents. Yet, they were unsure if I am supposed to attend or not because the head department was not certain either. I asked my co-workers how I can talk to the parents who don't know English? Shall I use Google translate all the time? And how can I make sure what I want to say is being translated correctly? I came up with the idea that volunteer students from high school can help which was rejected immediately. Thanks to some of the English teachers who are kind enough to help me during these meetings I can handle this issue.

Clearly, there was a shared expectation among all parties for increased collaboration to enhance their professional contributions. According to the non-local NNESTs, this collaboration should extend beyond just English teachers and include educators from various subject areas."

4.2.1.3 Continuous professional development

Among all three groups' participations about professional contribution, the third subtheme was training – i.e. continuous professional development. During the interviews, participants from each group commented about their needs and accordingly expectations related to in-service training that they thought would contribute to their professional development.

Based on the participants' comments, it is possible to infer that the common concern was lack of emphasis on professional development – i.e. in-service teacher training – offered for teachers in schools. The two groups of teachers had different expectations from the professional development and in-service teacher training programs. For non-local NNESTs (72%), the problem was the language of training and their low level of proficiency in Turkish. One of the teachers touched upon this issue as (P12):

In-service training at my school was mostly conducted in Turkish. There could be more training opportunities that we could benefit from.

In addition to the limited number of professional development activities, she complained that the trainings were delivered in Turkish, which made the trainings incomprehensible for her and the other non-local NNESTs who did not speak any Turkish. For this reason, another teacher (P5) indicated that in-service teacher training activities should be useful for the teachers. Hence, the planners of such training should take into account the fact that one size fits all policy is not appropriate among a diverse group of teachers like themselves. This teacher (P5) highlighted this point by saying: “

We would like to get Turkish courses, rather than repetitive, non-interactive trainings.

P5 believed that these in-service training sessions should focus on the needs of the teachers. For non-local NNESTs, Turkish language courses would be more suited the needs of the non-local NNESTs.

Non-local NNESTs also stated that administrators should organize more needs- assessment based trainings for foreign teachers. They suggested that practical content and reflective knowledge, as well as language awareness, classroom management, teaching skills resources, and materials for teaching and professional development for novice teachers should be provided.

Local NNESTs (32%), on the other hand, underlined that trainings should focus on classroom management skills that they thought foreign teachers lacked or had problems. One of the teachers (LP3) explained it in the following sentences:

Based on my observation and experience, I can tell that the most common problem experienced by nonnative foreign teachers is classroom management. Some training focusing on the classroom atmosphere in Turkish classes could be useful for them.

She believed that Turkish EFL context required a specific set of teaching skills just like any other English language teaching context. Thus, this could be of the topics that they should deal with in their classes.

According to the administrators (29%), the content of the trainings to be provided should be the use of technology. A7 stated:

We expect non-local NNESTs just like our local NNESTs to keep updated in technology use. They can self-learn or attend some workshops which are commonly available in Istanbul.

As can be inferred from the comment above, the administrators expected foreign teachers to have good online – teaching skills, which became essential for teaching especially during and after the Covid-19 pandemic.

To summarize, the insights provided by the three participant groups collectively underscored their consensus on the importance of training for non-local NNESTs, albeit with varying content preferences across groups. These findings emphasize the potential value of incorporating in-service training initiatives, such as courses on "Turkish as a foreign language" or workshops focusing on "educational technology," into the teaching environments to further enrich the professional development of non-local NNESTs.

4.2.2 School achievement

The second theme emerging as a common expectation of all groups was school achievement. Two subthemes were emerged from the data analysis in relation to the theme of "school achievement": Student achievement and school reputation.

4.2.2.1 Student achievement

During the interviews, the comments of the participants revealed that the presence of foreign teachers was an important factor in student achievement, which brought further expectations related to increasing the achievement level. All school administrators in the current study, for example, believed that foreign teachers should use a rich content that would improve students' oral skills since it was the most important reason behind hiring foreign teachers. One of the administrators (A5) interviewed for the purposes of this study says:

We hire foreign teachers to help our students develop communication skills in English. This is our school's claim actually- preparing students for the globalized world.

In this respect, it can be confirmed that, as globalization in its basic sense is related to the interconnected and interdependent world, it may not be wrong to argue that it also has an indirect sense for improving multilateral communication skills.

Non-local NNESTs (40%) shared the school administrators' opinions about the reason why foreign teachers were hired. One of the teachers (P18) confirmed this point by saying:

Our lack of Turkish contributes to students' English development. They push themselves to speak English with us and this is important for their fluency...

This shows that the non-local NNESTs are aware of the fact that their teaching does not serve the purposes of "teaching English" as a school subject only; it also helps their students to improve their IC skills and speaking skills, as in most cases they use only English to communicate with their non-local NNESTs. In this respect, the non-local NNESTs want to be appreciated by the administration for the contributions they make as non-local NNESTs, in which they make students "use" the language rather than "talk about" it. Like the conventional wisdom that "practice makes things better", using language brings fluency indispensably.

Similarly, local NNESTs (72%) believed that working with foreign teachers was a great contribution to the improvement of students' productive skills. LP12 states her appreciation and awareness of the contributions that the non-local NNESTs make in their schools by saying:

Students insist on speaking Turkish in our classes and we mostly focus on the grammar issues as required by the school. Having a foreign teacher supports students' speaking and listening skills and enhances their cultural understanding.

Local NNESTs do not anticipate non-local NNESTs to possess an exhaustive understanding of the target culture. However, in addition to a reasonable level of

familiarity with the target culture, they hope that foreign teachers will demonstrate a genuine enthusiasm for delving into Turkish culture. This willingness to explore both cultures enables them to make comparisons and connect more empathetically with their students.

Furthermore, local NNESTs recognized the benefit that non-local NNESTs enjoy by being proficient in two or more languages. This proficiency implies the potential to utilize these languages during the English teaching process. Local NNESTs underscored that an English teacher with multiple language systems at their disposal could foster language comparison and stimulate students' enthusiasm for English learning. The idea of using multiple languages and English as a resource in an ELF context, where English is not the participants first language and they share no common language but English, is presented in Jenkins's 2015 article, where she introduces the term English as a Multilingua Franca (EMF). Jenkins mentions English as the language of choice in multilingual interactions where the participants of the conversation have multiple languages at their disposal. Since this is a classroom context and does not directly link to what Jenkins (2015) emphasizes, I will leave its discussion to a further study. However, it is worth mentioning that non-local NNEST's contributions to teaching English in the Turkish context are in the ELF context and should be further explored in this sense.

Non-local NNESTs being role models as non-native multilingual teachers led them to emphasize that teachers should refrain from presenting themselves as mere dictionaries with the phrase "check the dictionary; I am not a dictionary."

They know another language, and this is an advantage. Some of them know even more than two languages. Students find it very interesting to hear African equivalents of English words. I have seen students even take notes. (LP20)

In summary, the participants from all groups agreed on the contribution of non-local NNESTs to student achievement, but their perspectives on this shared expectation differed from each other's in that administrators expected the foreign teachers to contribute to the students' productive skills and local NNESTs expected them to contribute to the students' cultural understanding with a more improved knowledge of Turkish culture for increased empathy.

4.2.2.2 School reputation

Under the theme of school achievement, the comments of the participants revealed their common expectations related to school reputation. It was inferred during the interviews that school reputation resulting from its success in high level of language abilities was important for all participants (100% of administrators, 68% of the local NNESTs and 32% of the non-local NNESTs) and foreign teachers were crucial in protecting this reputation. For example, one of the local NNESTs (LP10) referred to this and said: "Foreign teachers play a great role in improving students' fluency. Parents want to see their children speak English." Similarly, P5 stated: "When parents see that their children start to speak English throughout the term, they come and thank us for our contribution. This situation strengthens the appreciation of the administration towards us." A5 also mentioned the importance of foreign teachers in the following words:

When parents first come to our school in the process of choosing a school for their children, the first question they ask is whether we hire foreign teachers. They ask a lot of questions about them and most of the time make their decisions accordingly.

As shown in the comments, the role of foreign teachers in school reputation was all agreed by the participants. They expected foreign teachers to enrich the classroom

environment and their lesson content with the target language culture as much as possible. School achievement and reputation are closely in line with collaboration.

4.2.3 Communication

The third and last common theme emerged in answers of all participants was communication. Two subthemes were generated under the theme of communication: Information transfer and Turkish proficiency.

4.2.3.1 Information transfer

When comments of the non-local NNESTs, Turkish English teachers and school administrators were analyzed to see whether any current themes could be generated, it was observed that each party expected to be more informed by each other (86% of administrators, 32% of the local NNESTs and 80% of the non-local NNESTs). For example, one of the non-local NNESTs (P2) said that she was not informed well about the procedures at the school where she worked. In her own words, she added that “I learned about them through trial and error.” She believed that this was the responsibility of the school administration, which reflected her expectation from administrators for information transfer. P4 also complained about lack of communication with the administration of her school and pointed out that they were not informed about school issues. She gave the following example:

I heard from students that there would be a school trip to a museum the following day and my lesson had to be canceled. I would expect to hear it from the head teacher, not students.

P18 stated a similar concern and said that she would expect to be more in touch with the school administration so that she would keep informed. Some of the nonnative foreign teachers also expressed their expectation related to some official paperwork

that a foreigner should fulfill such as contract renewals and notification of institutions about their working status. As one of the teachers (P3) stated, “Administrators mostly inform too late and you may lose your work permit and health insurance.” Thus, teachers suggested that termination of contracts could be arranged in a way that would not have negative consequences for both parties and continued: “At least the dates of the work permit can be taken into consideration, or conditions of the summer payments should be made clear at the beginning of the hiring process”. In addition to hiring and working processes, the foreign teachers also underlined the incognizance of administrators about foreign teachers’ legal rights. P5 explained it in the following sentences:

Administrators and management are not knowledgeable themselves, let alone being informative. They should be fully aware of the law and what they can expect from their foreign staff. For example, they can not ask us to teach more than 30 hours/week. They do not know anything about our holidays either, we can not get an answer for our questions.

As shown in the comment, for non-local NNESTs, it was very difficult for them to learn about their legal rights and the school administrator should be the responsible person to answer their questions. Therefore, they expected the administrators to be more knowledgeable about non-local NNESTs’ recruitment procedures and processes.

However, from the perspective of school administrators, foreign teachers should take an active role in following their own official obligations. A5 stated that, “We are very busy during the semester. It would be nice if foreign teachers could come and visit us often and share the progress of the process. In this way, we would be more in control of their experience.”

So, the comments given by the two groups showed that school administrators and non-local NNESTs pointed each other for the responsibility of being

knowledgeable about the legal working processes although their expectation is common.

4.2.3.2 Turkish proficiency

Under the theme of communication, the proficiency in Turkish was the second subtheme that reflected the expectations of all the informant groups. During the interviews, the participants commented that they expected non-local NNESTs to increase their competence in Turkish to be able to communicate with all the parties at school. Some non-local NNESTs also voiced their expectations to know about the official documentation before concerning official documentation that foreign workers typically need to complete, including contract renewals and the requirement to inform institutions about their employment status. For example, one of the local NNESTs (LP21) stated:

They [non-local NNESTs, my explanation] should put more effort into learning Turkish: Language is a barrier between parents and non-local NNESTs. And it is us who has to make the misunderstandings clear.

They wanted non-local NNESTs to improve their Turkish and overcome their communication challenges on their own so that they could communicate more clearly and effectively with both parents and administrators.

Numerous local NNESTs emphasized that the limited grasp of basic Turkish and unfamiliarity with Turkish school culture among non-local NNESTs led to miscommunication in the classroom, subsequently resulting in classroom management challenges. This, in turn, resulted in a loss of motivation for non-local NNESTs to make themselves understood and led to their preference for the easier option of seeking assistance from local NNESTs. Similarly, in Juhász's study (2011), it was observed that while the non-local NNESTs' lack of knowledge regarding

students' native language (L1) might have a positive impact on learners' speaking skills development, their inability to communicate and comprehend students in their L1, particularly with young learners and those at lower proficiency levels, posed challenges. In the context of the current study, it was also mentioned that non-local NNESTs' lack of familiarity with students' educational backgrounds and the broader educational tradition in Türkiye hindered their ability to perceive and comprehend the actual difficulties faced by Turkish students and the needs of their parents. These perspective differences in teaching may cause prejudices on the part of the local NNESTs, administrators, or parents towards the non-local NNESTs and result in the idea that the non-local NNESTs are very flexible in a negative sense, or do not pay enough attention to the needs of the students. Mismatches in teaching styles due to unfamiliarity with the Turkish school culture have been highlighted in Ekmekci and Inal's study (1994). It demonstrated that, as opposed to local NNESTs, tend to teach as a transfer of knowledge from the teacher to the students, non-local NNESTs aimed at initiating students' knowledge construction and generally refrained from transferring the information unless a particular question was posed by the students.

Similarly, all administrators explained their concerns and accordingly expectations about non-local NNESTs' level of proficiency in Turkish. One of the administrators, i.e. A2 said:

I know very little English, we find it very difficult to communicate and misunderstand each other. Since they live in Türkiye, we expect them to improve their Turkish in time.

As a result, they believed that non-local NNESTs' Turkish ability was critical to avoiding misunderstandings between the parties. A4 added another reason for this expectation and said: "We want them to learn some Turkish. It also improves classroom management and improves relationships with parents." The improvement

of non-local NNESTs' language skills in Turkish was reported to be also important for foreign teacher's classroom practices as well as their interaction with parents.

All non-local NNESTs themselves had the same expectation with other groups of participants. As mentioned in their comments about trainings earlier, the non-local NNESTs expected trainings on Turkish language and they thought that Turkish courses would be more useful in addressing the perceived needs of the major stakeholders to be successful in their teaching.

4.2.4 Fair treatment

In addition to common expectations emerging in the participants' answers, fair treatment emerged as a new theme. Two sub themes were generated under the theme of fair treatment: Hiring and salary, each describing the expectations of non-local NNESTs.

4.2.4.1 Hiring process

The analysis of the participants' answers about their expectations during the interviews revealed that all non-local NNESTs had concerns about the recruitment processes. Thus, non-local NNESTs had expectations for the improvement of those processes. The most important problem they experienced related to being hired as teachers was the favoritism for native teachers, which could lead to a feeling of inferiority among non-local NNESTs. As indicated by P21, "When I was recruited, they openly said that they used to bring native teachers, but because of the pandemic, they were working with non-natives. This is discouraging."

High teacher turnover rate is one of the issues mentioned by teachers. Many non-local NNESTs find the high teacher-turnover rate very discouraging. As P11 mentioned:

The high teacher turnover will tell u everything you need to know in a work environment. No good education can be taught if the teacher changes every 3 months. Teacher retention is everything. Happy teacher, happy students. Unfortunately in Türkiye schools have a very high teacher turnover rate.

P7 questioned the native-speaker favoritism during the hiring process in her quote:

Why is it that Turkish education system think they are almighty and don't want to accept teachers who have 10 years experience plus a Diploma from the UK just because they are non-natives? They need that degree even if its economics, science whatever - something totally unrelated with teaching but the ones who studied childcare plus years of experience cant move up in the education system.

The favoritism by the schools for hiring native teachers is reciprocated by discouragement on the non-local NNESTs' side. Therefore, they expected an appreciation for their teaching skills to be hired as a teacher, rather than being hired just because of being an available choice. They were confident enough about their teaching skills and demanded a fair treatment.

In line with the results of this study the non-local NNESTs may encounter discriminatory hiring practices in seeking employment in countries other than their home country (Amin 2000; Clark & Paran 2007; Mahboob et al. 2004). The administrators in this study acknowledged that the native/non-native designation or physical appearance was not a huge deciding factor in hiring in most ESL programs. What mattered most was the teacher's professionalism and language proficiency. As long as non-local NNESTs had strong qualifications, they would eventually find jobs. Several participants suggested that non-local NNESTs interested in transnational teaching jobs should be prepared to deal with possible discriminatory

hiring practices. A good strategy for non-local NNESTs is to do a small investigation about the market for English language teaching contexts and find the teaching contexts that would suit them the best.

4.2.4.2 Salary

The participants' answers about their expectations also showed that the non-local NNESTs (80%) had concerns about their salaries. As discussed in the earlier section on hiring processes of non-local NNESTs, schools preferred to employ NESTs if they had to choose between a NEST and a non-local NNEST. This created disparities in salary rates between NESTs and NNESTs. Consequently, non-local NNESTs anticipated equal salary rates and believed that nativeness should not influence the determination of salary amounts. For example, P3 stated:

Our salaries are defined according to the native speakers' salaries. Salary ... they will try to pay you the minimum ... regardless of qualifications and experience. I am a qualified teacher with 18 years of experience and I have a CELTA ... for the best part of the year I was paid just little, less than average. Native teachers are paid much above than this.

As indicated in the commentary, the payment procedures for non-local NNESTs revolved around their native or non-native status, a situation that was perceived as distressing and degrading. The following non-local NNESTs (P17 and P18) illustrate this point clearly:

I know my worth. However, some employers' attitudes I face during job search make me feel unsuccessful. I had to keep reminding myself that I am an experienced teacher with great educational background. (P17)

As non-local NNESTs we should be able to demand three times higher than the local NNESTs' salary. This is stated in law. What happens is the natives are paid much more below the table. If it is three times for us, it is five times for them which is way more than unfair, it is a deal breaker! (P8)

As evident from the remarks of the participants above, regrettably, non-local NNESTs are confronted with workplace salary discrimination. Even though during the interviews the administrators mentioned that the salary gap was justified when a native teacher possessed a teaching certificate, this issue remains a point of contention for non-local NNESTs..

4.2.5 Change in attitudes

The second theme emerging as a different expectation was change in attitudes. Three subthemes were generated under the theme: Attitudes towards *accent*, attitudes towards *nationality* and attitudes towards *friendship*, each describing the expectations of non-native foreign teacher participants.

4.2.5.1 Attitudes towards accent

Under the theme of change in attitudes as a different expectation by the participants, the first subtheme was the expectation of non-local NNESTs (48%) for the change of attitudes towards their accent. According to non-local NNESTs, they were judged by their accents, which in turn had a huge impact on the recruitment processes and teaching experience. For example, P16 stated,

Most administrators imply or sometimes directly state that we can not be hired because of our accent as our accent does not sound authentic enough.

Similarly, participant P23 emphasized that school administrators should prioritize their teaching qualifications and skills over their skin color.

Us, Africans aren't preferred in many Turkish schools because of our appearance and accent but they should focus on our ability to boost their L2 oral skills development, and showing them a variety of accents.”

The non-local NNESTs noted that administrators seemed to place undue importance on their accent, whereas the primary focus should be on their teaching abilities .For

this reason, non-local NNESTs expected the other groups to change their attitudes towards the accent and pay more attention to the teaching quality.

4.2.5.2 Attitudes towards nationality

Under the theme of change in attitudes as a different expectation by the participants, the second subtheme was the expectation of non-local NNESTs (60%) for the change of attitudes towards their nationality. In the course of the interviews, non-local NNESTs highlighted that they perceived bias in the attitudes of the local NESTs and school administrators, where their nationality seemed to influence the evaluations made about them. Regarding this, one of the teachers (P24) stated,

Sometimes I feel that coming from another EFL country is a disadvantage. However, I am qualified enough to teach English effectively.

Likewise, during the interviews non-local NNESTs preferred administrators to refer them by the continents they come from. In other words, they did not prefer to be referred as real native / native / native-like but as Asian teachers of English, Iranian teachers of English, etc. As reported in most of the findings, nativeness issue was also emergent in the attitudes of other groups towards non-local NNESTs' nationality, for which non-local NNESTs expected that administrators and local NNESTs should eliminate the prejudices based on nationality.

4.2.5.3 Attitudes towards friendship

Under the theme of change in attitudes as a different expectation by the participants, the third subtheme was the expectation of non-local NNESTs (52%) for the change of attitudes towards friendship issues. Non-local NNESTs voiced their social concerns during the interviews and explained their expectations for the change of

other groups' attitudes. Most of the non-local NNESTs stated that local NNESTs preferred to keep their relationship with non-local NNESTs at a professional level, but they "would like to be close friends with locals" as stated by P7. She continued that "They do not call me for out of school activities such as birthday parties etc. I would like to go there".

On the contrary, non-local NNESTs stated that they would be more motivated if they were engaged in friendly relationships with their colleagues. P8 explained it in the following sentences:

After all we are foreigners here, sometimes we may feel lonely. Your co-workers are not just your co-workers if you are an expat in Türkiye. Personally, I always feel more motivated the next day at work if I spend some time-off after school the previous school-day. But I feel they would not prefer to invite me each time since that means for them having to speak English in their leisure time like translating jokes or making detailed explanations.

The comments showed that they would like to have friendly relationship and expected to be together in social activities. However, language played as a factor to be invited for such occasions.

4.2.6 Adaptation to school culture

The third theme emerging as a different expectation of the participants was adaptation to school culture. Regarding this theme, local NNESTs voiced their expectations. Turkish teachers explained that country-specific experience (Türkiye in this case) and work discipline in terms of coming to the lesson with the right materials, punctuality of the non-local NNESTs more important than the nationality of the teacher. According to local NNESTs (76%), non-local NNESTs should be knowledgeable about the school culture in Türkiye. As an example for this, LP21 stated:

They do not follow up on homework and do not keep a regular notebook. We warn, they do not accept. Especially young age group parents reflect this situation to us. They find the foreign teacher's class messy. We are trying to explain it to the parent, but the parent is trying to make the foreign teacher Turkish.

For local NNESTs, problems related to work discipline of non-local NNESTs make it difficult to keep the pace and standardization among Turkish teachers and non-local NNESTs. For example, one of the teachers said (LP25), “The difference between classes is something we don't want. Sometimes they do not stick to the lesson plan, this creates problems in the exams.” Thus, they expect non-local NNESTs to act with work discipline and should be trained on education in Türkiye. These findings are parallel to Zhang & Zhan’s (2014) findings who demonstrated that the administrators, expected their non-local staff to have some knowledge of the educational context, i.e., knowledge of the national educational system and the needs of students in the local educational context.

Local NNESTs believe that all teachers regardless of being local or non-local should be capable and motivated to teach any subject in the curriculum. However, many local NNESTs state that every year before the schools start they go through the same problem with non-local NNESTs as these teachers do not want to teach grammar or main course lessons. As LP14 state:

I can understand native teachers are expected to teach skills lessons at schools but this distinction cannot be made with non-local NNESTs as these teachers have personal experience of learning grammar themselves. Local NNESTs expect that non-local NNESTs should be more flexible and collaborative in terms of their preferences.

Most local NNESTs in the study observed their non-local colleagues to have problems producing spontaneous and idiomatic language. They think non-local NNESTs should make an effort to increase their language proficiency. According to local NNESTs, non-local NNESTs desired to be treated like native speakers at

schools in terms of benefits, holidays, and salaries. Local NNESTs believed that non-local NNESTs had to make an effort to get such benefits, and they should see that they already had benefits. One of the local NNESTs (LP12) highlights this point by saying:

In Türkiye all non-local NNESTs are passed as native speakers on official documents and also they are referred to as “native teachers”. But in general they cannot use the language like a native teacher. We also have problems with daily language but we cannot have the opportunities they have. We are not travelling like them and our salaries are lower than their salaries.

In general, it can be said that this study investigated the work experiences and expectations of non-local non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) in the Turkish context. In this respect, this study provides valuable insights into the dynamics of ELT in multilingual and multicultural settings. The findings, based on the perspectives of non-local NNESTs, local NNESTs, and school administrators, illuminated several key issues regarding the second research question about expectations. All three participant groups expressed a mix of common and different expectations. There was general agreement on their expectations in relation to their professional contribution. This includes a commitment to improve intercultural understanding, collaboration among instructors, and the creation of training programs adapted to the requirements of non-local NNESTs. The participants also shared their views on the IC issues through increased information sharing and Turkish proficiency.

Furthermore, all three groups – i.e. local NNESTs, non-local NNESTs and school administrators – expressed a common interest in school success, recognizing the potential for non-local NNESTs to improve student outcomes and boost the school's reputation. However, their expectations showed variation to a great extent in certain domains. Non-local NNESTs had specific expectations in relation to hiring

processes, salary equity, and a change in attitudes toward their accents, nationality, and friendships. On the other hand, local NNESTs had expectations centered on non-local NNESTs' adaptation to the school culture.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The present study attempted to gain a comprehensive understanding of the educational experiences of non-local NNESTs' experiences teaching in Türkiye. Additionally, the expectations held by local NNESTs, non-local NNESTs and school administrators were also investigated in detail. To achieve this, the data were collected through semi-structured interviews and an in-depth analysis was carried out. With local NNESTs, non-local NNESTs and school administrators. This chapter presents the summary and the discussion of the findings in the study based on the research questions. It continues with the pedagogical implications and concludes with the limitations and recommendations for future research.

5.1 Experiences of the non-local NNESTs

The present study has two main focal points leading the way to the answers for the formulated research questions. The first research question addressed in the study is "How do non-local NNESTs perceive their transnational teaching experience in the Turkish EFL work environment?". The analysis of the data collected to find an answer to this research question showed that non-local NNESTs' experiences consisted of challenges and benefits. The discussion of results in each category are presented in the following sections.

5.1.1 Challenges of the non-local NNESTs

The challenges experienced by the non-local NNESTs were reported mainly as the challenges regarding the phases of the recruitment process such as preparing the

required documentation for work permit, job interview procedures, unclear contracts and selection bias steps of the recruitment. Other challenges were perceived as the unequal treatment between NESTs and non-local NNESTs, language barrier that created communication problems, challenges due to school regulations. Among these challenges in the bureaucratic procedures has been reported as one of the mostly reported challenges in the recruitment process which has become vital for non-local NNESTs to teach abroad and become non-local NNESTs in the global teaching contexts. This result has been paralleled by Metaj (2022), whose study revealed that non-local NNESTs express a great dissatisfaction towards the complexity of the host countries in most cases, and this affects them more negatively than the work load. The motive of the non-local NNESTs for transnational mobility could be two-fold, such as self-initiated reasons such as having the goal of teaching experience abroad, improving instructional teaching skills, earning more salary, and limited teaching options in their own country (Putri, 2020), or assigned or obligatory reasons such as political reasons as a result of which one must leave their home country. The teachers stated issues related to the recruitment process regarding getting a legal work permit, following difficult hiring steps including job interviews, vague employment contracts, and selection bias. One of the most frequently referred challenges was getting a legal work permit, and the non-local NNESTs mentioned that the process of obtaining legal work permits in Türkiye is so complicated that they just get fake promises and end up working illegally. Skliar (2014) defines the recruitment process for non-local NNESTs as "a complex multistep recruitment process," including a number of bureaucratic regulations (p. 439). The findings of the current study corroborate Skliar's (2014) findings, which revealed the complex and bureaucratic steps during recruitment. The lack of clear regulations and inconsistent rules for the

process shed light on the reasons behind the frequent reference to this theme during the interviews. It can be interpreted as a desire for the recruitment process to be as standard and transparent as possible.

The second most commonly cited challenge was unclear employment contracts, which can be perceived as related to the recruitment process. The participants of the present study made particular reference to their job descriptions to indicate the unclear terms of agreement in their contracts. The study also found that the non-local NNESTs experienced challenges related to selection bias while teaching in Türkiye. The challenge experienced due to the formulation of the questions during the job interviews is important. The lengthy and exhausting employment process is worsened by the question types chosen by the employers, which provides scope as to why the recruitment process is perceived negatively by the non-local NNESTs. For the selection bias, the teachers pointed out that their accent and sometimes gender posed some challenges. This is a worldwide issue that has also been pointed out by other researchers (e.g., Mahboob & Golden, 2013; Selvi, 2010). Teachers' reports of the high preference of white Caucasian teachers by the administrators without inquiring about other non-local NNESTs' pedagogical knowledge and teaching skills illustrate this point. Similarly, being qualified as a "NEST or non-local NNEST" was an important criterion during the recruitment process.

It was apparent that the employers preferred working with NESTs if and when they found the opportunity. However, this finding was not compatible with the results found in previous studies. In her study, Moussu (2006), for instance, revealed that non-local NNESTs were employed based on their teaching skills and intercultural awareness rather than being native. In line with prior research, this study

considered the hiring preferences of administrators when it comes to native and non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs). Studies by Atamtürk et al. (2018), Bayram et al. (2020), and Tatar (2019) have consistently shown that administrators prioritize teaching skills and educational backgrounds over nativeness when hiring English teachers. While official recruitment guidelines in Türkiye, as set by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE), do not explicitly favor native speakers, our findings suggest that a native-non-native dichotomy is still prevalent in the Turkish context. This bias towards nativeness often stems from administrators' wish to create a favorable impression of their schools or attract parents' attention towards their sensitivity towards student needs (and perhaps parents' needs) and gain their appreciation, reflecting the concept of 'native-speakerism.' As a matter of fact, this preference for NNESTs, even when they may be less competent than non-local NNESTs, is not unique to Türkiye but is an international phenomenon (Alenazi, 2014; Mahboob & Golden, 2013; Piller & Takahashi, 2006; Shojaei et al., 2021). Many institutions in Türkiye that advertise themselves as employing native-speaking teachers tend to prioritize being a NEST as a qualification over merit. These findings align with Amin's (2004) study on non-local NNESTs in Canada, which revealed their awareness of nativist discourses that set them apart from native English-speaking professionals. Atay (2008) also discovered that participants felt native teachers were perceived as having a greater advantage in teaching English. To promote fairness and equity in teacher recruitment, there is a pressing need for well-defined criteria that assess the skills and qualifications of effective teachers, thus mitigating the 'otherization' experienced by local NNESTs and non-local NNESTs (Shi, 2017), as also voiced by teachers in Yeşilçınar and Çakır's (2020) study.

The challenges experienced by the non-local NNESTs also included unequal treatment between NESTs and non-local NNESTs in terms of parental attitude and salary. These findings provided support for the studies showing the negative attitude of teachers, students, and school administrators towards non-local NNESTs in different contexts (e.g., Mahboob et al., 2004; Palfreyman, 2005) as well as in the Turkish EFL context (e.g., Öztürk & Atay, 2010). Teachers believed that the parents' attitudes were different for native and non-native teachers, and they were prejudiced about non-native teachers' qualifications as teachers. The study found that the system favors candidates from the United States and England, which has a negative impact on hiring teachers from other nations. According to Anderson (2010), parents prefer that their children learn foreign languages from instructors whose native language is English and who were brought up in Western culture. It is possible to state, especially in private school contexts, that parents are recognized to have the right to speak and might play a major role in educational decisions. In the same vein, Bayyurt (2018a) defines this as "the equal treatment of NESTs and NNESTs in the workplace by their employers, school administrators, other teachers, parents, and students" (p. 1), calling for a need to revise current treatments by different stakeholders, including parents. It is possible to state, especially in private school contexts, that parents are somewhat afforded an overrated role to play in major educational decisions. Therefore, parents are an important consideration when designing a solution to overcome the challenges experienced by non-local NNESTs.

In addition to the parental attitude, the findings showed a discrepancy between native and non-native teachers in terms of salary. This financial inequity between the groups has been documented for a long time and has been a commonly reported problem (e.g., Bense, 2016; Krüger-Potratz, 2013). Among those studies revealing

the financial concerns of non-local NNESTs, Krüger-Potratz (2013) found that non-local NNESTs got paid less compared to native teachers in Germany. Echoing the previous findings, the comments of the participants in the present study pointed to the same concern and underlined that unequal treatment in terms of payment between native and non-native teachers has been not only a challenge but also a disappointment for them.

The other group of problems addressed by the non-local NNESTs were communication problems and school regulations. Communication concerns of the non-local NNESTs were mainly due to their insufficient knowledge about the local education system as a whole and thus the necessity to ask too many questions to others to learn about school rules. Since most local branch teachers and administrators did not speak English (in some cases, even local NNESTs did not prefer to speak English outside their classroom), they developed coping strategies like using translation apps on their phones or starting Turkish classes. Challenges due to language barriers are a finding that corroborates prior research in this area. (Bense, 2016, Ospina & Medina, 2020). Both of these studies revealed that non-local NNESTs faced language barriers, which made them feel isolated due to the inadequate amount of communication in the workplace. Non-local NNESTs in Ospina & Medina's study also stated that although they try to communicate with gestures and expressions, this would not be suitable manners-wise for communicating with higher-ranking profiles such as administrators or coordinator teachers. Challenges due to unfamiliar school regulations, not being able to contact the right correspondent because of the presence of too many decision makers, the inexistence of stabilized rules and regulations for non-local NNESTs' that could guide their classroom management, their responsibilities on special days and

occasions, and clarifying the distinctions between MoNE curriculum and schools' private curriculum accompanied by different materials to use for each were among the challenges teachers had to face. Language barriers combined with a culturally unfamiliar work environment increased the level of challenges non-local NNESTs faced. Participants commented that since they found the educational system very different from what they were used to, including the classroom atmosphere and classroom materials, this seemed to be a challenge for teachers. These results have also been revealed in the studies of Halıcıoğlu (2015) and Joslin (2002), who point out the challenges faced by the non-local NNESTs due to unfamiliarity with the curriculum, its delivery, and the school's philosophy and emphasize that it is the teachers' responsibility to prepare themselves for the cultural realities of the host schools' work environment for their professional development and satisfaction. Halıcıoğlu (2015) asserts that teachers who don't receive cultural adaptation training and believe that instruction is the same everywhere will have trouble. Additionally, foreign instructors who work at Turkish schools find it challenging to strike a balance between their own educational philosophies and those of the Turkish educational system. Therefore, according to Hamdan (2014) and Burke (2017), teaching in another country as a foreign teacher necessitates altering viewpoints regarding student expectations, their engagement in courses, and their own teaching philosophies. Orientation may be effective in such a setting; however, several instructors stated in interviews that the orientation teaching supplied by schools is quite inadequate. McNulty and Carter (2017) found comparable results. They also claimed they never received an introduction to the language, ethos, or culture. Therefore, giving thorough orientation training to foreign-born instructors would greatly aid in facilitating both individual and organizational adaptation.

School regulation problems included administrative problems related to the legal processes and teachers' rights, which echo the results of the study conducted by Aydın et al. (2019). In their study, the researchers highlighted the administrators' inadequate skills in management, which mostly consisted of administrative work such as paperwork and meetings rather than deciding the program or long-term objectives. In a similar vein, Şahin and Gümüş (2016) report that school administrators prioritize administrative tasks including filing, written correspondence, and meetings while spending significantly less time on setting long-term goals and creating strategies. The results of this study are particularly consistent with the opinion of the non-local NNESTs, who believe that school administrators put off planning until the last minute.

Similarly, the lengthy process of getting an equivalency certificate was in line with studies conducted in other contexts. To illustrate, the difficulty in the bureaucracy was also reported in the Australian context by Collins and Reid (2012), who defined the process as costly and lengthy. Although the ultimate aim of such processes was planned for teachers themselves, the regulations with extra responsibilities were perceived as lowering their efficacy.

5.1.2 Advantages of non-local NNESTs

The study reported the advantages of the non-local NNESTs teaching in Türkiye, in addition to the problems they experienced. The non-local NNESTs stated that their experience in Türkiye provided both professional and personal growth. They further explained that their experience in a Turkish setting improved their instructional delivery and classroom management skills, their digital literacy, and their intercultural awareness.

Regarding instructional delivery and classroom management skills, the findings present various challenges for the non-local NNESTs in classroom management, mainly stemming from cultural differences, as reported previously (Putri, 2020; Ulla, 2019). However, the teachers were able to overcome those management problems with some specific strategies they followed and the know-how they gathered. Thus, they believed that their experience in the Turkish EFL context contributed to their management skills as well as their ability to find different ways to solve their management problems, all of which contribute to their professional development. Although language was perceived as a barrier in other studies as well (e.g., Collins & Reid, 2012), the participants commented that they used this barrier as a tool to be more alert about their Turkish colleagues' teaching practices. The non-local NNESTs referred to their improved teaching and underlined that they observed their Turkish colleagues' classes from time to time and had the chance of seeing different classroom implementations.

Another gain was expressed in terms of intercultural awareness, regarded as an essential component of language teaching (e.g., Byram, 1997, 2006; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Scollon & Scollon, 2001). In their experience, the non-local NNESTs, as outsiders, " were reportedly able to understand the image of their own culture and the importance of cultural differences. This enhanced awareness further contributed to their teaching abilities since it allowed empathy with their students, which could be listed as an advantage of transnational work experience (Ott & Iskhakova, 2019) that improved their social identities through negotiation of cultures (Vertovec, 2001). It can be stated that the participants had advantages in gaining skills of intercultural communication competency (Byram, 1997), including skills of interpreting and relating, or the "ability to interpret a document or event from another

culture, explain it, and relate it to documents from one's own" (p. 52), and skills of discovery and interaction, or the "ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes, and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and intercultural interaction" (p. 53). In other words, the inclusion of non-local NNESTs in educational systems is crucial. Given their diverse professional and personal backgrounds, non-local NNESTs contribute their numerous viewpoints to educational institutions; as a result, they help improve the educational experiences of schools. Teachers from other nations promote cross-cultural exchange and act as cultural ambassadors. Thus, educating kids to be "global citizens" involves helping them comprehend and appreciate various cultures, and this can be achieved with the help of non-local NNESTs.

Increased self-confidence was another advantage added by the non-local NNESTs to their intercultural sensitivity and empathy level, contradicting the findings of Kamhi-Stein et al. (2004), who reported that NESTs were more self-confident in speaking and teaching compared to non-local NNESTs. The result of the present study might stem from the participants' specific individual experiences. It is also possible to state that the participants in this study are non-local NNESTs. Thus, it is evident that their overall experiences with non-local NNESTs deserve special attention. Besides, comparing the two cultures, Turkish and their own, was reported to be a positive side of teaching abroad. The growth in empathy was reported in other studies as well. In an earlier study conducted with non-local NNESTs with different L1 backgrounds, Reves and Medgyes (1994) found a higher level of empathy among non-native teachers compared to native ones. They believed that the new teaching experience had a role in shaping their personalities towards the reception of cultural similarities and differences. The result provided support for suggestions for the

integration of IC into teacher education programs. For example, Sercu et al. (2005) suggested that pre-service and in-service education programs for preparing teachers include intercultural competence in light of the findings of his study showing that the majority of foreign language teachers view teaching about culture merely as a teacher-led information transmission activity. Bon (2022) also suggested that regular integration of IC assessment or cultural insertion into their teaching practices should be supported by multicultural content in textbooks. As found by Imsa-ard (2023), such practices will strengthen the relationships between the various components of IC and sensitivity. In addition, Atay et al. (2009) stated that teachers should incorporate culture into their instruction upon discovering that while EFL teachers in Türkiye are aware of the importance of culture in language learning, they do not necessarily incorporate it into their instruction. In addition to the need for the integration of sufficient knowledge of IC in the teacher education curriculum to avoid stereotyping (Bektaş-etinkaya & elik, 2013), it is important to build IC and ELF awareness (Kural & Bayyurt, 2016).

In a similar vein, Nugent and Catalano (2016) identified elements that can influence target language usage in the classroom in their 2016 study, including teacher and student ability levels as well as the setting. Another feature found was the students' native language talents, which allow for more understanding and awareness. According to Nugent and Catalano (2016), instructors can promote target language use by encouraging inquiry and in-depth debate within the context of IC learning objectives. Although many IC frameworks recommend topics for instructors to address, they do not include guidance on how to teach and apply IC. As an example, Chen and Le (2019) highlight the pedagogical abstraction of Byram's IC model and the need for more precise and in-depth guidance on how to put the

concept into practice. Nugent (2020) revealed from a review of the literature that many foreign language instructors lack a teaching style and are unprepared to teach culture when they initially enter the field. According to the findings of her nine-month investigation into teachers' professional development in teaching culture in the French language classroom, teachers must not only have a working knowledge of the IC framework but also effective methods for maximizing the use of the target language in the EFL classrooms.

5.2 Expectations of the stakeholders

The second research question in this study was “What are common and different expectations of non-local NNESTs, local NNESTs and administrators from each other in the work environment?” The data were collected through in-depth interviews. This part of the study delved into the expectations held by non-local NNESTs, local NNESTs, and school administrators, categorizing them into common and distinct themes. Universally shared themes that surfaced during interviews with all participants encompassed the professional contribution of non-local NNESTs, their impact on school achievement, and the significance of effective communication. Conversely, divergent expectations emerged regarding non-local NNESTs' anticipation of equitable treatment and shifts in attitudes towards them, contrasted with local NNESTs' desire for non-local NNESTs to adapt to the school culture. Considering that there is a close relationship between experiences and expectations revealed in previous studies (e.g., Yan, 2020), expectations deserve special attention for the improvement of experiences in a positive sense. The expectations concerning the professional contributions of non-local NNESTs were a central focus among the study's participants. Specifically, participants

highlighted the significance of cultural awareness that non-local NNESTs could bring to the educational environment. Both local NNESTs and administrators emphasized the potential for intercultural awareness that non-local NNESTs could instill in their students and within the school community. Simultaneously, non-local NNESTs themselves recognized the value of immersing themselves in a new culture and how this experience could enrich their understanding of their own culture. This shared theme, evident in the expectations of all participant groups, underscores the collective desire to maximize the benefits of intercultural teaching, a concept extensively discussed in the literature (e.g., Medgyes, 1996; Scollon & Scollon, 2001). Furthermore, the findings suggest that non-local NNESTs perceive teaching in a different cultural context as an opportunity for professional growth. This experience encourages a shift towards a more student-centered approach to teaching. In essence, these shared expectations reflect a mutual aspiration to harness the advantages of intercultural teaching, aligning with prior research in this area.

Additionally, beyond fostering intercultural awareness, there was a shared expectation among all parties for increased collaboration to enhance their professional experiences. Non-local NNESTs emphasized that this collaboration should extend beyond English teachers to include educators from other subjects. This finding appears to reflect the negative attitudes highlighted in this study and previous research (e.g., Moussu, 2006; Reves & Medgyes, 1994). It suggests that while all groups recognized the need for collaboration, there was a perceived gap in its actual implementation. This outcome could be linked to another expectation mentioned exclusively by non-local NNESTs, which pertained to changes in the attitudes of other groups toward their accents, nationalities, and interpersonal relationships.

Therefore, a thorough examination of the participants' expectations, both social and academic, is essential to foster effective collaboration among colleagues.

Regarding expectations related to school achievement, the participants specifically focused on student performance and school reputation. In their comments, all the groups expressed a unanimous agreement on the significant role of non-local NNESTs in shaping the school's reputation. They anticipated that non-local NNESTs would contribute to creating a diverse classroom environment and infusing their lessons with elements of the target language culture to the fullest extent possible. The concepts of school achievement and reputation appeared to be closely intertwined with the idea of collaboration. Nevertheless, non-local NNESTs frequently mentioned facing challenges and constraints imposed by school administrators regarding their freedom to choose content and incorporate multicultural elements. Determining which topics were deemed sensitive or off-limits in the classroom proved to be a complex task, as these guidelines varied from one school to another. On the other hand, from time to time, although they would like to add content from their local culture, they were not clear about to what extent they would be allowed to do it. These teachers ended up delivering cultural knowledge and social activities and practices of English-speaking countries and only introducing standard English to native speakers. The uncertainty expressed by the non-local NNESTs aligns with the results obtained in the studies by Chao (2016) and Atay et al. (2009), which also noted that non-local NNESTs often lacked the knowledge and confidence to effectively incorporate intercultural content into their teaching. Consequently, these teachers required additional support and guidance from administrators in this regard. Since all groups have similar concerns and a common target, school achievement in this case, as shown in their comments, it is

possible to state that all teachers complement each other when given an effective teaching atmosphere supported by a strong collaboration (Cheung, 2002; Mahboob, 2003; Moussu, 2002), underlining the role of administrators in organizing the collaboration in a way to improve teachers' efficacy.

The improvement of non-local NNESTs' language skills in Turkish was reported to be another important expectation, not only in solving communication problems among the parties but also in the non-local NNESTs' classroom practices as well as their interaction with parents. Language barriers were an issue in other studies as well (e.g., Bense, 2016; Collins & Reid, 2012). Sharing L1 with the students can make classroom practices and management more effective. L1 awareness does not mean being a native speaker of that language; rather, having some competence in that language would enable the non-local NNESTs to understand student behavior. Halicioglu (2015) argues that while language is a crucial tool for overcoming communication problems, learning a language also requires understanding how it is used and how it fits into a particular culture. Therefore, it is crucial for non-local NNESTs to be motivated to learn Turkish and for schools to support them in doing so by teaching them how to communicate with their pupils, coworkers, parents, administrators, and other people with whom they have social connections. As a result, Lee and Fradd (1998) believe that, in addition to being experts in their fields, effective instructors should be conversant in grammar to be aware of the experiences that students bring to class that are particular to their language and culture. Since sharing the same first language is a crucial advantage that non-native teachers might have (e.g., Skliar, 2014; Tatar & Yıldız, 2010), the efforts to improve Turkish proficiency of non-local NNESTs could be an effective solution to overcome both communication problems reported by the non-local

NNESTs and non-local NNESTs' adaptation to school culture reported by local NNESTs. As can be observed in the reported expectations of the non-local NNESTs for in-service training, implementing language courses could be a solution to this problem in addition to the need-assessment-based trainings requested by the participant groups.

As for the issues that do not have a shared basis among the participant groups, for the non-local NNESTs, the foremost expectations that fell under the theme of fair treatment were hiring and salary. They expect that non-local NNESTs only and limiting the process to the hiring of only the "Western-looking" discriminatory practices in hiring only the ones with blonde hair and blue eyes should stop, and the payment should be based on the teaching skills of the teacher rather than the L1 background. This finding was in alignment with those of the previous studies. In her study, Amin (2004) documented high confidence among non-local NNESTs regarding teaching skills and being effective teachers in Canada, although they were compared to the 'standard', namely nativeness. However, Atay's (2008) and Öztürk and Atay (2010) studies showed that non-native English teachers stated the necessity of native-like proficiency while teaching, which is similar to the present study in that the participants indicated their high self-confidence, which might be due to many years of experience in teaching. Such an experience was probably another reason to expect that they should be treated well by colleagues and parents. The non-local NNESTs stated that they wished to see a positive change in the attitude towards their accent and nationality, believing that they should be approached in their own rights, based on their personal values as teachers, rather than with a prejudice shaped by their country of origin.

5.3 Pedagogical implications

The findings from this study carry significant pedagogical implications for the improvement of language teaching practices in Türkiye. To begin with, there is a critical need for well-defined hiring regulations for non-local NNESTs, as the transition to a new school and country can be challenging for foreign teachers. These regulations should be consistent and long-term to provide a sense of security and promote productivity in the teaching environment. It is essential that these regulations are issued by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) to ensure their completeness and coherence. Since newly arrived non-local NNESTs may not have developed sufficient Turkish language skills, it is advisable to provide information related to regulations in English. This information should also be readily available on school websites, offering comprehensive and informative job descriptions for prospective foreign staff.

Moreover, it is imperative to establish a more professional and objective hiring process. This can be achieved by appointing a board of jury members responsible for the selection of non-local NNESTs. This board could further enhance the hiring process by creating teacher profiles tailored to specific school needs, thereby ensuring a better match between teachers and institutions

Secondly, non-local NNESTs required a more detailed and informative contract after being accepted to the school. At the very beginning, they should know what is expected of them, or else they might later face extra duties not written or specified in the contract.

In addition, the non-local NNESTs were in need of orientation, at least about the management of the school and the program. Specifically, the non-local NNESTs expected more comprehensive and helpful guidance at the beginning of the school in

order not to have a cultural shock. Such an orientation is also crucial for the expectations of the foreign teachers from the students and the program. Thus, the gap between their own teaching approach and the philosophy of education in the country may narrow. As Wu and Ang (2011) state, teachers will benefit from a comprehensive orientation for overcoming cultural differences and ensuring quick adaptation.

Similarly, for better adaptation, comprehensive and standard orientations should be organized for new teachers by the school administrations. These orientations might include adaptation to school culture and the legal procedures of the schools. During these orientations, the expectations of the parties should be clarified. In addition to the current issues that have a direct influence on teachers' lives, such as their financial positions and the school's management system, there could be more space for context-specific trainings from local universities, such as basic Turkish skills and classroom management. New teachers could be assigned mentors from an experienced local teacher group, who would be appreciated by receiving extra payment for their role.

The findings also suggest that teachers should be employed based on their teaching experience and qualifications rather than their native or non-native speaker status. Parents, students, and administrators should be convinced about the importance of teaching qualifications through meetings in which they are introduced to non-local NNESTs and sample classes to break down their prejudices and give them the opportunity to know each other.

Because of the language barrier highlighted by the instructors in this study, there is an urgent need to conduct Turkish lessons for non-local NNESTs who are

having communication difficulties. The arrangement of Turkish classrooms might begin before or after the professors begin teaching.

Language teachers can use Byram's (1997, 2020) IC model as a helpful reference for instructing and evaluating their students' linguistic and cultural learning processes. The model's abstract nature, however, could make its implementation in the classroom difficult. ELT occurs in a specific context, and teachers can modify their instruction based on both topic and circumstance. The way teachers structure courses incorporating culture into language classes depends on a number of variables, including educational institutions, curricula, and the usage and purpose of English in a specific society. a pedagogical strategy that can aid instructors in improving cross-cultural communication in their language classrooms. For both non-local and local staff, including teachers and administrators, it is necessary to develop in-service training models based on needs analyses. This will encourage a deeper level of knowledge, understanding, and skills to interact with a variety of colleagues and parents from various cultures, as well as increase flexibility and tolerance for ambiguity.

Additionally, the collaboration among the stakeholders gains prominence. As an administrative part of the regulations and school management, administrators occupy powerful positions (Palfreyman, 2005). They should be trained to be a bridge for collaboration between local NNESTs and non-local NNEST teachers. Collaboration with non-local NNESTs by giving them some administrative roles may also be a solution for their 'outsider' feeling. The collaboration should be extended to parents. The attitudes of parents found to be over-interfering in this study should be balanced through periodic meetings, which will also serve as a solution to the negative influence of parents' positions on the learning and teaching process.

The native/non-native dichotomy exists in Türkiye; however, defining teachers' capabilities and efficiencies over their national identities belongs to the overly simplistic view that correlates language and culture in national terms, for example, English and the UK or US (Baker, 2011). The only way to end this dichotomy, not only in our local context but also in the global context, would be to define "a good teacher" with a different set of teaching skills that are not inborn. Their professional target should not be to reach a native-like accent, and no employees should be expecting this from them. However, since English language teachers are expected to effectively act as cultural facilitators (Luk, 2012) to promote the learner's aim of becoming an intercultural speaker rather than a native speaker, their competence in intercultural teaching and personal capabilities to communicate with other stakeholders in the workplace should be recognized and appropriately developed.

5.4 Limitations of the study and recommendations for further research

Although the present study has the potential to contribute to the understanding of experiences and expectations about non-local NNESTs in Türkiye, it should be noted that it is not without limitations. First, the number of participants and cases in the study is limited. The present findings are derived from seven administrators and 25 participants in the other two groups, decreasing the generalizability of the results. With a larger group of participants, more detailed views from the institutions may be collected and presented to support the findings of the present study in further research, which will make the descriptions in the study more extensive. Since the study was conducted in only seven institutions. With the participation of more

schools, the results of the study reflect a more comprehensive perspective from the Turkish context.

Secondly, the present study utilized one data collection instrument, interviews, supported by the researchers' insights. Although it provided rich qualitative data, with the inclusion of some instruments, tapping quantitative data will enable the administration of mixed methods and provide more comprehensive analyses. Besides, a follow-up survey using a quantitative or mixed method could help determine whether or not the findings of this study are typical of non-native English teachers.

Another limitation is the profile of the participants. The non-local NNESTs that participated in the study had different educational backgrounds, different previous teaching experiences, and different cultural backgrounds. That is, they have different experiences and expectations. Further research might employ a comprehensive questionnaire about the background of the participants.

Overall results of the study underline the need for collaboration that would fulfill expectations. Thus, in addition to the recommendations for further research based on limitations of the study, it should be noted that there are some issues suggested to be addressed by future research:

Considering that non-local NNESTs are needed in Türkiye due to their EFL education and the capacity to make different contributions, there should be more studies focusing not only on challenges, but also on what they find positive and what are the positive outcomes that will ensure the sustainability of non-local NNESTs in this context. In future studies, forms and questionnaires related to the different issues that make non-local NNESTs 'outsider' feel can be prepared and standardization

studies can be carried out. What is needed to improve the sense of belonging should be investigated.

Future studies can be carried out to create a working/organization chart of a board that will be responsible for objectively choosing non-local NNESTs and design the way it operates.

There should be studies on developing training programs to improve attitudes towards non-local NNESTs, especially on how trainings and programs can be created to change the attitude and raise awareness of stakeholders such as students-parents-administrators.

For the improvement of collaboration, studies should be conducted on what kind of options are there for all stakeholders to get to know each other (e.g., introductory tea-parent meeting-short introductory videos) and how those options can be implemented. A Turkish course for foreign EFL teachers living in Türkiye can be designed and evaluated in future studies. In addition, studies can be conducted to examine the difference between the experience of those who know Turkish and those who do not.

5.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, this study delved into the experiences and expectations of non-local non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) in Türkiye, shedding light on the challenges they face and the common and differing expectations from various stakeholders, including school administrators and local NNESTs. The findings revealed that despite being qualified and dedicated professionals, non-local NNESTs often encounter issues related to recruitment, unequal treatment, language proficiency, and intercultural awareness.

The implications of this study are multifaceted. Firstly, there is a pressing need for clearer and consistent regulations in hiring non-local NNESTs to ensure a smoother adaptation process and foster a sense of security and productivity in the teaching environment. These regulations should be readily accessible in both Turkish and English, available on school websites, and accompanied by detailed job descriptions.

Secondly, the study highlights the importance of professional development, particularly in the form of in-service training programs, to address the specific needs of non-local NNESTs, such as language proficiency and cultural awareness. Collaboration among all stakeholders—non-local NNESTs, local NNESTs, and administrators—should be promoted to foster a more supportive and inclusive teaching environment.

Finally, this research underscores the necessity of shifting the focus in teacher recruitment from nativeness to teaching qualifications and skills. The native-non-native dichotomy remains prevalent in Türkiye, often resulting from administrators' preferences to satisfy parental expectations. A fairer and more comprehensive criterion for teacher recruitment is essential to eliminate this discrimination and promote equality in the workplace.

In closing, this study contributes to the ongoing discourse surrounding NNESTs in the field of English language teaching. It highlights the need for policy changes, professional development opportunities, and a broader perspective on teacher qualifications. As educators, policymakers, and researchers continue to work together, we can ensure that non-local NNESTs, local NNESTs, and students benefit from a more inclusive and equitable education system. Future research endeavors

should explore these areas further to advance our understanding and inform meaningful change in English language education in Türkiye.

APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR NON-LOCAL NNESTs

Demographic Information

- 1-Age:
- 2- Gender:
- 3- Nationality:
- 4-Mother tongue (s):
- 5-Education / Certificates:
- 6-Years of experience in teaching / Previous expatriate teaching experience (if any)
- 7- Years of experience teaching in Türkiye:

Interview Questions

- 1- Could you tell me about your previous work experience in different countries and reasons to choose Türkiye for teaching?
- 2- How did you find your current job? Tell me about the general recruitment phase you have been through.
- 3- During the first month of your teaching did you receive any orientation support from school?
- 4- What are your expectations from school administrators and other local colleagues?
- 5- Have you ever had any positive or negative comments about your nationality at school? (during the hiring process or later)
- 6- Do you find enough opportunities to collaborate with Turkish teachers of English for lesson planning/events?

- 7- If you had the chance to make any requests from the institution, what would you ask for? Why?
- 8- Would you continue to work here? Why/ Why not?
- 9- Have you experienced any difficulties in regard to teaching during your experiences in Türkiye? If yes, how were you able to overcome these difficulties through the process of your teaching?
- 10- Is it rewarding to teach in Türkiye? In what ways?
- 11- If you would receive a free in-service training in Türkiye what would you prefer it to be about?
- 12- What do you think about the benefits a non-native non-local teacher like you would bring to language education in Türkiye?
- 13- Do you think that your perspectives and thoughts on foreign language teaching have been impacted and influenced by your teaching experience in Türkiye? If yes, describe the changes, in what ways and to what extent your perspectives and thoughts on foreign language teaching have been changed. Were your perspectives changed positively or negatively?
- 14- Has your teaching experience (s) in Türkiye contributed to your professional development?
- 15- From your own experiences of teaching here what suggestions could you give to new non-native non-local teachers who may get the same opportunities to teach in Istanbul?

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR NON-NATIVE LOCAL TEACHERS

A) Demographic information

Age _____

Gender _____

Education _____

Teaching experience _____

How long have you been teaching at this school? _____

How many foreign English teachers have you worked with so far? _____

B) Interview questions

1- Could you share your experiences regarding working with non-local NNESTs?

2- Do you have a particular nationality that you prefer while working? (Turkish, American, Iranian, Russian...etc.)

3- Do you cooperate during the school day, how?

4- Do you think they contribute to the education process, and if so, in what way?

5- Can you talk about the positive and negative aspects of working together?

6- What are your expectations from these teachers?

7- Are they influential on your teaching? If yes, how?

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

A) Demographic Information

Age _____

Gender _____

Education _____

Teaching experience (if any) _____

Years of experience in administration _____

The number of foreign and Turkish teachers of English at your school: _____

How many non-local NNESTs have you worked with so far? (Average)

B) Interview questions

- 1- What are your criteria when hiring foreign teachers ? Is there a specific nationality you prefer to work with? (Russian, Iranian, Canadian...etc.)
- 2- Do you encounter any problems in the recruitment process? If your answer is yes, can you tell us what kind of problems you have?
- 3- Do you have any special orientation program for these teachers after their recruitment?
- 4- Do you have any problems while working with non-local NNESTs ? If yes, how do you solve these problems?
- 5- What do you think are the strengths and weaknesses of non-local NNESTs ?
- 6- What kind of benefits do you think they bring to your school?
- 7- Do you think non-local NNESTs should receive additional training in any subject, if your answer is yes, what do you think this training should be on?
- 8- What are your main expectations from these teachers?

APPENDIX D

ETHICAL APPROVAL

T.C.
BOĞAZIÇI ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL VE BEŞERİ BİLİMLER YÜKSEK LİSANS VE DOKTORA TEZLERİ ETİK İNCELEME
KOMİSYONU
TOPLANTI TUTANAĞI

Toplantı Sayısı : 13
Toplantı Tarihi : 11.02.2021
Toplantı Saati : 12:30
Toplantı Yeri : Zoom Sanal Toplantı
Bulunanlar : Prof. Ebru Kaya, Prof. Dr. Fatma Nevra Seggie, Doç. Dr. Mehmet Yigit Gürdal, Dr. Öğr. Üyesi
Yasemin Sohtorik İlkmen
Bulunmayanlar :

Ayşe Eser Tüzel
Yabancı Diller Eğitimi

Sayın Araştırmacı,

"İngilizce olmayan Yabancı İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Türkiye'deki deneyimleri: Paydaşların Görüşleri" başlıklı projeniz ile ilgili olarak yaptığımız SBB-EAK 2021/4 sayılı başvuru komisyonumuz tarafından 11 Şubat 2021 tarihli toplantıda incelenmiş ve uygun bulunmuştur.

Bu karar tüm üyelerin toplantıya çevrimiçi olarak katılıma ve oybirliği ile alınmıştır. COVID-19 önlemleri kapsamında kurul üyelerinden ıslak imza alınmadığı için bu onam mektubu üye ve raportör olarak Yasemin Sohtorik İlkmen tarafından bütün üyeler adına e-imzalanmıştır.

Saygılarımızla, bilgilerinizi rica ederiz.

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Yasemin
SOHTORİK İLKMEN
ÜYE

e-İmzalıdır
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Yasemin Sohtorik
İlkmen
Öğretim Üyesi
Raportör

SOBETİK 13 11.02.2021

APPENDIX E

Table 3. Non-Local NNESTs Profiles

Participant code	BA	Graduate	Certificate	Years of teaching experience	Years of teaching experience in TR	Previous countries taught	Nationality	Mother tongue
P1	English Literature	English Literature	NONE	10	3	Home country	Pakistan	English, Urdu
P2	Economics	Educational Planning	120 h TEFL Certificate	8	4	Home country	Nigerian	English, Yoruba
P3	Business administration	Business management	IB teacher Diploma	5	2	Vietnam	Algerian	Arabic, French
P4	Tourism management	NONE	Cambridge CELTA	13	9	Romania	Ukrainian	Russian
P5	Tourism Administration	NONE	120h TEFL Certificate	9	5	China	Persian	Persian
P6	Education	-NONE	120 h TESOL Certificate	7	2	Home country	Algerian	Arabic, French
P7	Kindergarden teacher	-NONE	120 h TEFL Certificate	5	2	Indonesia	Tanzanian	Swahili
P8	English literature	Translation Studies	NONE	10	3	Malaysia	Iranian	Persian
P9	English language and literature	-NONE	120 h Tesol Certificate	6	3	Home country	Syrian	Arabic
P10	Kindergarden teacher	-NONE	NONE	5	2	China	Kenyan	Swahili
P11	Social science education	-NONE	English certificate	4	1	Home country	Afghan	Persian
P12	English Lang and literature	-NONE	NONE	7	4	Ghana	Indian	English, Indian
P13	History Teacher	-NONE	60 h TEFL certificate	6	3	Morocco	Nigerian	English

Table 3. Non-Local NNESTs Profiles (cont'd)

Participant code	BA	Graduate	Certificate	Years of teaching experience	Years of teaching experience in TR	Previous countries taught	Nationality	Mother tongue
P14	English pedagogy	Psychopedagogy	NONE	11	4	Maldives	Spanish	Spanish, French
P15	English literature	-NONE	120 h TEFL Certificate	8	5	Tunisia	Ugandan	Swahili
P16	Dietary Management	Hospitality Management	60 h TEFL Certificate	9	6	Home country	Iranian	Persian
P17	International Relations and Diplomacy	Applied Linguistics	NONE	4	1	Costa Rica	Filipino	Spanish, Tagalog
P18	Health&Physical Education	NONE	60 h TEFL Certificate	6	4	Home country	Ukrainian	Russian, Dutch
P19	Sociology	NONE	TEFL Certificate	9	6	Home country	Filipino	Spanish, Tagalog
P20	Hospitality Management	NONE	180 h TEFL	8	4	Home country	Cameroonian	English, French
P21	Communication Sciences	NONE	CELTA Certificate	9	5	Russia	Tunisian	Malgasassy(Madagascar) Spanish
P22	International Studies	NONE	CELTA Certificate	5	2	Home country	Zimbabwean	English, Chewa, Koisan
P23	Primary school teacher	NONE	120 h TEFL Certificate	10	5	Home country	Syrian	Arabic
P24	Media Studies	NONE	60h TEFL Certificate	6	2	Home country	Pakistani	English, Urdu
P25	Business office administration	NONE	60h TEFL Certificate	7	4	Home country	Algerian	Arabic

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