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Editorial:
Productivity and Internationalization Approaches in Higher Education

The Covid-19 health crisis has had a remarkable impact on higher education. In the post-Covid era, many scholars and institutions have been reviewing the impact of this health crisis on higher education. Although some scholars use the statement of “going back” to the usual conduct of pre-covid, the crisis left a remarkable impact on the structural and functional characteristics of these institutions. Internationalization and digitalization are two topics highlighted in the post-Covid discussions. Early reports on the impact of Covid-19 on internationalization and digitalization suggest that higher education organizations will experience various pressures to adopt new modes of operation and delivery of services. In any case, higher education is likely to remain a vibrant field in the effort to find pathways to a changing future.

In this issue of the Journal, studies investigating different topics related to governance and policy issues in higher education are presented. The first study, titled “A Bibliometric Analysis of Foreign Academics in Turkish Research Universities” by Belenkuyu, investigated the reverse mobility of scholars, from core countries to peripheral countries. The author conducted a bibliometric analysis of international academics' demographic information, academic qualifications, and contributions to their institutions in Turkish research universities. Belenkuyu stated that the scholars are employed with contracts that built different expectations from these scholars and urged reconsidering the legal base of employment of international scholars in Turkish research universities. The second study on this issue, titled “The Global Mobility of Palestinian Arab Students: Current Trends and Flows” by Haj-Yehia and Arar focused on the Palestinian Arab Minority in Israel (PAMI) students’ motivation to study abroad. Adopting the pull and push factor terminology, the authors documented the factors motivating the students to move from Israel to specific countries to study abroad. The authors suggest that several economic, political, geographical, and cultural factors push PAMI students to seek degrees abroad. The third study, which is entitled “The Course of Managerialism in Turkish Higher Education: An Analysis of Quality Assurance Policies and Practices” by Uysal and Peşteli investigated managerial policies and practices within the university system in Türkiye in the wake of growing neoliberal policies in Turkish higher education system. The authors revealed that there is steady growth in managerial policies and practices over the last two decades, which also reflects the implication of centralized policies designed by the top regulatory body of higher education in Türkiye, the Council of Higher Education (CoHE). The fourth study, titled “An Analysis of Bylaws of Christian School Corporations in Japan: The Impact of Christianity on Organizational Governance” by Ito investigates the effects of Christianity-related (CR) words in bylaws on governance structures in Christian school corporations (CSCs) that established higher education institutions in Japan. The author claimed that CR words in CSCs’ bylaws are powerful clues to identify the characteristics of their governance structures. The final study of this issue titled, “The Impact of the Erasmus Program and the Institutional Administration of Internationalization in Türkiye” by Bulut-Sahin, Uyar, and Bugay, analysed the perception of international office professionals’ (IPs) on the impact of the Erasmus Program and institutional structures for internationalization at their own institutions. The results revealed that the program contributes to the institutionalization of internationalization in their universities. However, the participants stated hesitation about the capacity of their institutions to manage internationalization.

We expect that the articles on this issue will prove beneficial to international scholars, practitioners, and policymakers in higher education around the world.

Yasar Kondakci
Editor

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A Bibliometric Analysis of Foreign Academics in Turkish Research Universities

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Abstract

Academic mobility has begun to be discussed more frequently in higher education literature with more internationalized higher education. Since the flow of talent generally occurs from the periphery to the core, it is seen that studies mostly deal with either foreign researchers in developed countries or researchers returning to their developing home countries. However, this study aims to examine the mobility of foreign academics in a reverse direction. Specific to research universities in Türkiye, foreign academics' demographic information, academic qualifications, and contributions to their universities were examined with a bibliometric analysis. The findings were also discussed within the legal framework determined by Turkish authorities regarding the employment of foreign academics. The findings show that (i) the proportion of foreign academics with and without a Ph.D. in research universities is close to each other, (ii) researchers are concentrated in the arts and humanities research, (iii) more than half of the academics have completed their doctoral studies in high-income economies, (iv) less than half of the researchers graduated from universities ranked in the top 500 list of THE World University Rankings, and (v) there is a variation among universities in their contributions to research, citation performance, and graduate counselling. In this respect, the results show that the majority of researchers at research universities are not directly employed with a research orientation, and the legal framework contains caveats that need to be explained for research universities.

Keywords: Academic mobility, Foreign academics, Research university, Human capital, Bibliometric analysis

Introduction

The concept of academic mobility is one of the topics that have been frequently discussed in the literature as higher education became more international. Despite great variation in the definitions, classifications and measurement of academic mobility (Teichler, 2015), the term, in its general form, can be defined as the movement of academics along and across national borders to conduct academic research, teaching, and for professional development (Finkelstein, Walker & Chen, 2013; Kim, 2009; Lee & Kuzhabekova, 2018). Despite the neutral connotation of the concept, academic mobility means two opposites in different contexts. While its positive contributions are mentioned in developed countries as brain gain, denoting deliberate efforts to attract science professionals to a country for academic, research or industrial purposes (Jałowiecki, & Gorzelak, 2004), it is expressed as one of the critical threats, especially for developing countries, that qualified brains go abroad for pull and push factors.

Although much of the existing literature on academic mobility has focused on foreign academics in developed countries (Foote, Li, Monk & Theobald, 2008; Huang, 2018; Kim, Twombly, Wolf-Wendel & Belin, 2020; Lawson, Salter, Hughes & Kitson, 2019; Lin, Pearce & Wang, 2009; Webber & Yang, 2014; Yuret, 2018), only a few studies (Burford, Uerpairojkit, Eppolite, & Vachananda, 2019; Lee & Kuzhabekova, 2018; Seggie & Çalıkoğlu, 2021) investigated the issue of foreign academics in a reverse direction.

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In Türkiye, as a developing country, academic mobility has begun to be addressed in the context of brain drain since the late 1960s (Elveren & Toksöz, 2018), and the subject and research group of the relevant literature has been Turkish scientists who have been educated abroad (Altaş, Sağırlı & Giray, 2006; Güngör & Tansel, 2008; Pazarcık, 2010). However, with a focus on internationalization of higher education in Türkiye, more emphasis is placed upon the international aspect of higher education such as foreign students, foreign researchers and collaboration with international entities. The efforts to make Turkish higher education more international can be found in special government programs to support brain gain and brain circulation.

However, the literature on foreign academics in Türkiye is quite limited with a few studies focusing on the views of foreign academics towards Turkish higher education (Arslan, 2020), foreign staff gaining in Turkish higher education in terms of brain drain (Öz & Laloğlu, 2018), legal issues in the employment of foreign academics (Gök, 2022; Tunçağıl Gümüşlü, 2019), foreign academics' adaptation (İplik & Yalçın, 2017), and contribution to science (Küçükaslan, Yerlikaya & Yiğit, 2018). In addition, recruiting foreign academics as a human capital strategy have been ignored especially in Turkish research universities. Recognizing the paucity of literature in Turkish higher education that addresses the topic, this study aims to examine foreign academics in Turkish research universities which have a priority in internationalization policy implementation of governments by asking the following research questions:

- What are the demographic characteristics of foreign academics in Turkish research universities?
- What are the academic qualifications of foreign academics in Turkish research universities?
- What are the contributions of foreign academics to Turkish research universities?

Research University Framework

Standing at the top of a higher education system, research universities are the gate of international science and scholarship (Altbach, 2009; 2013) by being regarded as a necessity in obtaining a superior position in global competition (Shin, 2009). As the most likely candidates for the top of the university rankings and for earning the world-class title, these institutions represent the capacity and strength of innovation (Kehm, 2014). Being aware of the considerable academic prestige acquired by the number of elite universities of a country, governments have begun goal-oriented initiatives (Agasisti, Yang, Song & Tran, 2021). This trend has also found its way to Türkiye, where there are concerns about the recent quantitative developments in the higher education system turning into the quality and the low position of Turkish universities in global competition. One of the policy reactions in Turkish higher education is the research university project started in 2017.

Salmi (2009) states that world-class universities can be characterized by three complementary factors: (a) a collection of talented faculty and students, (b) abundant resources for rich learning and research environment, and (c) proper governance enabling universities to decide how to manage without hindered by bureaucracy. In this study, we deal with the excellent faculty part of the human capital dimension of excellence in the world-class research university. The literature shows five human capital strategies to transform a university into a world-class, research-oriented university. The strategies include:

> (1) establishing alliances with world-class universities in the West, (2) encouraging the return migration of native-born scientists/academics to boost local research output, (3) actively recruiting foreign academics to join local universities, (4) increasing the diversity of their student body by encouraging international students to enroll, and (5) expanding their research capacity by recruiting more research-focused graduate students in the sciences and engineering (Paul & Long, 2016, pp.130-131).

Here, we focus on the third strategy in this research. Studies on the recruitment of foreign academics as a strategy and foreign academics' contribution to the scientific development of the host country can be found in the literature (Chellaraj, Maskus & Mattoo, 2008; Rovito, Kaushik & Aggarwal, 2021; Van Holm, Wu & Welch, 2019; Webber & Yang, 2014). The common point of these studies is that foreign academics made important contributions to the host countries' research, technology, and innovation, and they became indispensable for science in the host countries. However, the topic of foreign academics remains in its infancy in the context of Turkish higher education. For this reason, revealing the identity and contributions of foreign academics in Turkish research universities in terms of human capital strategies is vital in Türkiye, where the building of research universities is an important topic of discussion.

Legal Arrangements Regarding the Employment of Foreign Academics in Türkiye

In order to better position the current situation on the subject, it is necessary to present the legal framework for the employment of foreign academics in Türkiye. Three legal documents on the employment of foreign academics draw the boundaries of the legal framework. The first of these legal texts, the Higher Education Law, stipulated the work permit of the relevant ministry for the employment of foreign academics and stated that it could not exceed 2% of the academic staff at the university. In another legal document, the Higher Education Personnel Law, the authority to determine the remuneration for foreign academicians is given to the Turkish Council of Higher Education (hereafter 'CoHE'). The detailed legal text that determines foreign academics' employment procedures and principles is the regulation issued in 2020 by CoHE.

If we summarize this arrangement;

- Salary offers to be made for foreign academics with whom a contract will be signed for the first time shall not exceed 1.5 times the gross amount of the monthly and all other payments paid to the equivalent Turkish academics with doctorate degree holders working in the same institutions, and their equivalents for non-doctoral academic staff.
- In renewed contracts, the offered fee may be increased proportionally only if the service of the said academic is needed and if he/she has a feature that is not found in Turkish counterpart.
- In the special conditions required for employment in different academic titles, some requirements are stipulated in different fields such as graduation, work experience and certificate ownership, publication and project (Given in Appendix).

Methodology

Design

This study is designed as bibliometric research to provide a descriptive analysis of foreign academics in research universities of Türkiye. As a technique in bibliometric analysis, performance analysis was conducted to analyse the academic performance of foreign academics in Turkish research universities and their contribution to their universities in 2020. As the hallmark of bibliometric studies and descriptive in nature (Donthu, Kumar, Mukherjee, Pandey, & Lim, 2021), performance analysis "aims to evaluate different groups of scientific actors, such as countries, universities and authors, by measuring the productivity and impact of their scientific activity" (Gaviria-Marin, Merigo, & Popa, 2018, p.1658).

The Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis in this research is foreign academics in research universities of Türkiye in 2020. In 2020, there were 11 universities, designated as research universities in 2017 by CoHE. In December 2021, CoHE designated 12 more universities as research universities. However, we only included research universities in 2020 to the analysis to investigate the performance of foreign academics who work in research universities in 2020. Table 1 details the unit of analysis in terms of total number of academics, total number of foreign academics, and the ratio of foreign academics in research universities.

Table 1. Number of academics in research universities

University	# of academics	# of foreign academics	Ratio of foreign academics
Ankara University	3685	54	1.5
Boğaziçi University	994	78	7.8
Erciyes University	2248	39	1.7
Gazi University	3267	3	0.1
Gebze Technical University	709	8	1.1
Hacettepe University	4042	44	1.1
Istanbul Technical University	2353	47	2.0
İstanbul University	3586	110	3.1
İstanbul University-Cerrahpaşa	2171	6	0.3
İzmir Institute of Technology	592	11	1.9
Middle East Technical University	2223	63	2.8

Variables and Data Collection

Within the scope of the research, two types of data were collected: (i) researcher data and (ii) university data. Final date of the data collection process was 10 November 2021. The processing steps for researcher data are as follows:

1) Identification: Data on the number of foreign lecturers working in research universities and in which units of the universities they work was obtained from the CoHE statistical database. Personal profiles of academics were obtained from CoHE academic database. From these two databases, academics' gender, title and Ph.D. degree information was obtained. However, in order to complete the deficiencies in the information about their education and to confirm the information obtained, the data about each academic were checked through academic information systems of universities, personal web pages of the academics, internet search engines, web pages of previous workplaces or temporary visits, Ph.D. thesis of academics, Ph.D. data-bases such as Proquest, National Thesis Center of the CoHE and other sites such as internet news and seminar announcements. The subject categories and research areas of the academics were determined by matching the study areas at the university they work in with the subject category and research areas in WoS.
2) Data gathering: Researcher data includes the researcher's publication and citation performance in journals indexed in WoS, without year limitation. The following three criteria were used in the search in WoS:
   a) Document type = article/review article,
   b) Affiliation = university of the specific researcher,
   c) WoS Index = SCI-EXPANDED, SSCI, A&HCI

To find the profiles of the researchers, a search was made on the WoS author tab, both by name and, if available, by the researcher ID and ORCID number. If no researcher record was found with the searched name, no WoS publication was entered in the data file. If the profile record obtained as a result of the search was claimed by the researcher, the researcher's publication and citation data were created by using the criteria a and c. In addition, if the profile record resulting from the search was algorithmically generated by WoS, first criterion b was used, then publication and citation data were generated using the other two criteria. However, if the name of the university, where the researcher is currently working, in the affiliation section is not available, the publication information on the researcher's institutional university page, google scholar profile, if any, personal web pages of the researchers were used to profile the researcher, and the profile and the created data file were verified. The data on the number of graduate supervisions by foreign academics in Türkiye was gathered from National Thesis Center of the CoHE. The reason why article/review article types and citations to them are chosen as publishing activity is that these documents are used as performance data in international university rankings and academic performance evaluation systems, and that these activities appear as common academic activities that allow comparison in many research areas.

The processing steps for university data are as follows:

1) As university data, articles published in journal indexed WoS in 2020 and citations to these articles until the last data collection date (November, 2021) were collected. In WoS, a search was made with the names of the relevant universities using the affiliation tab, and the a and c criteria used in the researcher search were used in university data search.

Results

Demographic Characteristics of Foreign Academics

Demographic characteristics of foreign academics working in research universities are presented in Table 2. Of the total number of foreign academics, 57% were male while 43% were female. Fifty-nine per cent of the foreign academics were lecturers which means that there is no Ph.D. criterion to apply the position of a lecturer in Türkiye. As an expected result, 46.4 % of the foreign academics were not holding a Ph.D. degree.

Table 2. Demographic characteristics of foreign academics

Variable		1	2	3	4	5
Gender		Male	Female			
	n	264	199			
	%	57.0	43.0			
Academic Title		Lecturer	Asst. Prof.	Professor	Assoc. Prof.	Res. Asst.
	n	273	84	56	43	7
	%	59.0	18.1	12.1	9.3	1.5
PhD Status		Holding Ph.D. Degree	Not Holding Ph.D. Degree			
	n	248	215			
	%	53.6	46.4			

Academic Qualifications of Foreign Academics

Table 3. shows the ratio of foreign academics by the research area in which they work. There is great variability of the ratio of foreign academics across research areas. Arts & humanities is more open to foreign academics than life sciences & biomedicine, physical sciences, social sciences and technology. The academic field labelled as other is the second field more open to foreign academics. The foreign academics that are under this category are from English preparatory division of the universities. Within research areas, we also found great variability in the ratio of foreign academics. Literature in arts & humanities, biochemistry & molecular biology and pharmacology & pharmacy in life sciences & biomedicine, mathematics in physical sciences, linguistics in social sciences, and engineering in technology had more foreign academics than other subject categories within research areas.

Table 3. Ratio of foreign academics by research areas

Subject categories & research areas	***n***	***%***
Literature	87	18.8
Music	39	8.4
Religion	22	4.8
Art	12	2.6
Architecture	11	2.4
Dance	11	2.4
Philosophy	8	1.7
History	7	1.5
All Arts & Humanities	197	42.5
Biochemistry & Molecular Biology	4	.9
Pharmacology & Pharmacy	4	.9
Environmental Sciences & Ecology	3	.6
Genetics & Heredity	3	.6
Pediatrics	3	.6
Veterinary Sciences	3	.6
Anesthesiology	2	.4
Obstetrics & Gynecology	2	.4
Agriculture	1	.2
Anthropology	1	.2
Biotechnology&Applied Microbiology	1	.2
Cardiovascular System & Cardiology	1	.2
Cell Biology	1	.2
Dentistry, Oral Surgery & Medicine	1	.2
Emergency Medicine	1	.2
Genetics & Heredity	1	.2
Life Sciences Biomedicine Other Topics	1	.2
Marine & Freshwater Biology	1	.2
Neurosciences & Neurology	1	.2
Orthopedics	1	.2
Pathology	1	.2
Radiology, Nuclear Medicine & Medical Imaging	1	.2
Rehabilitation	1	.2
Surgery	1	.2
Urology & Nephrology	1	.2
All Life Sciences & Biomedicine	41	8.9
Mathematics	10	2.2
Physics	8	1.7
Geology	3	.6

Chemistry	2	.4
Oceanography	2	.4
Astronomy & Astrophysics	1	.2
All Physical Sciences	26	5.6
Linguistics	10	2.2
Business & Economics	8	1.7
Education & Educational Research	8	1.7
Sociology	8	1.7
Archaeology	2	.4
International Relations	2	.4
Area Studies	1	.2
Communication	1	.2
Government & Law	1	.2
Mathematical Methods In Social Sciences	1	.2
Philosophy	1	.2
Psychology	1	.2
Public Administration	1	.2
All Social Sciences	45	9.7
Engineering	34	7.3
Information Technologies & Library Sciences	2	.4
Metallurgy & Metallurgical Engineering	2	.4
Science & Technology Other Topics	2	.4
Energy & Fuels	1	.2
Nuclear Science & Technology	1	.2
All Technology	42	9.1
All Other	112.0	24.2

We analysed the countries and income levels of the countries where the Ph.D. degree come from in Table 4. The first five countries where the foreign academics got Ph.D. degree are as follows: Türkiye (25%), United States (19%), United Kingdom (8.5%), Germany (5.6%), and Russia (5.6%). With respect to income levels, 52% of the foreign academics holding Ph.D. degree got it from high-income economies.

Table 4. Countries and income levels of the countries where the Ph.D. degree come from

		n	***%***
Country			
	Türkiye	62	25.0
	United States	47	19.0
	United Kingdom	21	8.5
	Germany	14	5.6
	Russia	14	5.6
	Not Available	12	4.8
	Azerbaijan	9	3.6
	Italy	7	2.8
	Belgium	6	2.4
	France	6	2.4
	Iran	5	2.0
	Spain	5	2.0
	Ukraine	4	1.6
	Austria	3	1.2
	South Korea	3	1.2
	Netherlands	3	1.2
	Switzerland	3	1.2
	Georgia	2	0.8
	India	2	0.8
	Iraq	2	0.8
	Japan	2	0.8
	Kyrgyzstan	2	0.8
	Cyprus	2	0.8
	Denmark	1	0.4
	Scotland	1	0.4
	Canada	1	0.4
	Kazakhistan	1	0.4
	Latvia	1	0.4
	Malaysia	1	0.4

Eygpt	1	0.4
Norway	1	0.4
Poland	1	0.4
Tatarstan (Russia)	1	0.4
Turkmenistan	1	0.4
Greece	1	0.4
Income Level		
High-income economies	129	52.0
Upper-middle-income economies	93	37.5
Lower-middle-income economies	14	5.6
Low-income economies	0	0.0
Not applicable	12	4.8

In Table 5, the ratio of foreign academics by research area and the ranking of the university from where Ph.D. degree is taken are presented. The rate of foreign academics holding Ph.D. degree from a university in the top 500 list in the fields of arts & humanities, life sciences & biomedicine, physical sciences, technology, and other is lower than the rate of foreign academics holding Ph.D. degree from a university in 500+ in the ranking. The opposite is true for the social sciences.

Table 5. Ratio of foreign academics by research area and the ranking of the university from where Ph.D. degree is taken

THE World University Rankings Rank	**Arts & Humanities**		**Life Sciences & Biomedicine**		**Physical Sciences**		**Social Sciences**		**Technology**		**Other**		**Total**	
	n	***%***	***n***	***%***	***n***	***%***	***n***	***%***	***n***	***%***	***n***	***%***	***n***	***%***
Top 10	3	3.5	1	3.2	0	0.0	6	16.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	10	4.3
11-50	6	7.0	3	9.7	3	11.5	4	10.8	5	12.8	2	14.3	23	9.9
51-100	3	3.5	3	9.7	3	11.5	4	10.8	3	7.7	2	14.3	18	7.7
101-150	5	5.8	2	6.5	2	7.7	3	8.1	3	7.7	0	0.0	15	6.4
151-200	3	3.5	1	3.2	0	0.0	3	8.1	2	5.1	0	0.0	9	3.9
251-300	3	3.5	2	6.5	1	3.8	5	13.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	11	4.7
301-350	5	5.8	0	0.0	1	3.8	0	0.0	2	5.1	0	0.0	8	3.4
351-400	2	2.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	0.9
401-500	3	3.5	1	3.2	1	3.8	0	0.0	2	5.1	1	7.1	8	3.4
501-600	1	1.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	5.1	1	7.1	4	1.7
601-800	12	14.0	3	9.7	3	11.5	4	10.8	11	28.2	2	14.3	35	15.0
801-1000	1	1.2	3	9.7	2	7.7	3	8.1	1	2.6	1	7.1	11	4.7
1001-1200	11	12.8	6	19.4	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.6	2	14.3	20	8.6
1201+	12	14.0	5	16.1	3	11.5	4	10.8	3	7.7	2	14.3	29	12.4
Reporter	4	4.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	7.1	5	2.1
Not Listed	12	14.0	1	3.2	7	26.9	1	2.7	4	10.3	0	0.0	25	10.7
Total	86	100	31	100	26	100	37	100	39	100	14	100	233	100

Table 6 gives academic performances of foreign academics in terms of the total article number, total citation count of their articles and h-index scores. The mean score of Web of Science articles was 8.6 (SD= 38.4; Min.= 0; Max.= 491). The mean score of total citation count of WoS articles was 216.9 (SD= 1454.4; Min.= 0; Max.= 21080) while WoS h-index scores mean was 2.5 (SD= 6.9; Min.= 0; Max.= 72).

Table 6. Foreign academics' WoS articles, citations, and h-index

Variable	***Mean***	***SD***	***Min.***	***Max.***
Total article number	8.6	38.4	0.0	491.0
Total citation count	216.9	1454.4	0.0	21080.0
h-index	2.5	6.9	0.0	72.0

The distribution of foreign academics’ articles indexed by WoS is presented in Table 7. We found that 66.1% of the foreign academics did not have any articles covered by WoS. Of the 306 academics who did not have any articles covered by WoS, 97 academics had Ph.D. degree. More than half of the 4004 articles by foreign academics were produced by only 21 academics.

Table 7. Distribution of the articles by foreign academics indexed by WoS

Article Number	*n*	%
0	306	66.1
1	24	5.2
2	12	2.6
3	9	1.9
4	5	1.1
5	8	1.7
6-10	23	5.0
11-15	20	4.3
16-20	10	2.2
21-25	8	1.7
26-30	8	1.7
31-35	9	1.9
36+	21	4.5
Total article number		4004

The distribution of foreign academics' total citation counts covered by WoS is presented in Table 8. We found that 69.1% of the foreign academics had no citations in WoS. Moreover, more than three quarters of foreign academics had ten citation or fewer. Additionally, the findings on citations showed that of the 100,411 total citation counts, over half of the citations belonged to only four foreign academics.

Table 8. Citation count of foreign academics' articles indexed by WoS

Citation count	*n*	%
0	320	69.1
1-2	6	1.3
3-5	15	3.2
6-10	7	1.5
11-25	15	3.2
26-50	16	3.5
51-100	13	2.8
101-200	19	4.1
201-300	12	2.6
301-400	7	1.5
401-500	1	0.2
501-1000	17	3.7
1001-2000	5	1.1
2001-3000	2	0.4
3000+	8	1.7
Total citation number		100411

In Table 9, we lay out the trend for the distribution of foreign academics' WoS h-index. As can be seen in the table, 92.2 % of the foreign academics' h-index is ten or fewer.

Table 9. Distribution of foreign academics' WoS h-index

h-index	*n*	%
0	320	69.1
1	28	6.0
2	17	3.7
3	11	2.4
4	9	1.9
5	10	2.2
6-10	32	6.9
11-15	18	3.9
16-20	8	1.7
21-25	4	0.9
26-30	1	0.2
31-35	2	0.4
36+	3	0.6

We outlined the number of graduate supervisions in Türkiye by foreign academics of research universities in Table 10. Of 248 foreign academics holding Ph.D. degree, only 33.9 % had finalized masters' thesis (∑=496) under his/her supervision, while only 19.8 % had finalized Ph.D. dissertation (∑=153) under his/her supervision.

Table 10. The number of graduate supervisions in Türkiye by foreign academics of research universities of Türkiye

The number of students graduated	Master's degree supervision		Ph.D. Degree supervision	
	n	*%*	*n*	*%*
0	164	66.1	199	80.2
1	25	10.1	20	8.1
2	11	4.4	8	3.2
3	11	4.4	7	2.8
4	10	4.0	5	2.0
5	5	2.0	1	0.4
6-10	10	4.0	6	2.4
11-15	3	1.2	1	0.4
16-20	3	1.2	1	0.4
21-25	2	0.8	0	0.0
26-30	2	0.8	0	0.0
31-40	1	0.4	0	0.0
41-50	1	0.4	0	0.0

Contribution of Foreign Academics to the Research Universities

We evaluate the contribution of foreign academics to research universities in 2020 in Table 11. First, we group foreign academics in terms of the research universities they worked for in 2020. Then, for each research university, we gave details on article number, citation count, number of graduate supervisions. When the research universities are compared, the findings on the contribution of foreign academics to research universities in 2020 can be summarized as follows:

- Proportionally, the highest contribution to the university in the number of articles and citations was made by foreign academics at Gebze Technical University.
- Foreign academics at Boğaziçi University made the highest contribution to their university in terms of the number of graduate supervisions.

Discussion

The role of universities in growth and development has gained more importance with the knowledge-based economy. With the globalizing structure of higher education, universities have begun to be evaluated not only in their context but also globally. This situation has also globalized the competition for talents in higher education, spreading the competition to many areas. In Türkiye, where concerns about quality have increased with quantitative developments, research universities' situation has begun to be examined from different perspectives. Thus, to contribute to our knowledge of one of the human capital strategies in transforming a university into a world-class, research-oriented university, this study examined foreign academics in Turkish research universities, their academic qualifications, and their contribution to the university.

The trend in female employment in higher education in Türkiye can also be seen in the employment of foreign academics. In Türkiye (CoHE, 2022), where the rate of female academics is 46%, the rate of female foreign academics employed in research universities has approached this rate with 43%. At this point, Türkiye has maintained its philosophy that prioritizes women in all areas of life and aims to increase the representation power of women (Karadağ, 2021). As expected, our findings showed that the number of foreign academics was concentrated in the title of lecturer in terms of academic title. Three factors can explain the high rate of lecturers. First, the employment of academics in this title is relatively easier than in other titles in terms of the conditions sought. Secondly, academics employed in this position are given fewer resources as wages, so the financial burden of universities is reduced. Finally, lecturers who will teach in foreign language preparatory classes are employed under this academic title. What is surprising is the fact that non-doctoral academics have a rate of 46.4%. This result suggests that the employment of foreign lecturers in research universities is not research-oriented.

Table 11. Contribution of foreign academics to research universities in 2020

University	Article number of the university	Citation count of the university	Masters' thesis submitted to the university	Ph.D. dissertation submitted to the university	Article number of foreign scholars	Citation count of foreign scholar	Masters' degree supervision of foreign academics	Ph.D. degree supervision of foreign academics	Ratio of articles by foreign scholars	Ratio of citations by foreign scholars	Ratio of masters' degree supervision by foreign academics	Ratio of Ph.D. degree supervision by foreign scholars
Ankara University	1634	5885	779	532	8	14	0	1	0.5	0.2	0.0	0.2
Boğaziçi University	697	3141	226	68	34	91	10	4	4.9	2.9	4.4	5.9
Erciyes University	962	3639	355	232	27	374	1	0	2.8	10.3	0.3	0.0
Gazi University	1309	4437	614	530	16	174	0	0	1.2	3.9	0.0	0.0
Gebze Technical University	448	1931	160	49	32	616	1	0	7.1	31.9	0.6	0.0
Hacettepe University	2096	9716	530	531	8	35	2	0	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.0
Istanbul Technical University	1394	4828	556	159	50	223	8	1	3.6	4.6	1.4	0.6
İstanbul University	1480	4720	577	408	8	11	3	1	0.5	0.2	0.5	0.2
İstanbul University-Cerrahpaşa	1101	3502	194	231	18	62	0	0	1.6	1.8	0.0	0.0
İzmir Institute of Technology	349	1188	128	29	3	17	0	1	0.9	1.4	0.0	3.4
Middle East Technical University	1157	4139	446	203	46	94	8	4	4.0	2.3	1.8	2.0

Another finding of the study is that the three fields with the highest rate in the distribution of foreign academicians by field are arts & humanities, other (foreign language preparatory units) and social sciences fields. This finding is in contradiction with previous results of different contexts reported in the literature (Huang, 2017; Lin, Pearce & Wang, 2009; Yuret, 2017). We can state that this finding is surprising for a study conducted in research universities. Since research universities adopt a policy focused chiefly on stem areas on global level, it is noteworthy that the rate of foreign academics employed in research universities in Türkiye is low in stem areas.

When examining the countries where foreign academics with a doctorate completed their doctorate education, we see that the first country with the highest rate is Türkiye, with a rate of 25%. This situation is parallel with the increase in the number of international students in Türkiye due to Türkiye's internationalization policies in higher education. In addition, it is thought that the difficulties in finding an academic position in European countries and the USA, which have higher income levels and therefore more developed higher education systems, as a researcher who got his/her graduate education in Türkiye, can be another reason for this high rate. However, when the overall rate is examined, 52% of these academics completed their doctorate in countries with high-income economies. Since the flow of talent generally occurs in a direction from the periphery to the core (Lee & Kuzhabekova, 2018), there is still a need in the Turkish context to investigate the pull and push factors for foreign academics whose Ph.D. graduation is from high-income countries even if Seggie & Çalıkoğlu's (2021) research on the experiences of Western-origin faculty members shed light on the issue to some extent.

We also see that there is an interesting contrast in the concentration of foreign academics' Ph.D. graduation institutions in different academic fields by the ranking of universities. The rate of foreign academics who graduated from universities in the top 500 list of THE World University Ranking exceeds 50% only in social sciences, and the lowest in the other category. When the total ratio is examined, we can state that 44.6% of the foreign academicians in research universities graduated from the universities in the top 500 in the ranking. The reason why we consider the ranking of the university to be so important is our assumption that higher rankings mean being more research-oriented for a university. For this reason, considering that the graduate education is a professional socialization process (Ongiti, 2012), and "through the socialization process the individual acquires the knowledge and skills, the values and attitudes, and the habits and modes of thought of the society to which he belongs" (Bragg, 1976, p.1), recruiting foreign academics who graduated from universities in the top of the rankings may have the potential to make profound contributions to the development of Turkish research universities.

To determine the academic qualifications of foreign academics, it is more beneficial to consider the number of articles, the number of citations and the h-index variables together since they bring out more meaningful results. According to the findings, it is remarkable that 66% of the academics do not have any articles indexed in WoS, and 97 of these academics are researchers who got their Ph.D.. Another significant result is that 63.7% of the 4004 articles examined were published by only 21 academicians. In the number of citations, 8.9% of the foreign academics did not get a citation for their articles indexed in WoS, while only four researchers received 52.1% of the total 100,411 citations. When we examined the h-index of the researchers who published articles indexed in Wos, we found that 77.1% of the researchers had an h-index of ten or less. These results revealed that only a small portion of foreign academics are prominent researchers in their field. As a developing country, this situation is expected for Türkiye. Furthermore, it may be unrealistic to expect that these researchers would probably be "the 'cream of the crop' and have very high research and/or technical skills" (Webber, 2013, p.69), as in other developed countries like the USA.

Supervision in graduate education is a critical element in the quality and efficiency of higher degree research (Bastalich, 2017). In this respect, it can be stated that the area where academic culture transfer can take place is the graduate education supervision process. Besides teaching and research, one of the expected roles of foreign academics at research universities in Türkiye is to supervise graduate students. However, our findings show that 66.1% of foreign faculty members with a doctorate do not conduct supervision at the masters' degree level, and 80.2% at the doctoral level.

As for the contributions of foreign academics to their universities, foreign academics from 6 universities in terms of the number of articles and from 5 universities in terms of the number of citations contributed more to the relevant indicators than their presence rates within the university. However, this does not show the same trend in terms of graduate supervision rates. While foreign academics contributed less to masters' degree advisory rates than their presence rates within the university in all universities, this situation was reversed in only one university in doctoral education supervision rates.

Conclusion and Policy Implications

Research universities play a vital role in building knowledge-based economies as one of the key nexus of international knowledge flows. One of the important factors effective in fulfilling this function is seen as human capital. One strategy for transforming universities into research-oriented world-class universities is the employment of foreign academics. In Türkiye, where the notion of a research university is not an old phenomenon, there is no study specific to foreign researchers in research universities. At this point, this study aimed to present a picture of foreign academics in the context of Türkiye, which is seen as an important indicator of internationalization in the human capital of research universities. Here, we can say that six main findings need to be interpreted:

1) Although researchers with doctorates constitute the majority, the rate of the difference between Ph.D holders and not holders is low (7.2 %),
2) Researchers do not even constitute a quarter of the total in areas prioritized globally in research-oriented universities, such as life sciences & biomedicine, physical sciences, and technology.

3) Less than half of the researchers received their doctorate from the top 500 universities in THE World University Ranking.
4) The performance of only a few researchers is high in research and citation indicators.
5) The contribution of academics in terms of graduate education supervision is low.
6) When the contributions of foreign academicians to universities are analysed in terms of the ratio of the total academic staff, we see variations in different indicators and universities.

This study has gone some way towards enhancing our understanding of recruiting foreign academics in building research universities. The researchers' demographic information, academic qualifications, and contributions were examined. We presented some suggestions for the qualifications of foreign academics to be employed and policy implications for decision-makers in research universities based on the legal text presented in the appendix.

For recruitment conditions;

- Foreign academics to be employed should have completed Ph.D. education or worked at a university that is in the top 500 in one of the ranking systems accepted in the literature,
- Universities' assessment boards should utilize the metrics such as h-index, g-index, i10-index, and read-10 index, which can be expressed as academic career scorecards, as criteria by determining the lower limit,
- Articles published in journals indexed in Q1 and Q2 quartiles in WoS, or Scopus, not less than a certain number, should be sought as a criterion.
- Academics who meet these criteria should be obliged to publish articles annually or until the contract renewal date and provide graduate student supervision.

For management practices;

- Teaching loads for foreign academics should only be at the graduate level and should be limited to the extent not restricting their research activities.
- Salary offers should be made to researchers by considering the international wages instead of the country equivalent wages.
- In parallel with the examples and trends in the world, a certain staff quota should be determined for each research field.
- Decision-makers should prefer to employ fewer highly qualified researchers rather than more researchers with fewer qualifications.

In conclusion, the evidence from this study suggests that the majority of foreign academics in Turkish research universities are not directly employed with a research focus, and there are some caveats in the legal texts for foreign academics' recruitment. This study also shows the need for a legal text or regulation that defines and protects research universities' status while drawing the responsibility boundaries of these universities.

The findings of this study have to be seen in the light of some limitations. The bibliometric data of the study come from the articles of 2020, and the citation counts in the years 2020 and 2021 of these articles indexed by Clarivate Analytics' Web of Science (WoS). Furthermore, we also included only the Turkish research universities in 2020 and foreign academics working at that time. Even if CoHE declared new research universities after the data collection phase of the study was finalized, we did not include them because they did not have the title of the research university in 2020. We also did not separate foreign academics as research oriented or teaching oriented. This may affect the conclusion in terms of academic performance. However, there are several important reasons why we do not make this distinction. Firstly, the absence of such a distinction between research vs teaching orientation in Türkiye, secondly the current situation, where academics from all titles can publish and use their publication to get promotion and lastly the context of the study is research universities, so it is desired to show a broader picture of the subject in terms of academic performance of all titles.

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Appendix

Special Conditions for Employment of Foreign Academic Staff

Employment in Foreign Language Preparatory Classes

1. For those whose native language is English, who will be employed for foreign language teaching in English preparatory classes; must have at least a bachelor's degree in one of the fields such as linguistics, language and literature, comparative literature, teaching or educational sciences (pedagogy); or to have at least one of the following conditions, provided that they have at least a bachelor's degree:
    a) To have at least two years of work experience in teaching the relevant language in an internationally recognized accredited language teaching center,
    b) To have a DELTA or CELTA certificate.
2. For those whose native language is not English, who will be employed for foreign language teaching in English preparatory classes; must have at least a bachelor's degree in one of the fields such as English Language, English Literature, English Language Teaching and must have met at least one of the following conditions:
    a) To have at least two years of work experience in teaching the relevant language in an internationally recognized accredited language teaching center,
    b) To have a DELTA or CELTA certificate.
3. Foreign academics to be employed for teaching foreign languages other than English must have at least one of the following conditions, provided that they have at least a bachelor's degree in the relevant language:
    a) Having at least two years of work experience in teaching the language in which they will be employed,
    b) To have at least one year of academic work experience.

Employment in Associate Degree Programs

Foreign academics to be employed in associate degree programs of higher education institutions must meet at least one of the following conditions, provided that they are at least a bachelor's degree graduate:

a) Having academic work experience in a higher education institution recognized by the CoHE for at least two years,
b) To have a master's degree in the relevant field of the desired program.

Employment in Undergraduate and Graduate Programs

1. Foreign academics to be employed to teach at undergraduate and graduate level in higher education institutions, provided that they have a doctorate degree and have proven their proficiency in the language of instruction of the program they will teach, must have met at least one of the following conditions:
    a. Certify that he/she has worked at least one year in one of the higher education institutions recognized by the CoHE,
    b. To have at least one book published in the field or to have at least five articles published in peer-reviewed journals in the last five years.
2. In specialized units at the undergraduate level, where Turkish citizen lecturers holding a master's degree can be employed, foreign lecturers must also have at least a master's degree.

Employment for Research Purposes at the same time with Teaching Purpose

In order to employ foreign academics to give lectures in higher education institutions, as well as to take part in projects and to benefit in research activities, the candidates must have met at least one of the following conditions:

a) To have a master's or doctorate degree from one of the top 1000 universities in any of the World University Rankings [Times Higher Education (THE); QS World University Rankings or Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU)] or to have worked at these universities for at least one year as an academic and researcher,
b) To have published at least ten articles in indexed journals accepted as credible by the authorized boards of the university to be employed,
c) To have worked as a coordinator, executive or researcher in at least one scientific research project that is ongoing or has been successfully completed and that contributes to science and industry.

Note: If it is documented that they are internationally successful and capable of contributing to the international visibility of the university, higher wages may be offered for foreign academics who will work in projects and research activities as well as giving lectures in higher education institutions compared to the academics who will only lecture.

Employment in Fine Arts

Those who will be employed as foreign lecturers in the Conservatory, Fine Arts, Art and Design Faculties must have at least a bachelor's degree in the relevant field and have met at least one of the following conditions:

a) To have at least two years of academic or institutional work experience in the relevant field of art,
b) To have carried out at least three original art activities, events, projects, designs, etc. in the last three years.

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The Global Mobility of Palestinian Arab Students: Current Trends and Flows

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Abstract

The article describes the flow of Palestinian students from Israel, identifying the reasons that a large proportion of students from the Palestinian Arab Minority in Israel (PAMI) (21%) currently study abroad. The article traces the development of PAMI students' studies outside Israel and the characteristics of this movement including the disciplines that the students choose to study and current trends and streams. Data are drawn from official statistics and documents, and research representing PAMI education abroad conducted mainly by the two authors. Conceptually, the authors indicate pull and push factors for this phenomenon of temporary migration to acquire higher education and receive an academic degree that will be recognized in Israel.

Keywords: Palestinian Arab in Israel, higher education, global mobility, studying abroad, medical professions, PAMI

Introduction

In 1948, the Palestinian Arab majority in the British Mandate territories became the Palestinian Arab minority in the new Jewish State of Israel (Hereafter: the PAMI). The PAMI now number approximately 1.6 million persons or 17% of the population of Israel (not including East Jerusalem and the Golan Heights) (Central Bureau of Statistics, 2021). The PAMI are a national and cultural minority, but follow various religions (Muslim, Christian, and Druze). They mostly live in separate locations including villages and towns and Bedouin encampments. They speak Arabic rather than the Hebrew of the Jewish majority and have their own cultural heritage (Ghanem, 2000; Ghanem & Mustafa, 2009; Haj-Yehia, 2022). The PAMI are considered a national, sociological and demographic indigenous minority and are an inseparable part of the Palestinian people and the Arab nation, although they are also citizens of the State of Israel. A large proportion of the PAMI subsist under the poverty line and experience discrimination in many areas of their life in Israel. They constitute a marginal minority, lacking economic resources and fully control by the new state. Consequently, the PAMI community aspires to attain higher education (HE) as a social value, seeing it as a tool for upward economic and social mobility (Al-Haj, 2003) and to improve their political and social status. In 2021 the number of PAMI students studying in academic institutions in Israel stood at 58,000 (out of 336,330 Israeli students), constituting 17% of all students in Israel's higher education institutions, quite similar to their representation in the general population. It should be noted that the percentage of female students among the PAMI students reached 72.2% (60.1% females among Jewish students) (Israel Council for Higher Education, 2021). However, parallel to this higher education pathway, which happen mainly in Israeli higher education institutions, PAMI students turned to pursue their higher education abroad, mainly in Europe and the Middle East (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2020).

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Research has noted various obstacles and blocks acting as hindering factors facing PAMI students when they attempt to enter Israeli universities to study the socially desirable free professions such as medicine, pharmacy and para-medical professions (Al-Haj, 2003; Arar & Haj-Yehia, 2016a, 2018; Arar et al., 2015:). These obstacles include the inferior status of PAMI schools, low matriculation grades, and relatively low achievements in the psychometric tests required for entering higher education admission. Nevertheless, PAMI students tend to apply for prestigious faculties, which have very demanding admission requirements including an entrance exam and personal interview in Hebrew. Other challenges include the fact that studying in Israeli higher education institutions requires foreign language skills (Hebrew and English as instruction languages, which are PAMI students' second and third languages), high academic fees (most PAMI families are situated in the lowest socio-economic strata), and students need to assimilate to life in campuses with a foreign Jewish ethno-centric and 'Western' culture, , difficulties augmented by an environment wrought with political conflict (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2020).

PAMI students face other difficulties in higher education that are less challenging for Jewish students: firstly, once accepted, PAMI students find it more difficult to graduate (Al-Haj, 2003). Secondly, other prestigious disciplines (e.g., economics, computer science, business administration) are less attractive to PAMI students (Arar & Haj-Yehia, 2010) given that they have limited access to jobs related to these disciplines, which are mainly within the public sector or in private Jewish firms and corporations, while some of these firms requires former military experience (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2014). Consequently, the pool of disciplines that PAMI students can consider is mainly constricted to the free professions, which offer independent employment (Al-Haj, 2003; Arar & Haj-Yehia, 2010). Thirdly, evidently Israeli universities tend to reject PAMI applicants more than Jewish applicants, which makes the search for alternatives, such as studying abroad, more urgent.

Consequently, many PAMI students, especially those seeking to study prestigious disciplines, such as medicine, engineering and other free professions find it worthwhile to travel for higher education to European countries or neighbouring Arab countries which have diplomatic relations with Israel (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2014; Arar & Haj-Yehia, 2013, 2016a, 2016b).

This article describes the phenomenon of PAMI temporary migration to foreign states to acquire higher education. Specifically, it poses the following main research questions (1) What are the main trends of the PAMI students' global mobility (2) Which states constitute targets for PAMI students' migration. (3) What do PAMI students study abroad? (4) What are the characteristics of PAMI students studying abroad? The aim is to provide a broad picture of the current global mobility of these students and indicate what might be future trends for this phenomenon.

Literature Review

A Timeline of the Development of PAMI Students' Higher Education Studies Abroad

The phenomenon of the Palestinian students' higher education studies abroad is not a transient phenomenon, but rather it is considered a part of a phenomenon of International Students' Mobility (ISM) and is related to the topic of globalization of higher education. ISM has cultural, political and economic impacts on global higher education (Altbach, 2011; Brooks & Waters, 2011). This phenomenon is expanding in most countries throughout the world. Recent data indicate that the rise in the number of ISM over the past three decades has been much faster than the total increase in international migration. In 2020, nearly 6.3 million students were moving across the world in search of education (OECD, 2022).

PAMI students' temporary migration to study abroad has expanded in a surprising and unexpected way in recent years, so that more than 22% of all PAMI students in higher education institutions for the years 2019-2020 studied in universities outside Israel (including Palestinian Authority territories' universities). This phenomenon of travelling for studies outside their home state began when Palestinian Arabs studied in foreign countries even before the establishment of the State of Israel, especially in neighbouring Arab states. This was a historical tradition in both Arab and Islamic cultures. However, the phenomenon did not extend to include all sectors of Arab society and was restricted to select financially comfortable strata (Haj-Yehia, 2002; Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2014)

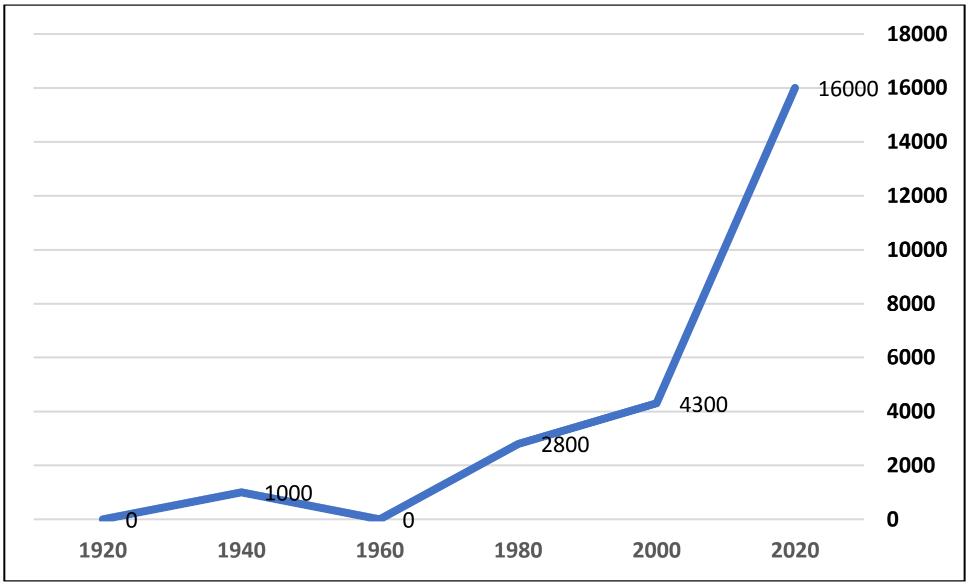

Figure 1. Trends in Palestinian Arab students' application for higher education abroad between 1920-2020 (after 1948, statistics relate to Palestinian Arab students from Israel) (source: Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2020)

Figure 1 shows the development of Palestinian Arab students' studies abroad along a timeline since the 1920s and especially the massive flood of PAMI students' to studies in foreign states after the dissolution of the military regime imposed on the PAMI population from 1948 till 1966 by the Israeli military of the new state.

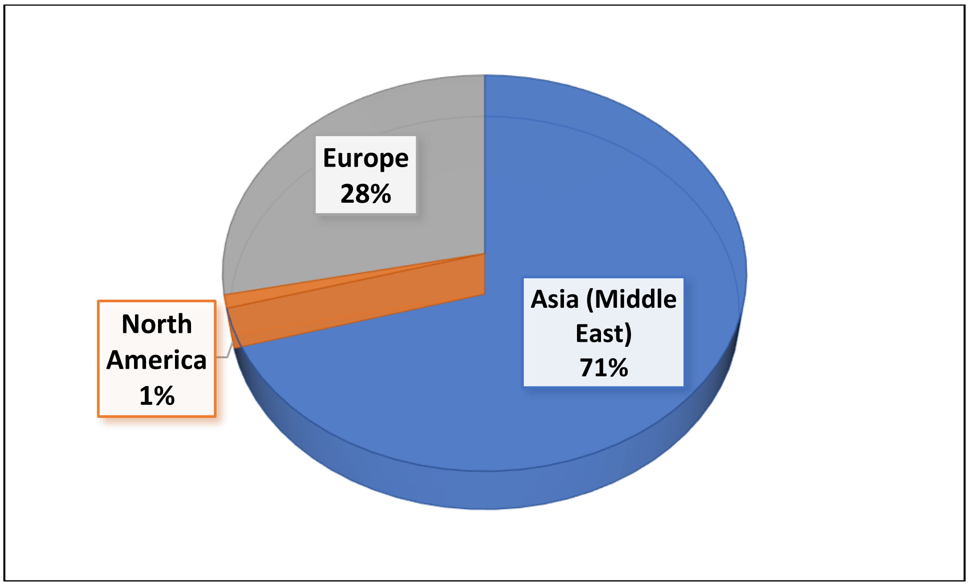

Figure 2. Global distribution of PAMI students' higher education abroad, 2020 (source: Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2020)

Figure 2 illustrates the distribution of PAMI studies abroad over three continents. It can be seen that by 2020 the main target for PAMI studies has become Asia (especially the Middle East) rather than Europe. Historically, from the time that the State of Israel came into existence until the middle of the 1990s PAMI students were not allowed to study in Arab states due to Israel's political policies stemming from the Arab-Israel conflict. Thus, those PAMI students who were not accepted in Israel's higher education institutions turned to study in other non-Arab states, especially the USSR. A study by Al-Haj (1996) notes that the Israeli communist party awarded 50-60 annual scholarships for higher education in Eastern

Europe and the USSR. From 1986 until 1996, 1,096 PAMI students graduated from universities in these states: approximately 60% of them studied medicine, 20% studied engineering and the remainder studied political science, economics or law (Arar, 2022; Al-Haj, 1996; Haj-Yehia**,** 2002; Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2014; Arar, Haj-Yehia, & Ibrahim, 2019).

After the signing of the peace treaty between Israel and Egypt, attempts were made by the Egyptians to attract PAMI students to study in Egypt. The plan was to draw PAMI students to study religious disciplines such as Islamic sharia law, but the plan completely collapsed to the extent that today not one PAMI student is studying in Egypt (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2014).

Universities in the former USSR were very popular with PAMI students during the communist regime in Eastern Europe, partially because of the scholarships received from the Israeli communist party (Arar, 2022; Haj-Yehia**,** 2002; Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2014). However, the fall of the communist regime in Eastern Europe reduced the number of PAMI students seeking higher education in the former USSR and the universities in Western Europe (Germany, Italy, UK and Greece) led by Germany, became more popular venues for the PAMI, (Haj Yehia, 2002). In the 1980s and 1990s, many PAMI academics acquired their higher education and professional qualifications in Germany. In 2001, more than 1,000 PAMI students studied there, and many others applied to join them (Haj Yehia, 2002). According to statistics from the Federal German Ministry of Education, in 2006, 730 PAMI students studied in Germany, mainly in the medical and pharmacology faculties (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2014) A survey identified several factors motivating PAMI students to study in Germany: (1) Relatively low academic fees; (2) prestige of German universities; (3) geographical vicinity to Israel; (4) opportunities to work while studying; (5) good relations between Germany and the Arab world. (Haj Yehia, 2002). Nevertheless, Germany's popularity waned slightly due to the rise of xenophobia in the state especially Islamophobia, and even more so when new employment regulations reduced opportunities for students' employment while academic fees were increased (Haj Yehia, 2002).

Following the reduction in Germany's popularity, Romania became the preferred location for PAMI higher education. According to the Romanian Education Ministry, 387 PAMI students studied in Romanian universities in 2005, 80 of them studied in the northern Cluj University, half of them in the Faculty of Medicine (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2014).

Some PAMI academics travelled to the USA for doctoral studies, especially in social sciences, usually assisted by a scholarship. A doctorate from an American university is considered especially prestigious by graduates of the Arab education system in Israel (Arar & Haj-Yehia, 2016a). Despite the inferior economic status of Arab society in Israel expressed in high unemployment and poverty rates, while the standard of living in Europe has increased, many young PAMI students still aspire to study in European states including Germany, Italy, Hungary, Romania, Moldavia, and the Ukraine and also in Russia. Recently PAMI students also began studying in Türkiye because Turkish university admission requirements for prestigious professions such as medicine, para-medical professions, pharmacy, computer science and engineering were easier to meet than those of Israeli universities. European universities are seen as symbols of prestige by PAMI students and their families, and their degrees are seen as promising a better socio-economic future both for the individual and for PAMI society as a whole. After their studies abroad, many PAMI graduates are proud of their European degrees, especially in scientific-technological disciplines such as medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, computer engineering, and electrical engineering. Many of them claim that the quality of their certificates is equivalent to Israeli certificates, and even superior in some disciplines, especially technological and computer sciences (Arar & Haj-Yehia, 2016a; Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2014).

Following the peace agreement between Israel and Jordan PAMI students began to stream into Jordanian universities. For many of them it was a dream fulfilled to study in the neighbouring Arab state, in their mother tongue and to have their certificates recognized by Israel. Undoubtedly, in recent years, Jordan has become the main target for PAMI students interested in studying prestigious degrees, such as medicine, para-medical studies and pharmacy. There has also been a recent stream of PAMI students to universities in the Palestinian Authority territories, especially the American Arab University situated in

Jenin. There too, they study medicine and para-medical disciplines, for which it is more difficult to gain acceptance in Israeli universities (Arar. & Haj Yehia, 2010; Arar & Haj-Yehia, 2011, 2013; Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2017). Various studies throughout the world discuss different motivations for higher education acquired outside the student's mother country, however the application of PAMI students to study abroad is clearly stimulated by the background of the constrictions detailed above and studying abroad is a product of a pushing reality. Studying abroad offers an alternative to studying higher education in Israel where entry to universities is often blocked for them.

Methodology

This study adopted phenomenological methodology in analysing and understanding trends, turns and returns of international higher education pathways among PAMI students (See: Creswell & Clark, 2017). Creswell (2013) defines phenomenology as an approach to qualitative research that focuses on a lived experience within a particular group. Maxwell (2013) further clarified that a phenomenological study explores what people experience and focuses on their experience of a phenomenon. Therefore, the phenomenological approach aims to illuminate the specific, to identify phenomena as they are perceived by the actors in a particular situation, and this approach can be applied to single cases or opportune or deliberately selected samples of different sizes (Van Manen, 2017, p. 776).

Phenomenological approaches rely on a paradigm of critical scholarly knowledge that has been collected about certain phenomena, and their use gives rise to deep insights and meaningful interpretation. As two inductive scholars who have over the last two decades explored higher education mobility among our people, we adopted this approach to analyse the knowledge we gained in researching Palestinian students' access pathways to higher education in different national and geographical contexts. In line with the theory of Van Manen (2017, p. 776), our generic inquiry on this phenomenon aims to analyse the different trends and experiences of Palestinian students in higher education. We therefore employed phenomenological methodology to uncover the phenomenon of Palestinian students' global mobility experiences as described by the students themselves (Crotty, 1998).

Therefore, the article relied on official statistics and data provided by local and international official sources such as the OECD (2020, 2021) and UNESCO (2021), and also statistics from the Israeli Council for Higher Education, the universities to which the PAMI students applied and other published statistics from official websites . Furthermore, the two indigenous Palestinian Arab researchers who composed this article also relied on information elicited directly from PAMI students studying abroad with whom they had made contact over two decades of different pioneering researches on the phenomenon of PAMI studies abroad. They were able to conduct a meta-analysis of the various qualitative and quantitative studies they had conducted in this context in the last two decades (Arar, 2022; Arar & Haj Yehia, 2010; Arar & Haj-Yehia, 2011, 2013, 2016a, 2016b, 2018; Haj-Yehia, 2002; Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2014, 2020).

Although, different sources of data sometimes differ regarding the number of PAMI students studying abroad, because most of the official international and consulate data from the states and universities where the students study, relate to these students merely as Israelis and do not distinguish PAMIs. Thus too, the movement of PAMI students is not consistent, because a large proportion of PAMI students who travel to a specific state for further education, later relocate to another state for reasons relating to entry conditions, academic, financial, or social difficulties involved in life in exile.

Findings

Global Mobility of PAMI Students: Current Trends and Flows

The academic journey of PAMI students for higher education far from Israel's academic institutions began to grow at the end of the 1970s and increased dramatically at the end of the last century and the beginning of the 21st century (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2014). The newest trend began from 2007 with the flow of PAMI students to Palestinian universities, as a result of geopolitical changes following the Oslo pacts and a process of recognition for those universities by Israeli authorities (Arar & Haj-Yehia, 2016b). It is also noted that in recent years many PAMI students travelled to Eastern Europe including Moldavia, the Ukraine, Armenia, Georgia, Poland and most recently to Türkiye.

In our survey of these developments, we note that as blocks to PAMI students' applications to Israeli higher education institutions increased, in parallel, the pull factors for learning abroad were augmented (Haj Yehia & Arar, 2014). Each target state offers unique factors to attract those students. It seems that PAMI students also have strong motivation to overcome very difficult obstacles to realize their dream and study prestigious disciplines that are hardly accessible for them in Israel.

Relying on other international official data and testimony from the field from PAMI students studying in higher education institutions abroad, the researchers established that the number of PAMI students studying abroad in 2019-2020 amounted to16,722. This means that between 2013-2020 the number of PAMI students studying abroad grew from 9,260 to 16,722, an increase of 44.6%. (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2020). In 2020, those studying abroad constituted 22% of all 58,000 PAMI students studying either in Israel or abroad. Notably, the percentage of female PAMI students out of all PAMI students studying abroad constituted 30% (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2020). This phenomenon deserves further and more specific and comprehensive research.

Table 1. Number of PAMI studying in higher education institutions in different countries: Comparison between 2012-2013 and 2019-2020 (Source: Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2020)

	2012-2013		2019-2020	
Country	**No. of students**	**% of all PAMI studying abroad**	**No. of students**	**% of all PAMI studying abroad**
Jordan	3060	33%	1302	7.7%
Palestinian Authority	2500	27%	9320	55.7%
Moldova	1650	17.8%	1650	9.8%
Romania	600	6.5%	1050	6.2%
Germany	550	6%	750	4.4%
Italy	400	4.3%	500	2.9%
Ukraine	-	-	1450	8.6%
Other countries	500	5.4%	700	4.7%
Total studying abroad	9,260	100%	16,722	100%

Table 1 shows clearly that the PAMI students' mobility to attain higher education abroad mostly focused in recent years on higher education institutions in the Palestinian Authority territories. The data indicate an immense increase in the number of PAMI students studying in Palestinian universities. In the academic year 2011/2012 2,500 PAMI students attended Palestinian universities, by 2019/2020 this number had increased to 9,320 (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2020) and they became the largest group of PAMI students studying outside Israel, constituting 55.7% of all PAMI studying abroad in that year. It can be seen that Moldavia has accepted 150 PAMI students and in recent years, PAMI students began studying in the Ukraine. In 2012-2013 in comparison to the large number of PAMI who studied in the USSR in the past, not many PAMI students studied in the Ukraine, however by the academic year 2019/2020 the number studying in the Ukraine rose to 1,450 students (before the outbreak of war with Russia) (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2020).

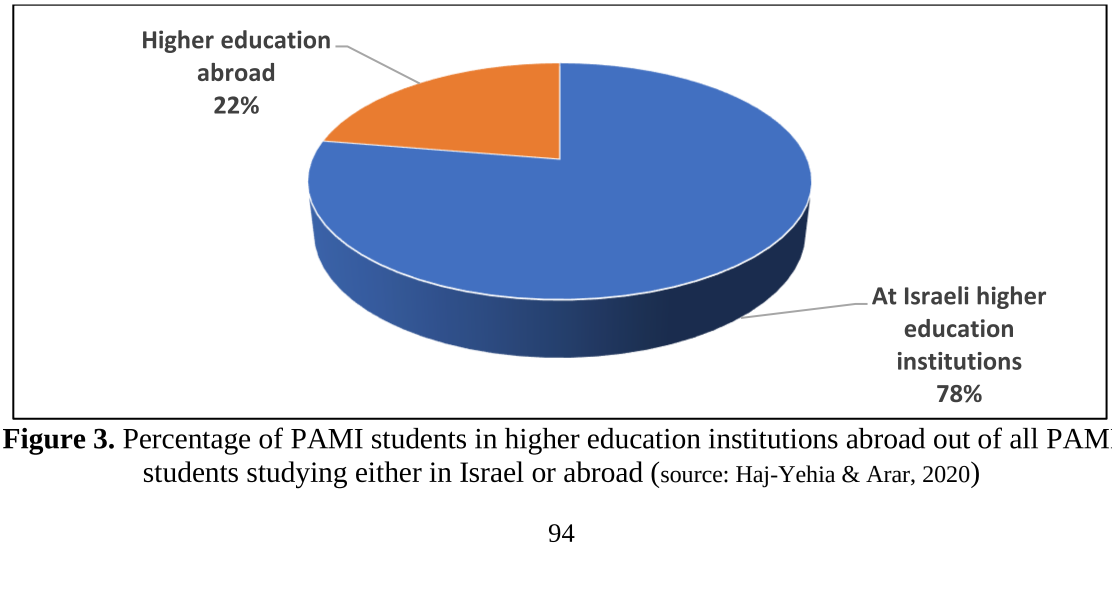

Figure 3. Percentage of PAMI students in higher education institutions abroad out of all PAMI students studying either in Israel or abroad (source: Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2020)

Table 2. Distribution of PAMI students studying in Palestinian universities in 2019/2020 (source: Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2020)

University	Number of PAMI students
Al-Najah – Nablus	1,806
Al-Quds – Abu Dis	610
Palestinian University Khaduri	14
Beit Lehem University	7
Beit Zeit University	35
Palestinian Engineering Polytechnic University	40
Hebron University	788
American University - Jenin	6,020
Total	9,320

Table 2 shows that the largest concentration of PAMI students in Palestinian higher education institutions can be found in the private American University, Jenin (a town in the north of the West Bank) and number 6,020 students. The second largest concentration of PAMI students (1,806 students) was found in the AlNajah University in Nablus (the largest Palestinian Authority public university, situated in the central West Bank). Another concentration of 610 students was found in the private Abu Dis University in Eastern Jerusalem (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2017).

The data indicate that most PAMI students studying abroad study medicine, dentistry and pharmacy (53%) (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2014; Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2020). Indeed, very high numbers of PAMIs study human medicine in AlNajah National University and Al Quds University in Abu Dis. Additionally many PAMIs study auxiliary medical professions abroad (31% of all disciplines), especially in the Palestinian universities (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2017).

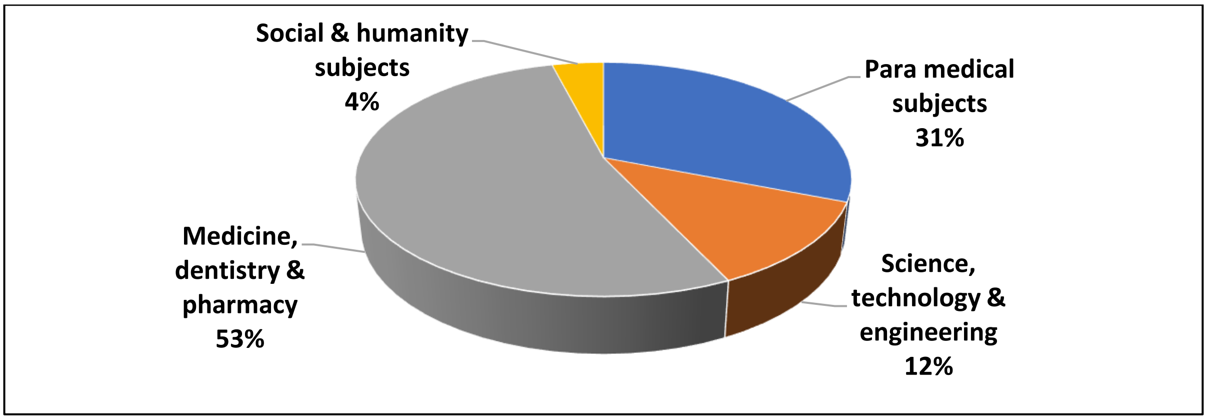

Figure 4. Top four disciplines studied abroad by PAMI students 2019-2020 (Source: Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2020)

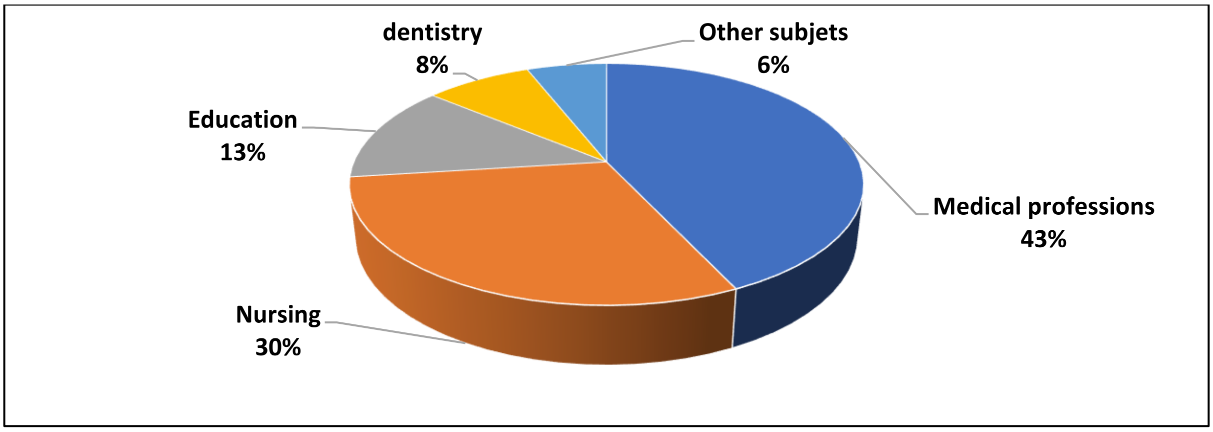

Figure 5. Disciplines studied by PAMI students in the American University, Jenin, 2017-2018 (Source: Palestinian Higher Education Council, 2018)

Table 3. Disciplines studied by PAMI students in AlNajah University, Nablus, 2019-2020 (Source: Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2020)

Discipline	Number of students
Exact Sciences	14
Life Sciences	20
Al Sharia (religion)	61
Education sciences and teacher training	143
Engineering and Technology	13
Medical sciences and Health	1,339
Economics and social science	117
Agriculture and veterinary science	54
Law	6
Arts	38
Advanced degrees	1
Total	1806

Table 4. Distribution of PAMI students in universities in Palestinian Authority territories by discipline studied in the academic year 2018 (Source: Palestinian Higher Education Council, 2018)

Discipline studied	Number of students
Medicine	881
Dentistry	423
Para-medical professions and pharmacy	3676
Law, social sciences and humanities and education	2440
Engineering	338
Other	352
Total	8110

It is noted that PAMI students studying abroad are characterized by their relatively young age (ranging from 19-25 years). The percentage of PAMI studying abroad aged 19-22 exceeds the percentage of Jewish students in the same age range in Israel. 22% of Arab academics completed their academic studies abroad, compared to only 5% of Jewish academics who completed academic studies abroad. Most of the PAMI return to their homeland immediately after graduating. As already noted, almost 30% of PAMI students studying abroad are female, which is considered a new phenomenon in recent years as female mobility was spatial and somehow restricted. The students' families constitute their main economic support (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2020). In contrast to other students who travel from their homeland to study and remain in the country where they studied, the PAMI travel abroad to study a promising profession that will enable them to be financially autonomous and gain respect when they return to their homeland (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2014) therefore, there migration is temporarily and circular. They hope that this profession will improve their social status. This motivation differs from that of students who travel abroad to study in order to change their environment and experience a different culture and lifestyle (Brooks & Waters, 2011).

Concluding Remarks

The aim of this article is to explore trends of PAMI students' mobility for higher education abroad, and to identify the reasons and motivations for this phenomenon. Statistics show that 22% of all PAMI students are currently studying outside Israel and the article lists the broad-ranging reasons for this and the main trends in their choice of location for their studies, especially in the last two decades. Additionally, the article aimed to answer the following questions: what do the PAMI students choose to study abroad? And what are the characteristics of PAMI students studying abroad?

There is a correlation between ethnic minority members' temporary migration for higher education and improvement of their subsequent career potential and socio-economic mobility (Arar et al., 2022; Arar & Haj-Yehia, 2010; Brooks & Waters, 2011). When PAMI students migrate for revenue benefits, like members of other ethnic minority groups, they primarily consider the availability of employment opportunities in local markets both during their studies in the destination country and following their studies on their return to their homeland (Brooks & Waters, 2009).

The temporary migration and geographical mobility of PAMI students appears somewhat different from the mobility of other international students, thus this phenomenon merits profound and comprehensive research to understand its characteristics and features as well as the motivations behind the phenomenon. In principle, this phenomenon seems to stem largely from 'push' factors in their country of origin and 'pull' factors in the countries chosen for their higher education. Their mobility for academic studies differs from the mobility of other students elsewhere in the world because the push factors that motivate them are mainly restricted future employment opportunities and limited educational and learning opportunities in their home country, especially obstacles in accessing higher education in the local national universities in Israel (Arar & Haj-Yehia, 2016a; Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2014, 2020). The factors which attract PAMI students to academic studies in particular countries, are pull factors, such as opening up availability of future employment opportunities, providing many opportunities for educational achievements, easier access to higher education, work and study opportunities, free tuitions, scholarship, and financial aids (Arar & Haj-Yehia, 2010, 2013, 2016a; Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2014).

The above-detailed statistics indicate that more than half of the PAMI students studying abroad today acquire their higher education in Palestinian Authority universities (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2016, 2020). The disciplines that they chose were primarily medicine, dentistry, and all types of auxiliary medical professions and lastly pharmacy. It is concluded that there is a significant reduction in the number of PAMI choosing to study in Jordan today as a proportion of those studying abroad and the current flow of PAMI students is toward the Palestinian universities in the West Bank mainly followed by universities abroad.

Although it might be assumed that PAMI students would prefer to study in an Arab environment such as in the Palestinian Authority territories and Jordan for ideological and cultural reasons, in practice, throughout the world it has been demonstrated that utility, and practical considerations are the primary motives when students choose the venue for their higher education studies (Croll, 2009).

PAMI students, aged from 25-44, travel abroad to study far more than Jewish students of a similar age. In an analysis of survey data relating to adult and international skills, the PIAAC[1] (OECD, 2021), it can be seen that a fifth of the PAMI students completed their studies abroad in comparison to 5% of Jewish Israeli students (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2020). It is clear that the increase in the number of PAMI travelling abroad to complete their higher education is due to their strong ambition and academic activity taking place in Arab society in Israel today, hindered by difficulties in gaining admission to Israeli universities in similar majors.

The latest figures on the phenomenon of PAMI studies in foreign universities still point up the large deficiencies of the Arab education system, discrimination in admission policies for Israeli universities, and other obstacles facing PAMI students wishing to study in academic institutions in Israel, especially when they would like to study medical professions, which are their preferred professions for study when they travel abroad (Arar et al., 2015). In fact, the main factor that explains the increase in the number of PAMI students studying abroad is the obvious disproportion between the large number of PAMI students wishing to study medicine and para-medical professions and the limited number of places available for such studies in Israeli universities. Thus, there is a large gap between the demand and supply of educational possibilities, especially obvious with regard to medical and paramedical studies, however as noted this is the most sought-after profession for most PAMI students. The latest statistics concerning PAMI students indicate that 53% of them study medical professions in foreign universities (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2020). This tendency towards medical professions, which is not supported by prior guidance and instruction, is typical of preferred studies sought by a minority, and reflects a desire for independence and attainment of high social status. These studies represent the realization of a dream both for the individual student and for their family and for this they are willing to make many sacrifices and to travel abroad in order to overcome the obstacles that stand in their way in their homeland (Haj-Yehia & Arar, 2014).

[1] Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies

The increase in the number of Israeli graduates from foreign universities, most of them from PAMI society, necessitates an alteration of government policies regarding the acceptance of male and female PAMI students to these professions. PAMI students, who do not study medical professions in Israeli universities, receive their license to work in medicine in Israel after they complete their studies abroad. The latest data from the Israeli Ministry of Health indicate that from 2010-2018 licenses to practice medicine were awarded to 57,000 medicine faculty graduates, 17,000 of which were awarded to graduates from foreign universities, 30% of them Jewish graduates and 70% Arab graduates (Israel Ministry of Health, 2018). This fact would appear to support the assertion that these graduates had the capability to study medicine in Israeli universities.

Further implications include the need to discuss and rethink policy design facilitating access pathways to higher education in current Israeli universities, including policies for future economic development planning to meet demands for the employment of PAMI graduates. In addition, on the basis of the above review of the statistics on PAMI students and given the increase in applications to higher education among the PAMI, the historical struggle of the PAMI to establish a Palestinian university/ies in Israel can be strongly argued and justified and should receive precedence in the public agenda and future planning of higher education.

To summarize, it is important to discuss the phenomenon of PAMI students' studying abroad in terms of planning higher education, economic and employment policies, and directing more students to higher education in 21st century disciplines; digital technology to address future subject and needs. In addition, it is important to consider how the status of minorities in the world should be considered in the design and shaping of international higher education policy.

Recent research concerning PAMI students' higher education has focused on the issue of those student's global mobility. Nevertheless, it is no less important to take into account the fact that global higher education institutions have also begun to focus on planning policies for the internationalization of higher education. These global higher education institutions have begun to play a significant role in developing their work with international students in Europe and even in Palestinian universities because they are the main beneficiaries of this expanding phenomenon.

Finally, future planning and aspirations for an innovative higher education orientation should be aware of and take into account current and future needs both domestically and globally. This becomes especially imperative due to the current globalized economy and development of knowledge technology.

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The Course of Managerialism in Turkish Higher Education: An Analysis of Quality Assurance Policies and Practices

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Abstract
Neoliberal policies in higher education in Türkiye started after the 1980s and manifested in managerial practices since the 2000s. This trend resulted in the commercialization of higher education and the increased managerial control over academic activity. The purpose of the paper is to study managerialism on the policies of the Council of Higher Education (Yükseköğretim Kurulu, hereafter YÖK) and its practices in universities in Türkiye. The implementation of quality assurance policies through YÖK is a key component in understanding managerialism in the university context. The paper is based on documentary analysis of quality assurance regulations as well as internal quality assurance reports of Middle East Technical University (Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, hereafter ODTÜ). Documentary analysis gave us the opportunity to track the historical course of quality assurance policies and practices. We find out that managerial policies and practices are on the rise during the last two decades in Türkiye through the requirement of quality assurance processes by YÖK, and that the reflection of YÖK requirements in university practices is variable in different managerial dimensions.

Keywords: Managerialism, Higher education, Türkiye, Quality assurance, Neoliberal university

Introduction

In early 2022, Dokuz Eylül University, one of the oldest higher education institutions in Türkiye, dismissed four academics on the grounds that they did not meet performance criteria. This incident, which was widely reported in the national press (Pehlivan, 2021, 2022; Sağol, 2022) is an exemplary case showing the managerial transformation taking place in higher education institutions. The Rectorate of Dokuz Eylül University based this decision on the failure of the four academics who are doctoral faculty members to comply with the reappointment criteria. Law on Higher Education gives higher education institutions the right to set additional measurable and auditable conditions for the reappointment of doctoral faculty members by obtaining the approval of YÖK. As a result, faculty members whose contracts were not renewed on the basis of performance criteria lost their jobs, while those who continued to work were obliged to adapt to the current system, that is, evaluation of substantive academic work by quantitative criteria. This understanding, which controls scientific activity through quantitative scales such as input-output or performance corresponds to managerialism, the final phase of transformations in university administrations all over the world.

Prior to such transformations, the idea of the university has been associated with intellectual activity since the Enlightenment. This association started to change its form following the tasking of universities with the education of the labour force by the nation-state by the turn of the 20th century, enabling the introduction of the business culture into the university setting (Veblen, 2005). Since the 1980s the business culture further penetrating academia with neoliberal policies caused major transformations in

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how universities are managed at the institutional, national and international levels, resulting in the prevalence of managerial thought and practices.

The penetration of business culture into the academy through neoliberal policies has resulted in the prevalence of managerial thought and practices within universities. Understood as the belief in and the practice of private sector methods within the public setting, managerialism in higher education resulted in the management of universities as business enterprises. In Türkiye, neoliberalization and the consequent managerialization of higher education followed a similar course to the global trend, with the prevalence of private sector methods increasing in universities since the 1980s. This was coupled by the effects of the Bologna process on Turkish higher education, which served to standardise academic work and resulted in the emergence of a student centered approach in the universities. A major instrument of the Bologna process over the university system in Türkiye have been quality processes. Through YÖK procedures concerning quality assurance criteria, the standardisation and privatization of academic work in Turkish universities were made possible.

In this paper, we aim at studying the course of managerial policies and practices within the university system in Türkiye. Türkiye presents an intriguing case in terms of managerialism in higher education, with a centrally controlled university system and neoliberal policies penetrating the higher education field since the 1980s. Within a political context where universities have historically been associated with political movements, Türkiye's universities are under strict government control through YÖK. This resulted in the penetration of managerialism in higher education, not through arguments of efficiency of profit from the part of universities but through the application of central policies of YÖK, crystallized in the Bologna process.

Despite the opportunity that the Türkiye case presents to study managerialism in a centrally-controlled higher education setting, a limited number of studies have been produced on managerialism within the Turkish university context. Among two studies undertaken, Sarvan and Akar's (2011) piece is showing the collegial institutional culture of Akdeniz University which did not allow managerialism to settle; Kuzu (2020), on the other hand, is focusing on the conceptual and historical evolution of the thought of managerialism. In contrast to previous studies, our paper is focusing on the origin and course of managerial policies and practices in Türkiye.

To study the course of managerial policies and practices we employ a documentary analysis method using quality assurance policy documents and publicly available yearly quality assurance reports of ODTÜ. The selection of documentary analysis, as well as quality assurance documents is due to the opportunity created in tracking the historical course of managerial policies and practices and in analysing the central control over universities through available data on policy and practice. By looking at these reports as well as at YÖK policies, we reveal the course of managerial influences in higher education policy and practices in Türkiye. Additionally, we aim at revealing how the quality policies reflect on the reported practices within universities by studying the overlaps and cleavages between documents. Finally, we discuss how quality policies and practices differ depending on different dimensions of managerialism to understand the specifics of the Turkish higher education case.

Concepts and Theoretical Background

Neoliberalism and Higher Education

Neoliberalism can be defined as a modern version of liberal thinking, taking shape in the policies of Thatcher in the UK and Reagan in the US during the 1980s. A neoliberal state is marked by privatization in sectors that are run or heavily regulated by the state such as education (Harvey, 2005). Actors in the market are responsible for their actions and wealth in terms of health, education, and well-being. This results in the retraction of the state from social policy areas and the growth of the role of the private sector in public decision-making. However, this didn't happen at the expense of state power and as a result of the retraction of the state. Harvey explains this as a radical reformulation of state institutions rather than their retraction.

Neoliberal reformulation of state institutions should be analysed by considering the different appearances of neoliberalism. Mudge (2008) makes a distinction between three worlds that neoliberalism is born out of; intellectual, bureaucratic, and political. While political and bureaucratic faces of neoliberalism reflect the changing role of the state as we conveyed from Harvey above, the intellectual world neoliberalism represents the moral neoliberal project. In its intellectual face, neoliberalism takes the market as a sacred institution and believes in its benefits over society, holding the market as the condition for attaining freedom in all aspects of life. This belief in the market as a moral compass requires the expansion of market logic onto domains that are previously accepted as public, such as higher education.

While some scholars expected the retraction of neoliberal beliefs following the 2007 crisis, neoliberal policies only changed shape and stayed even more relevant with the emergence of more authoritarian models of neoliberal practice such as the Trump administration and the recent progressive neoliberalism of the Democratic party in the US (Hursh, 2020). Under both old and new forms of neoliberalism, the effects of market logic penetrating higher education are visible in the approach to academics as human resources and to students as clients. However, there is a deeper shift beyond these effects, as the whole management and functioning of universities are formatted from a business culture perspective. For Olssen and Peters (2005, p. 324) the result is most evident in the major shift in the perception of education: 'On this model, education is represented as an input–output system which can be reduced to an economic production function'.

This is reflected in the university's institutional organization, in the move from professionalism to managerialism. Under this process called de-professionalization, the principle of autonomy is replaced with authority and control. To build such authority, the neoliberal model of university needs the presence of managers, instead of autonomous professional academics. While the advent of neoliberalism weakens the position of academics, their weakening, in turn, allows a heavier dominance of business logic through the increase of power of managers, who exert more and more control over the academic activity. This is reflected in the changing requirements of academic characteristics, with the leadership within universities turning more and more towards business-friendly academics under a neoliberal regime (Giroux, 2002).

Managerialism: Definitions and Approaches

The relationship between neoliberalism and managers is not limited to the role of managers in controlling the workforce under neoliberalism. The increased importance of managers within organizations and the emergence of managerialism predates neoliberal ideology (Burnham, 1972). Still, there are several similarities between neoliberalism and managerialism, in their theoretical roots as well as in their practicalities. This is reflected in the existence of varying views in the literature about the relationship between neoliberalism and managerialism and in the lack of agreed definitions. While some scholars adopt a practical definition of managerialism, treating it as a tool of neoliberal ideology; others treat it as a distinct ideology in itself.

Taking roots from public choice theory and new institutional economics (Peters, 2013), managerialism is defined as the emphasis on private sector practices within the public sector setting, in its simplest and most agreed-upon definition (Teelken, 2012). Among these theoretical sources, public choice theory refers to the application of economic methods to the study of public behaviours. The theory presupposes that individuals are rationally acting agents in the market who favor their self-interest and focuses on the study of the institutions of exchange between these rational actors. The theory claims that these institutions, through the actions of rational actors, result in the state of equilibrium, without any need for government intervention. Peters believes that the result of the application of public choice theory in the political field is the limitation of political relationships to non-voluntary and power involving actions only.

New institutional economics is the second theoretical source of managerialism for Peters (2013). For the proponents of new institutional economics, neither firms nor governments are not production functions, but they are governance structures. The benefit of a governance structure is that it reduces transaction costs by finding the most efficient solutions to the problems in their respective areas. Consequently, to come up with the most efficient solutions the practice of management became closely related to the issue of the culture of governance. This not only resulted in the prevalence of governance structures in the private sector, but also in their extension to public services.

In some studies, managerial practices are defined as 'new public management' (NPM) (Bessant et al., 2015). NPM involves the application of private sector management discourses to the public sector by the use of modernization, cost-effectiveness, and efficiency arguments. However, this restricted definition of NPM disregards the ideological dimension of managerialism, based on the idea that such practices are deployed to legitimize the 'right to manage' of managers and consequently used to maintain relations of power and domination (Deem & Brehony, 2005, p. 220). Even though managers do not constitute a class, they are distinctive social groups and 'have common interests in the exercise of relations of power and domination over other employees in those settings' (Deem & Brehony, 2005, p. 231).

In this study we will adopt the approach suggested by Deem (1998), treating managerialism in an extensive scope and acknowledge its characteristic as an ideology. Deem defines managerialism as ‘the adoption by public sector organizations of organizational forms, technologies, management practices and values more commonly found in the private business sector’ (1998, p. 47). It is based on the belief that management, and managerialism in specific, is an objective search for efficiency, effectiveness, and excellence (Deem, 2001). When the main objective is set as the attainment of efficiency in every aspect of higher education; practices such as target setting, intrusive monitoring of effectiveness through “staff appraisal, overt measurement of employee performance and outcomes” (Deem, 2001, p. 11) become prevalent under a managerial regime.

The effects of these managerial practices become clearer in comparison to different ideas of management. Kolsaker (2008) gives a detailed overview of differences between traditional governance systems based on professionalism and collegiality and managerialism in universities. In highlighting the differences between the managerial and traditional systems, Olssen (2002, as cited in Kolsaker, 2008) provides for an ideal-type model of neo-liberal and liberal university governance. According to ideal-type models, these two governance models are marked by their differences in mode of control, management function, goals, work relations, accountability, marketing, pedagogy/teaching and research (Kolsaker, 2008). The emergence of managerial governance destructed the collegial autonomy achieved by academic professionals over their professional training, certifications of competence and conditions of work and practice (Beck & Young, 2005).

In the contrast between managerial and collegial ideals, some scholars found positive developments in the introduction of managerialism during the 1990s. Henkel (1997) mentions the positive effects the performance measurement systems had on the teaching quality by focusing on student experience. Similarly, Deem (1998) mentions that due to gendered organizational cultures of collegial universities in the UK, some women may support the advent of managerialism, with the expectation that it will create a culture of equality based on the claims of objectivity and scientific approach of managerial thought. Despite these optimistic views of managerialist practices, studies undertaken during the 2000s revealed that managerialism did not result in the shift of power within the male dominant collegial cultures (Davies, 2003). On the contrary, studies showed that gender equality is a managerial strategy to maintain consent and that managerialism has an inherent patriarchal nature (Archer, 2008).

According to other scholars, managerialism has not only replaced collegiality but also succeeded in the bureaucratic management approach. Barberis (2012), in his conceptual piece, describes managerialism in contrast to bureaucratic management. He suggests that the major difference between two is the absence of parameters and guiding spirits that bureaucratic management has in managerialism. This absence results in managerialism to be very susceptible to become self-serving, and an end itself. Barberis goes on to define five main characteristics of managerialism, as an effort to present an ideal type. The first character is change, which originates from the belief that change is good for an organization and that managers are drivers of change. The second is control, which places the managers in a higher power position in comparison to professionals, through mechanisms to monitor and scrutinize the professional work undertaken. The third is dissemination, concerning the dissemination of the management message through changes in the language. The fourth is leadership, in order to support the change agenda within the organization. Final and the fifth characteristic is achievement, which stands for an emphasis on the outcomes rather than the processes through the use of performance indicators and measuring tools.

A Conceptualization of Managerialism in Higher Education

As given in the above section, literature on managerialism hosts numerous empirical studies in different national higher education contexts on the effects that managerialism had on scientific community, academic work and the quality of teaching. However, there are very few attempts to conceptually define managerialism despite the great need for it given the existence of several connected and inter-related concepts given in the previous section. The most comprehensive efforts to provide for an ideal type of managerialism are undertaken by Kolsaker (2008) and Shepherd (2018). Kolsaker's effort focuses on the contrast between traditional and managerial modes of governance by defining eight areas for comparison. Despite having an impressive level of detail of practices this proposal overlooks the general components of managerialism as well as underlying beliefs pertaining to those components. Shepherd's effort, on the other hand, defines both general characteristics and underlying beliefs of managerial dimensions.

Looking at various existing practical definitions of managerialism, and benefiting from Kolsaker and Shepherd's ideal types, we set out to make our own conceptualization, to achieve clarity in our study, and to apply it to the case of Higher Education in Türkiye. In terms of defining the components of managerialism, we mainly benefited from Shepherd (2018), who defines six characteristics of managerialism and their underlying beliefs. After carefully contrasting those characteristics with our data, we decided to combine two dimensions and define managerialism in five main dimensions for the Turkish higher education case (see Table 1). To define practices in relation to those five dimensions and their respective underlying beliefs, we benefited from Kolsaker's (2018) ideal type. By combining managerial dimensions in Shepherd's work which have very approximate scopes and by adding their most visible practical revelations benefitting from Kolsaker, we propose 5 dimensions of managerialism in higher education (See Table 1).

Table 1. Dimensions of managerialism in higher education

Managerial Dimension	Underlying Belief	Practices
Increased Control and Regulation of Academic Work by Managers	Management is a discrete function	Strengthening of line management function, adoption of human resource management techniques, student satisfaction orientation
Ethos of Enterprise and an Emphasis on Income Generation	Private sector methods are superior	Adoption of a business-like approach, competition between departments, branding of university, PR activities
Goal of Meeting Socio-Economic Needs	Universities' role is to solve social or economic needs and educate the labour force	Teaching according to labour market needs, government and business involvement in research
Rational Approach to Management	Management is rational and value-neutral	A shift from inputs and processes to outputs and outcomes, logical and rational decision making, measurement and quantification of outputs.
The Establishment of a Management Culture	Management is a good thing and it is universally applicable	Appointment of business people to posts within universities, increased authority of managers, development of management culture based on entrepreneurship and leadership

Among these dimensions, the first four represent practical manifestations of managerialism and are treated as a tool of neoliberal ideology used in organizational settings. The fifth dimension is defined as the ideological representation of managerialism as it involves power relations and reflects the interests of managers as a class.

Materials and Methodology

Neoliberalism, Managerialism and Quality Assurance in Higher Education in Türkiye

Before moving to the emergence of managerialism in universities in Türkiye, we start by describing the general conditions of higher education in the country. These conditions are directly linked to the neoliberal transformation process that started in the 1980s. In the period between 1960-1980, an economic model based on import substitution and planned development was implemented in Türkiye. This model entered into a phase of crisis towards the end of the 1970s (Öniş, 2004) and in response, a stabilisation and structural adjustment programme was introduced in cooperation with international organizations on January 24, 1980. (Şenses, 2016). Through this programme, the neo-liberal transformation in Türkiye was implemented with the encouragement and support of the IMF and the World Bank, constituting one of the first examples of the Washington Consensus in the world.

For the neo-liberal transformation to be implemented smoothly, political actors who were active before 1980 were suppressed by the military intervention of September 12, 1980 (Erol et al., 2016). Seen as the source of anarchy and discontent during the 1970s, the universities were also in need of strict control along with the political actors. For the members of junta, universities has to be institutions that are rational, sterile, and free from the messiness of ideological struggles as a reflection of a technocratic endeavour (Erol et. al., 2016). YÖK, as a central body controlling and regulating the higher education system, was established in 1981 in order to achieve these ends, eliminating autonomous status of universities.

In the reorganization of higher education, two guiding principles were adopted; hierarchical organization and introduction of market mechanisms (Ergur, 2003). In terms of the establishment of hierarchical structure, YÖK and the central appointment of university rectors played a vital role. Introduction of market mechanisms, on the other hand, was achieved under the guise of standardising university education and administration. In other terms, it is possible to argue that YÖK was one of the most critical institutions in the realisation of neo-liberal transformation in higher education institutions in Türkiye (Coşar & Ergül, 2015).

The establishment of Foundation Universities in Türkiye marked an important step in marketization of higher education in Türkiye. This paved the way for the emergence of private universities, on the basis that public higher education institutions were inefficient and globally uncompetitive (Birler, 2012, p. 140). The effects of the marketization of higher education are reflected in many aspects of university life. Major consequences of these effects were; commercialization on the morality of academicians (Nalbantoğlu, 2003), precarization, and deskilling of academic labour (Vatansever & Yalçın, 2015), neoliberalising subjectivities of academic workers (Budak, 2017) and transformation of the role of academic institutions for meeting market needs (Uzunyayla & Ercan, 2011).

Apart from these major consequences, the marketization of higher education in Türkiye also introduced the concept of quality assurance in the university setting. This emergence of quality assurance mechanisms, which is a consequence of the intrusion of market logic and managerialism into higher education (Beckmann & Cooper, 2013), is a relatively new phenomenon in universities in Türkiye. Limited and isolated efforts on establishing quality assurance in higher education institutions in Türkiye in the second half of the 1990s (Tekeli, 2009), remained non-institutionalized up until Türkiye participated in the Bologna Process as a part of the EU accession goal of the country.

In 2001, Türkiye officially participated in the Bologna Process. The Bologna Process was regarded by various scholars as the most recent example of the state's quest to implement neoliberal reforms (Coşar

& Ergül, 2015, p. 103). Officially, it aims at the generation of comparability of different university systems in terms of qualities and standards. As a result, several institutions were established within YÖK to achieve quality assurance and development in higher education institutions. With the Regulation of Academic Evaluation and Quality Development in Higher Education Institutions in 2005, YÖK introduced a requirement for universities to undertake 'evaluation and improvement of the quality of education and training, research activities and administrative services' (YÖK, 2005). To achieve this end, The Commission of Academic Evaluation and Quality Development in Higher Education Institutions' (YÖDEK) was established which prepared the Guidance of Academic Evaluation and Quality Development in Higher Education Institutions. In accordance with the Guidance prepared by YÖDEK, each higher education institution is required to prepare annual self-evaluation reports on quality practices. To coordinate quality activities within the higher education institution, the regulation requires all universities to establish their own Academic Evaluation and Quality Improvement Committee (ADEK), which would evaluate internally to what degree the mission and vision of the institution are achieved and the quality and standards are met.

The quality organization in higher education undertook a change with the introduction of the Higher Education Quality Assurance Regulation that entered into force in 2015 (see Table 2). The regulation took the requirements of quality management systems into the next and more institutionalized level. The name of the YÖDEK changed to The Higher Education Quality Council of Türkiye (YÖKAK). To replace the Guidance of Academic Evaluation and Quality Development in Higher Education Institutions in line with the new regulation, YÖKAK published an Institutional Self-Evaluation Directive. Also with 2015 Regulation, Academic Evaluation and Quality Improvement Committee (ADEK) was replaced with Quality Commission. This change of regulation provides for a convenient opportunity to analyse the course of quality policies in higher education in Türkiye.

Table 2. Development of the Organization of Quality Assurance in Higher Education in Türkiye

	2005	**2015**	**Notes**
Regulations	Regulation of Academic Evaluation and Quality Development in Higher Education Institutions	Higher Education Quality Assurance Regulation	Legal framework of quality assurance and development was first established by regulation of 2005. In 2015, new regulation replaced the previous one
Central Institutions	The Commission of Academic Evaluation and Quality Development in Higher Education Institutions (YÖDEK)	The Higher Education Quality Council of Türkiye (YÖKAK)	In line with 2005 regulation, YÖDEK was established within YÖK in order to organize the quality assurance in higher education institutions. With 2015 Regulation, YÖDEK was replaced with YÖKAK
Guidelines	Guidance of Academic Evaluation and Quality Development in Higher Education Institutions	Institutional Self-Evaluation Directive	In 2005, YÖDEK prepared the guidance of Academic Evaluation and Quality Development. In 2015, the 2005 guidance replaced by Directive prepared by YÖKAK
Organisations at University level	Academic Evaluation and Quality Improvement Committee (ADEK)	Quality Commission	Each higher education institution established their own quality assurance committees. In line with 2005 guidance, ADEK was established within universities. With 2015 directive, ADEK was replaced with Quality Commission

Methodology

The study is based on documentary analysis of university self-evaluation reports, as well as policy documents. The opportunity to access publicly available and regular data about universities' activities was the first reason to use quality reports and policies. Secondly, we wanted to look at the role of quality processes in the neoliberal and managerial turn in universities, which is studied extensively in the literature, especially within the context of the Bologna Process. By looking at the quality reports, we aimed at capturing the course of managerial practices and comparing it with the course of quality policies set out for universities. We treated enactments and reports as sources documenting policy processes and their practices (Karppinen & Moe, 2012). In doing this, we are not claiming objectivity of policy documents or reports; on the contrary, we accept that similarly to data created by the researcher, data created by others and analysed by the researcher is bound with the intentions of the author and subjectivity of the researcher. While we are aware of the limitations that documentary analysis presents in this case such as the differences between quality reports and actual quality implementations, we believe that the credibility of the documents such as policies or university self-evaluation reports narrating the actual implementation of policies mitigates this limitation. Moreover, although university reports may not inform us fully about the policy implementation, as stated by Saarinen (2008), policies and reports give us a fairly good idea of the practices by creating and supporting those practices.

In our quest to reach self-evaluation reports of universities, we initially browsed websites of relevant units of each of 73 universities, which were founded by 2002 and still operational as of August 2020. While reports after the publishing of the 2015 regulation were available for most universities, previous reports were made available online only by ODTÜ. In 2005, the drafting of yearly self-evaluation reports on quality processes became mandatory for all universities along with the requirement of making these reports publicly available. Based on this requirement we contacted the remaining 72 universities by e-mail to access the reports. Pre-2015 reports were shared by only Gazi and Trakya Universities. However, these reports were missing data and the quality of the content was not enough for a healthy analysis of our research question. As a result of our quest to access self-evaluation reports, we had only reports of ODTÜ for our required time-span and in our required data quality and availability. Accordingly, we selected ODTÜ as the case for our analysis, based on data availability and data quality constraints. We also considered the representative quality of our study in this selection as ODTÜ combines the technical university status with a strong social sciences tradition.

Based in Ankara, the capital and the second most populated city in Türkiye, ODTÜ is one of the oldest and most credible universities in the country, being founded in 1956. The founding purpose of the university was to contribute to the development of Türkiye and Middle East countries by educating specialists in social and especially in natural sciences (ODTÜ, 2011). The first departments founded were architecture and mechanical engineering. Despite being a technical university by the foundation, focusing on science, technology, research, and development, ODTÜ always had a strong social sciences research heritage as well. Currently ODTÜ offers 107 masters and 69 doctoral programmes in both social and natural sciences. It is a university in public university status and it has English as the primary language of education. ODTÜ had more than twenty-nine thousand students as of 2019. We consider that the technical university status as well as public university status of ODTÜ may affect the outcomes of this study by having an influence on the managerialist policies and practices at ODTÜ. However, considering the effect of YÖK, assimilating and closely controlling universities in all statuses in Türkiye, the representative character of the ODTÜ case becomes stronger and the study of the ODTÜ case from the point of managerialism becomes indicative for the general case of Turkish higher education.

Among the reports made available by ODTÜ, we included 2005, 2012, 2015, and 2019 reports (see Table 3) in our analysis, following the starting and ending points of quality process periods of YÖK, due to the change in the reporting format in 2015 and the unavailability of reports between 2013 and 2014. We also included policy documents within the scope of central quality processes in our analysis. Two regulations issued by the YÖK were included: Regulation of Academic Evaluation and Quality Development in Higher Education Institutions dated 2005 and Regulation of Higher Education Quality Assurance dated 2015 (see Table 2). Guidance and directive issued by relevant bodies for the use of universities in their self-evaluation processes were also included; Guidance of Academic Evaluation and

Quality Development in Higher Education version 1.1 dated 2007 issued by the YÖDEK, and Institutional Self-Evaluation Directive version 2.0 dated 2019 issued by YÖKAK (See Table 2).

Table 3. Evaluation Reports

2005	2012	2015	2019
ODTÜ-Self Evaluation Report	ODTÜ-Self Evaluation Report	ODTÜ-Internal Evaluation Report	ODTÜ-Internal Evaluation Report

In the analysis of the documents, Nvivo software was used, based on the codes created in line with the proposed conceptualization of managerialism above. These codes were the five dimensions of managerialism given in Table 1. For every practice related to five codes, we constructed a map of indicators based on our data. In total we had 46 indicators related to 21 practices of 5 codes. During the coding, a protocol was created to ensure coherence between coders. For each code keywords were determined in line with the most visible practices of managerial dimension of the given conceptualisation. These keywords were analysed using word frequency analysis and then initial analysis was verified by content analysis looking at the contexts of each keyword.

Findings

Increased Control and Regulation of Academic Work by Managers

The increased control of academic work by managers is based on the underlying belief that management is a discrete function, which should be left to managers instead of experts or professionals, independent of the work undertaken (see Table 1). In this view, a manager can manage all kinds of work, without possessing any knowledge on the work to be managed. In a university setting, increased control of academic work by managers may manifest in various ways. As given in Table 1, usual practices of this managerial dimension are: strengthening of line management function, adoption of human resource management techniques and student satisfaction orientation.

While the Student-centered approach, introduced through the Bologna process in Türkiye, takes the learner in the forefront of all education processes, it also opens the door for managerial practices, by promoting quantified, outcome-oriented and target-based approach to educational processes. This is mainly realized through the deployment of students as customers. As customers, students not only buy education as a service but also have to be pleased and satisfied by the deliverers of this service, academics. To ensure the satisfaction of the student-customers, student control instruments over academic work such as student evaluation surveys are introduced. This was undertaken in many universities around the world, as shown by Harris (2005) in the context of Australia and by Henkel (1997) in the context of the UK. Our data shows that this is also the case for Türkiye, evident in the dominant existence and of student-centered control mechanisms of academic work.

In this context, the analysis of policy documents shows a shift from the target-based approach in the management of academic work to a more student-centered approach in the control of academics. While the 2007 Guidance of YÖDEK describes in detail the process to determine the departmental targets, and how these targets will translate into personal targets of academics in the relevant departments without any reference to student satisfaction, the 2019 Directive is student satisfaction oriented, with the student-centered education counted among the criteria for the quality assurance processes (YÖKAK). Additionally, the presence of certificates of academics with regards to student-centered education is counted among the proofs for the best practice for educational approaches and techniques in the Directive. This focus is even more intensified with the student feedback system mentioned as a separate requirement for achieving maturity in the education sub-chapter of the document.

ODTÜ self-evaluation reports demonstrate parallel results to the shift in the quality policy documents. This shift is reflected in the increased focus on student-centered education approaches and tools. The word frequency analysis shows this increased focus, with the words ‘student satisfaction’ used almost five-fold more in the 2019 report compared to the 2005 report.

While the 2005 report mentions both performance evaluation criteria and class evaluation surveys for students, the student-centered approach is not very developed at that stage. The 2012 report follows a similar approach with mentions of student satisfaction surveys and the goals to improve education quality and assessment and evaluation tools as well as evaluation of university processes through a student-centered approach lens. With the introduction of the new reporting format in 2015, we see a more developed student-centered approach along with a connection between student evaluation and performance management of academics. The naming for student-centered processes is changed from 'Student Centered Education' (ODTÜ, 2006, p. 17; 2013, p. 19) to 'Student Centered Learning, Teaching, Assessing and Evaluating' (ODTÜ, 2016, p. 32). Parallelly, the number and scope of the satisfaction surveys for academic activity are increased considerably, with the introduction of new surveys directed to alumni, mid-term surveys, surveys on academic advising, surveys for systems of assessment and evaluation methods used in classes, and the publishing of results of student feedback for academics within the campus.

The 2019 self-evaluation report follows the same pattern. The report mentions; class workload survey for students, a new system of 6 parallel student satisfaction surveys, feedback form placed on the university website, seminars and training for academics on student-centered class design, and targeting 'active role of students in the implementation of the programs' (ODTÜ, 2019, p. 19). Moreover, the report points to a practice establishing clear links between student satisfaction and performance evaluation, with the results of class evaluation surveys becoming a criterion in the appointment, grading, and promotion of academics under the control of the manager. Overall, looking at the progress of the reports from 2005 to 2019, in parallel to the progress of the quality policy documents, an increase in the weight of student-centered approach is evident and this approach became an essential tool to control academic work by managers.

Rational Approach to Management

The underlying belief for the rational approach to management is that unlike other forms of government, management is rational, value-neutral and objective (see Table 1). According to this belief, this is the reason why management is the most efficient form of government. As given in Table 1, this dimension of managerialism may manifest in practices such as a shift from inputs and processes to outputs and outcomes, logical and rational decision making and measurement and quantification of outputs. In the context of Turkish higher education and ODTÜ, a rational approach to management is most visible in the emphasis on outputs and quantification practices.

2007 Guidance and 2019 Directive display similar approaches, with elements such as ‘strategic approach’, ‘targets’, ‘performance indicators’, and ‘quality’ dominant in both documents. However, using word frequency analysis in both documents, we witnessed that the usage of the word ‘output’ increased more than twofold in the 2019 Directive. This reflects the increased output orientation between 2007 and 2019, with the inclusion of program, learning, and lecture outputs, instead of an emphasis on the outputs of strategic planning and self-evaluation processes emphasized in the 2007 Guidance. Despite this increase in the output orientation, the documents display fairly similar approaches to rational management.

In parallel to what we observed in the study of the 2007 Guidance and 2019 Directive, the analysis of ODTÜ self-evaluation reports reveals a rise in the managerial dimension of a rational approach to management. This is most evident in the dramatically increased focus on outputs similarly to the legislation. The word frequency analysis of ‘output’ results in a three-fold increase between 2005 to 2012, a twelve-fold increase from 2012 to 2015, and a one and half-fold increase between 2015 and 2019 in the usage of the word. While all reports are marked by an emphasis on strategic planning and quality assurance approach, they differ in their level of intensification of the rational approach. 2005 and 2012 reports mention the determination of department and program outputs and unit performance indicators.

In the 2015 report, apart from the enlargement of output orientation to newer areas, we witnessed a major change in the establishment of an information management system, which aims to define and standardize all processes, measure performances and match these with university strategic goals and targets. The intensification of the rational management approach continues with the 2019 report, which further expands output orientation with the connection of research outputs to unit performance criteria and efforts to improve outputs of university projects. Overall, we conclude that the increased emphasis on outputs in the policy documents is well reflected in the ODTÜ self-evaluation reports, however with a difference of an additional focus on standardization, measuring, and strategic approach through the establishment of a new information management system.

Establishment of a Management Culture

Establishment of management culture is undertaken based on the underlying belief that management is a good thing for all possible situations and that it is universally applicable (see Table 1). This dimension of managerialism is manifested in practices such as; appointment of business people to posts within universities, increased authority of managers within the university and development of a management culture based on managerial values of entrepreneurship and leadership. Our documentary analysis of the cases of Turkish higher education and ODTÜ reflects varying results between different aspects of managerial culture. While there is a significant change in the development of aspects of management such as leadership, regarding issues such as the shift of authority from academics to managers or separation of academic and managerial work, the analysis did not yield any significant result.

One of the major changes between the two policy periods in the quality assurance in higher education in Türkiye is the increased emphasis on leadership and quality assurance culture in the 2019 Directive. The word frequency analysis results in the 7-fold increase of the use of 'leadership' from 2007 to 2019. The 2007 Guidance mentions the qualification of leadership approaches under the evaluation of administrative requirements. However, the leadership issue is much more developed in the 2019 Directive, with the establishment of leadership and quality assurance culture becoming a requirement for the self-evaluation activity of universities. The best practice offered by the 2019 Directive includes the adoption of a quality culture and leadership approach by all units and processes within the higher education institution. To achieve leadership and quality assurance culture, the institution is required to have approaches and mechanisms to measure the leadership features of its managers and its institutional culture.

Looking at the 2005 and 2012 self-evaluation reports of ODTÜ, issues such as leadership training for students emerge. While there is no evidence of a crucial change between the reports of 2005 and 2012, there is a major shift in the establishment of managerial culture after the 2015 report, which marks the introduction of new Regulation in the same year. The emphasis on leadership training is repeated after 2015. However, the analysis of 2015 and 2019 reports uncovers the expansion of such practice. The word frequency analysis shows that the word 'leadership' has a slight increase. However, the use of the word 'manager' shows a dramatic increase of almost four-fold between 2015 and 2019.

This increase is in line with the content of the report, with the 2012 report introducing management training for administrative personnel, and leadership and management training for academic personnel. Also, the emphasis is placed on the increase of managerial skills for administrative managers, and the increase in the managerial performance of the institution. The 2019 report displays an even more advanced focus on leadership and managers, with the introduction of a new management theory establishing a hierarchy of three management layers and connecting university missions and goals to the related management layers.

Overall, we conclude that the rising managerial culture through increased focus on leadership in the quality policy documents is reflected in the ODTÜ reports, coupled with an additional emphasis on management skills for various staff and institutions within the university.

Universities Meeting Socio-Economic Needs

According to the proponents of the managerialist view, universities' role is to solve social or economic needs and educate the labour force. This dimension of managerialism is manifested in practices of teaching according to labour market needs and government or business involvement in research activities (See Table 1). In many countries, higher education policies are determined by economic or development goals. In the UK, as conceptualized by Bernstein as 'regionalisation' of higher education (as cited in Beck & Young, 2005), the trend of making demand-led calculations to design higher education institutions has been popular since the late 20th century. This is also the case for Turkish higher education and is evident especially in the case of ODTÜ, owing to its status as a technical university.

Our analysis of quality policy documents reveals a significant increase in this regard. 2007 Guidance sets out a general framework for universities to address social problems and underlines the need for universities to establish relations with society, NGOs, businesses, and public bodies. The 2019 Directive takes a similar approach but develops and demands universities to institutionalize this requirement. This is reflected in the word frequency analysis, with the ten-fold increase of the use of 'stakeholder' from 2007 to 2019. More importantly, in the 2019 Directive, the vast majority of the required sub-headers of the self-evaluation process include proofs to demonstrate the participation of stakeholders in the policy-making processes in the university, including the process of program and class output determination. This is intensified with the fact that the 2019 Directive points out to universities the ways for more detailed organizational measures to include stakeholders into their processes, such as the calculation of student workload with regards to internship and business-university partnership programs as well as alumni monitoring methods.

ODTÜ self-evaluation reports from 2005 to 2019 reveals a significant increase in the level of institutionalization of universities meeting socio-economic needs. Word frequency analysis of ODTÜ reports results in a significant increase in the use of the word 'stakeholder'. While the frequency stayed constant between the 2005 and 2012 reports periods, after the introduction of the new Regulation in 2015, we witness a four-fold increase in the 2015 report, followed by a seven-fold increase in the 2019 report compared to the 2005 report. This can be linked to the increased emphasis on the role and participation of stakeholders with the introduction of new Regulation in 2015.

In parallel to what word frequency analysis displays, the content of the reports indicates an expansion in the role of external stakeholders in all of the activities of ODTÜ as well as an institutionalization of partnerships with public and private actors. The partnership initiatives are already extensive in the 2005 report. The report describes projects based on encouraging academic theses supporting industry needs, considering national needs and development goals in the design of academic programs, the high share of projects in research activities, and the presence of stakeholders in the consulting bodies of research centers. In the 2012 report, these findings are expanded with further initiatives aiming to; training researchers for industry needs, and developing partnerships for research centers.

The institutionalization of stakeholder relations takes a big step with the 2015 report with a new emphasis on the participation of internal and external stakeholders in most processes of the university and introduction of new offices and project initiatives aiming to offer paid services to industries, support to project writing and funding efforts and expanded career support activities for students. The increase in the business and public partnership offices and projects continue in the 2019 report with further institutionalization on issues such as; the discussion of the project, budget, and staff issues with external stakeholders; increased labour market support for students and graduates; increased project funding support such as financial or project consultancy support; and increased partnership protocols with public and private institutions.

In ODTÜ reports, we observed an increase in the stakeholder emphasis and cooperation with regards to private and public institutions in accordance with the course of quality policy documents. The fact that some of the above-mentioned initiatives are present in all reports from 2005 to 2019 at ODTÜ, may be explained by the fact that ODTÜ is a technical university. However, while ODTÜ places high importance on partnerships with public and business institutions, it is also known for its excellence in social sciences. Therefore, the increasing institutionalization of stakeholder participation at ODTÜ can be connected to the changing requirements by the quality policy documents as described above.

Ethos of Enterprise

Ethos of the enterprise dimension of managerialism can be traced to the belief that private sector methods are superior, even in the public service setting (See Table 1). In the university context, this managerial dimension can be seen in practices such as the adoption of a business-like approach, competition between departments, branding of university and activities related to public relations. Our analysis of policy documents shows no significant change between 2007 and 2019 from the part of YÖK in terms of requirements from universities regarding the ethos of enterprise. Both documents are marked by similar requirements about the focus on effectiveness and productivity with no significant shift. The results of the documentary analysis of ODTÜ self-evaluation reports reveal a similar picture. We did not observe a significant shift in terms of the university's emphasis to generate income. In 2005 and 2012 reports, this emphasis is located in the offering of paid services to public and private bodies as well as subcontracting some of the services of the university to private firms.

In the 2015 report, there are some added efforts to generate income such as the founding of a technology transfer office, which aims to commercialize the results of research activities of the university. Also, initiatives to support patenting efforts of academics and to improve resource efficiency are introduced. These efforts are expanded with the adoption of a new management system based on the Japanese economic growth model and efforts to promote paid services for public and private institutions in the 2019 report. These can be commented as a similar trend to what was observed in the YÖK's quality processes, with the continuation and slight increase of income-generating activity with no significant shift involved. However, a different claim and a potential area of further study may link this lack of high emphasis on the ethos of enterprise and income generation to the public university status of ODTÜ, which frees the university from profit orientation.

Results and Discussion

When we look at the quality policy documents in Türkiye and its practices in the self-evaluation reports of ODTÜ, we noted the following points:

- Looking at the quality policy documents between 2005 and 2019, we find a significant rise in the managerial characteristics of quality-related practices required from universities
- Quality policies in Turkish higher education undertook a major shift in 2015, with increased institutionalization of managerial practices required with the new Regulation adopted
- This increase in the managerial requirements in policy is well reflected in the managerial practices of universities, as shown by the ODTÜ case
- The levels of change in practice and conformity to policy in different dimensions of managerialism are variables, dependent on the specifics of the university context

More specifically, in three of the five managerial dimensions, as we set out in our conceptualisation of managerialism, both the policy and the practice show a significant increase in the managerial aspects. These are; increased control of academic activity by managers through the increase of student-centered approach; establishment of a management culture through the increase in the emphasis on leadership; rational approach to management through a stronger focus on output orientation. In two of these three dimensions, namely, the rational approach to management and the establishment of management culture, we noted an even stronger increase in managerial practices of ODTÜ in comparison to policy requirements. Firstly, this picture hints at the dominant role of quality policies in the increased managerialisation of university practices in Türkiye. With the dominant role of the state within the university system, both political control and managerialization of higher education were made possible.

The two dimensions of managerialism where ODTÜ is revealed to be more managerial than YÖK policies indicate that university priorities are also important in managerial activity. The rise of managerialism in Türkiye is not only imposed by policy actors but also was adopted by universities, such as the case of ODTÜ. The fact that a public university without the aim of income generation such as ODTÜ is implementing managerial practices beyond policy requirements demonstrates the prevalence of managerial culture even in academic settings.

Henkel (2005) shows how the concept of ‘strategic research’ was introduced and accordingly various forms of cooperation between private sector and universities were formed resulting in the dominance of business sponsorship in academic research in the UK higher education context. Increased partnership with businesses is an occurrence for all universities around the world, including Türkiye, as shown in our analysis of policy documents. However, ODTÜ reports show us that the importance put on business and state partnership is even more advanced than YÖK policy requirements. It is safe to assume that the high emphasis put on the role of ODTÜ in meeting socio-economic needs, is the result of its technical university status.

On the ethos of the enterprise dimension, we saw that both the policy and ODTÜ practice did not show a significant shift. This is contrary to the global trend, as shown in many studies, including the study conducted by Henkel (1997) on 6 UK universities, showing significant move to university as a corporate enterprise. The fact that in Türkiye YÖK policies are set for both private and public universities and that ODTÜ is a public university is a consideration which can possibly explain this contradiction. In any case the low emphasis on ethos of enterprise in YÖK and Turkish universities requires further study.

Out of the five dimensions of managerialism, we noted that four dimensions that are related to neoliberal ideology are more relevant for the Türkiye case. The fifth dimension; the establishment of a managerial culture, which refers to managerialism as a distinct ideology, is only relevant with the increased leadership focus within the institutional culture of universities. We conclude that the practical aspects of managerialism are stronger than its ideological aspects for the case of higher education in Türkiye.

The study of the course of managerial policies and practices in the case of Türkiye demonstrates the important role of central control in the global move to the managerial university. In a political setting where universities are seen as potential sources of social disorder, the belief in the supremacy of private sector methods can be imposed centrally and may further be deployed as a tool to increase central control through quality assurance policies. The consequences of this managerial control is a crucial topic to further investigate, especially regarding the academic identity. There are several studies undertaken on academic subjectivities in managerial times in various higher education systems (Davies & Petersen, 2005a, 2005b; Archer, 2008). However, for the case of Turkish higher education, apart from the study conducted by Budak (2017), there is an apparent need for studies exploring how managerialism acted on the subjectivities of the academics and the resulting resistance and coping mechanisms.

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An Analysis of Bylaws of Christian School Corporations in Japan: The Impact of Christianity on Organizational Governance

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Abstract

This study investigated the effects of Christianity-related (CR) words in bylaws on governance structures in Christian school corporations (CSCs) that established higher education institutions, such as private universities, in Japan. Governance structures in religious school corporations in Japan are characterized by the specific religion. Therefore, CR words in CSCs' bylaws are powerful clues to identify the characteristics of their governance structures. This study examined the bylaws of three Protestant Christian CSCs in Japan: Tohoku Gakuin, Kwansei Gakuin, and Seinan Gakuin. The numbers and percentages of Christian directors, councillors, and auditors were also assessed. The results indicated that (1) Tohoku Gakuin and Kwansei Gakuin do not mention any Christian denominations, whereas Seinan Gakuin does; (2) Kwansei Gakuin does not have a Christian code for directors, whereas Tohoku Gakuin and Seinan Gakuin do; (3) all CSCs have a Christian code for councillors; (4) the lowest percentage of Christians on the board of directors is 54.5% for Tohoku Gakuin, 0% for Kwansei Gakuin, and 62.5% for Seinan Gakuin; (5) the lowest percentage of Christians on the board of councillors is 52.1% for Tohoku Gakuin, 15.4% for Kwansei Gakuin, and 54.3% for Seinan Gakuin; and (6) the lowest percentage of Christians among auditors is 0% for Tohoku Gakuin, 0% for Kwansei Gakuin, and 50% for Seinan Gakuin. Moreover, Kwansei Gakuin employs a governance system that suppresses director voting by Christian councillors, whereas Christian councillors of Tohoku Gakuin and Seinan Gakuin encourage Christian director voting. Based on the findings, directions for further research are discussed.

Keywords: bylaws; governance structure; Christian school corporations

Introduction

This study aimed to examine the bylaws of Christian school corporations (CSCs) in Japan that strive to provide a Christian-based education and have established higher education institutions (hereafter universities) to investigate the effect of Christianity, as indicated by Christianity-related (CR) words, the decision-making structure, and processes (hereafter governance) of the organization.

Recent research has investigated the characteristics and governance of university organizations in Japan. These studies can be said to be attempts to examine the internal decision-making, responsibility, and information disclosure of universities, and implement necessary reforms (Institute for Development of Higher Education, 2012, 2014, 2018, 2020, 2022). In response to this trend, the *Nihon Shiritsu Daigaku Renmei* (The Japan Association of Private Universities and Colleges) and *Nihon Shiritsu Daigaku Kyokai* (Association of Private Universities of Japan) proposed their own governance codes to their member universities.

The legal basis for the governance of private universities in Japan is based on the Private School Law.[1] However, the specific form of governance is defined by the individual bylaws of school corporations.

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The governance of religious school corporations is often influenced by the specific religion that is the basis of the founding process and spirit of the institution (Saito, 2011). Therefore, the language of the bylaws regarding religion sheds light on organizational governance. This study examined CR words in the bylaw of three CSCs and investigated the influence of organizational Christianity on governance by describing the percentage of Christians on the board of directors, board of auditors, and board of councillors.

Private School Law and Private University Governance in Japan

Governance of private universities in Japan is often described based on the relationship between the school corporation (board of directors, auditors, and councillors) and university organization (president and faculty). However, "the legal basis for the governance of private universities in Japan is vague and extremely thin" (Morozumi, 2000, p. 237). The issues specified in the Private School Law are restricted to (1) the duties and authority of the president, (2) the number of officers (directors and auditors), (3) the method of election of councillors and the board of councillors, and (4) the method of election of the faculty council. Details regarding the exercise of authority and decision-making process in the organization of private universities are defined by the bylaw of the school corporation that established the university. Therefore, the act of bylaw is an important document for understanding organizational governance of the school corporation.[2]

In accordance with Article 30 of the Private School Act, a person who intends to establish a school corporation in Japan must specify in the following 12 articles of bylaw: (1) purpose; (2) name; (3) name and type of school; (4) location of office; (5) number of officers, term, method of election and dismissal, and other regulations concerning officers; (6) provisions concerning the board of directors; (7) provisions concerning the board of councillors and councillors; (8) provisions concerning assets and accounting; (9) provisions concerning the type of business in case of for-profit businesses; (10) provisions concerning dissolution; (11) provisions on changes to the bylaw articles; and (12) method of giving public notice. Among these 12 articles, the state of governance of the school corporation can be identified by analysing points 5, 6, and 7, as they are related to the exercise of authority and decision-making in the organization (Okubo, 2014).[3]

Impact of Christianity on Organizational Governance

This study focused on CSCs in Japan. In Western countries, Christian churches were historically involved in the establishment of many schools, including universities. In Japan, which is not a Christian country, the prohibition against Christianity ended in 1873, and missionary activities began in earnest. [4] However, in 1899, the supervision of Christian private schools was strengthened by the Private School Ordinance (Yasujima, 2012). In the same year, Instruction No. 12 by the Ministry of Education prohibited religious education. Missionaries from abroad fought against numerous oppressions to establish private schools and devoted themselves to developing their organizations.

Organizations acquire social legitimacy by adapting to institutional rules, such as laws, which increases their chances of survival in a changing society (Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Sakurada, 2013). In the post-war period, many private schools established by missionaries acquired social legitimacy as school corporations by stipulating their organizational structure in the bylaws under Article 30 of the Private School Law and by obtaining approval from the relevant ministries. Saito (2011) found that the basis for the Christianity of CSCs can be determined by examining the CR words that appear in the articles of bylaw of CSCs. Saito analysed Christian words and phrases used in bylaws of CSCs in Japan that established institutions of higher education, including the purpose; election of directors, auditors, and councillors; resolution; residual assets; and president. The results revealed that diverse Christian words and phrases were used in many bylaw articles. Furthermore, Saito noted that some CSCs specified only the number and percentage of Christians among board members and councillors, whereas others explicitly required the inclusion of Christians of a particular denomination. Saito argued that the inclusion of a certain number of Christians on the board was a symbolic element in the former case, whereas the relationship with the denomination implied the social legitimacy of the organization in the latter case. However, to the best of the author's knowledge, little research has been conducted on how the number of Christians on the board of directors, auditors, and board of councillors may influence CSC's organizational decision-making.

The present study attempted to identify the effect of Christianity on organizational decision-making to examine "the governance structure and mechanism of the organization as a whole" (Morozumi, 2000, p. 236). Specifically, this study aimed to examine how Christian words and phrases in the articles concerning the election of directors, auditors, and councillors, and voting process characterize the governance of CSCs and their impact on organizational governance.

Materials and Methods

Purpose

This study analysed the bylaws of CSCs in Japan to examine how Christianity, as expressed through words related to Christianity (*e.g.*, Christian, Christian education, missionary, church), characterizes and influences organizational governance.

CSCs and Bylaws

In selecting the subjects of the study (CSCs and bylaws)[5], the author used Ejima's (2017) quantitative data and the provision of religious qualifications at religious universities in Japan. This is because Ejima (2017) is the only recent study on the current state of religious universities in Japan. Of the 202 religious universities (including junior colleges) in Japan as of 2017, the largest number were Christian (121, 59.9%), including 36 Catholic universities (17 junior colleges) and 85 Protestant universities (26 junior colleges).

As a criterion for selecting CSCs for the survey, the author focused on the characteristics of maintaining a system that "trains religious people in the institutional and administrative domain of universities (Ejima, 2017, p. 66). A bylaw of a CSC that trains religious people, for example, pastors or schoolteachers of Christianity, in the university system is likely to confirm its Christianity based on CR words. According to this criterion, the author selected the bylaws of nine CSCs[6] (two Catholic universities: Jochi Gakuin [Jesuits] and Nanzan Gakuen [Societas Verbi Divini]; three Protestant universities: Tohoku Gakuin [The United Church of Christ in Japan], Doshisha [The United Church of Christ in Japan], and Tokyo Christian Academy [The United Church of Christ in Japan]; Tokyo Theological Seminary [The United Church of Christ in Japan]; Lutheran Gakuin [Japan Evangelical Lutheran Church]; Kwansei Gakuin [Japan Christian Church]; and Seinan Gakuin [Japan Baptist Convention]). Next, the author selected three school corporations that operate universities that originated from Protestant private schools. The bylaws of the selected schools were as follows.

(1) Articles of Bylaw of Tohoku Gakuin School Corporation (Amended on December 5, 2019, No.83): https://www.tohoku-gakuin.jp/about/donation.html
(2) Act of Bylaw of Kwansei Gakuin School Corporation (Notified by the Minister of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology on April 27, 2020): https://www.kwansei.ac.jp/cms/kwansei/file/0000173638.pdf
(3) Act of Bylaw of Seinan Gakuin School Corporation (Approved by the Minister of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology on January 15, 2020): https://www.seinan-gu.ac.jp/shared/pdf/rule/kifu.pdf

Procedures

Information on the articles of bylaw and school corporations on official websites were reviewed, and the basic attributes (year of establishment, location, university admission capacity, number of faculties, number of departments, and number of schools established by the school corporation) were summarized in a table. CR words shown in the articles of bylaw were extracted for each article, and their contents, types, and numbers were analysed and summarized in a table. From the viewpoint related to the governance of the school corporation, the following information in the articles of bylaw were summarized: (1) on directors and board of directors (number of directors, election of directors, holding of board of directors meetings, resolution of board of directors meetings, election of the president); (2) on auditors (number of auditors, election of auditors); and (3) on councillors and board of councillors (number of councillors, election of councillors, breakdown of councillors, duties of councillors in accordance with Article 42 of the Private School Law, holding of the board of councillors, and resolution of the board of councillors).[7] Finally, the percentage of Christians on the board of directors, board of auditors, and board of councillors (minimum ratio) was calculated after reviewing the contents of the entire act of bylaw.[8] The data in the following tables were originally presented in Japanese and translated into English by the author.

Results

Table 1 shows the basic attributes of the CSCs. Moreover, the admission capacity of universities is shown. The size of the university was proportional to the number of departments, and the three school corporations were similar in that they had not only universities but also junior high schools and high schools.

Table 1. Basic attributes of Christian school corporations

School Corporation	Tohoku Gakuin	Kwansei Gakuin	Seinan Gakuin
University	Tohoku Gakuin University	Kwansei Gakuin University	Seinan Gakuin University
Year of establishment (school corporation)	1951	1950	1951
Location	Sendai City, Miyagi Prefecture	Nishinomiya City, Hyogo Prefecture	Fukuoka City, Fukuoka Prefecture
Admission capacity (university)	2,656	5,700	1,955
Number of faculties (university)	6	15	8
Number of departments and courses (university)	16	35 (including 4 courses)	14
Number of schools including university	5	9	5

Table 2 summarizes the CR words in the act of bylaw of each school corporation, extracted by article. In the act of bylaw of Tohoku Gakuin, two terms, “Christianity” and “members of a church based on evangelical Christianity,” were used in the articles concerning purpose, officers, and election of councillors (five articles in total). In the Articles of Bylaw of Kwansei Gakuin, the articles concerning purpose, president of Kwansei Gakuin, election of councilors, and person to whom remaining property is attributed used four different words: “Christian,” “Christianity,” “Evangelical Christian,” and “missionaries in Japan” (five in total). In the Articles of Bylaw of Seinan Gakuin, the articles on purpose, election, term and duties of directors, election, term and duties of president, president, and election and term of councillors used four different words: “Christianity,” “Christians,” “pastors of Japan Baptist Convention member churches,” and “Christian education” (12 in total).

Table 2. Christianity-related words in bylaw articles

Tohoku Gakuin	Kwansei Gakuin	Seinan Gakuin
(Purpose) The purpose of this organization is to provide moral education based on Christianity and kindergarten, junior high school, high school, and university education in accordance with the Fundamental Law of Education and School Education Law. (Officer) The majority of the directors shall be members of an evangelical Christian church. The Director of the Board of Directors shall be a member of an evangelical Christian church. In principle, the president and the principal among the directors shall be	(Purpose) The purpose of this corporation is to provide education based on Christian principles in accordance with the Fundamental Law of Education and School Education Law. (President of Kwansei Gakuin) The President of Kwansei Gakuin governs Kwansei Gakuin in accordance with the spirit of the school’s founding and promoting Christian-based education. (Appointment of Councillors) Four of the councillors shall be elected by the board from among evangelical ministers.	(Purpose) The purpose of this school corporation is to provide school education based on Christian principles in accordance with the Fundamental Law of Education and School Education Law. (Election, Term of Office and Duties of Directors) The directors shall be as follows, at least ten of whom shall be Christians. Three persons appointed by the Board of Directors from among the pastors of member churches of the Japan Baptist Convention. (2) The ten or more Christians prescribed in the preceding paragraph

members of a church based on evangelical Christianity. (Appointment of Councillors) The majority of the councillors shall be members of an evangelical Christian church. 2 types (5 in total)	Four of the councillors shall be elected by the Board of Directors from among the missionaries in Japan. (To whom the remainder of the property belongs) In the event of dissolution of the corporation, its assets shall be donated to other school corporations that provide Christian education or other educational projects in accordance with the purpose of Article 3 of this Bylaw. 4 types (5 in total)	shall include three of the persons listed in items 1–4, 8, and 10 of the same paragraph. (Appointment, dismissal and duties of the President) The president must be a Christian. (Appointment and Term of Office of Auditors) At least one of the two auditors must be a Christian. (Director) The Rector shall promote Christian education based on the spirit of the school's founding and shall oversee the teaching and learning of the school corporation. (Appointment and Term of Office of Councillors) Two persons appointed by the Board of Directors from among the members of the Council of Deans of Colleges (one of whom shall be a Christian) Two persons appointed by the Board of Directors from among the pastors of member churches of the Japan Baptist Convention. Six persons (including three Christians) appointed by the Board of Directors from among graduates of schools established by the Academy, who are at least 25 years of age. Six persons (including four Christians) appointed by the Board of Directors from among those who have an understanding of the education of this school corporation. At least 19 persons, including four of those listed in item 1 of the preceding paragraph, one of those listed in items 2 and 3, three of those listed in items 5, 6, 8, and 9, and four of those listed in item 10, must be Christians. 4 types (12 in total)

Table 3 shows information about directors and board of directors. Tohoku Gakuin and Seinan Gakuin required the attendance of two-thirds of the board members. However, Kwansei Gakuin required the majority to hold a meeting. Conversely, while Tohoku Gakuin and Kwansei Gakuin required the majority of the board members present for voting, Seinan Gakuin required a two-thirds majority. The details of the election of the president differed from corporation to corporation, and the details were not clear from the contents of the act of bylaw alone. After confirming all the contents of the articles of bylaw regarding directors and the board of directors, the author investigated how many of the directors were Christians, and the percentage of Christians (the lowest percentage) is shown in Table 3.

Table 4 presents information on the auditors. Tohoku Gakuin and Kwansei Gakuin adopted the same election method selection of candidates by the board of directors → consent of the board of councillors → appointment by the chairperson of the board of directors.

Table 3. Information on the directors and board of directors

School Corporation	Tohoku Gakuin	Kwansei Gakuin	Seinan Gakuin
Number of board members	22	25	16
Appointment of Directors	Director. Dean of the College. Vice-Presidents (3 persons). High School Principals (2 persons). Director General of Corporate Affairs. Four persons appointed by the Board of Councillors from among the Councillors. Ten persons appointed by the Board of Directors from among academics related to the corporation.	Director. President, Kwansei Gakuin University period Two persons appointed by the Board of Directors from among the President of Seiwa Junior College, the Dean of Kwansei Gakuin Senior High School, the Principal of Senri International High School, the Dean of Kwansei Gakuin Junior High School, the Principal of Senri International Middle School, the Principal of Elementary School, the Director of Kwansei Gakuin Kindergarten and the Principal of Osaka International School. Director General of Religious Affairs, Kwansei Gakuin. Six members elected by the Board of Councillors, including at least five Councillors. Seven persons appointed by the Board of Directors from among academic experts, members of the Kwansei Gakuin Alumni Association, and persons who have an understanding of the education of this corporation. Six persons appointed by the Chairperson of the Board of Directors.	Director. Dean of the College. Principals of junior high and high schools. Elementary school Principal. Executive Director. One person appointed by the Board of Directors from among the Vice Presidents. Two persons appointed by the Board of Directors from among the members of the Council of Deans of Universities. Three persons appointed by the Board of Directors from among the pastors of member churches of the Japan Baptist Convention. One person appointed by the Board of Councillors from among the Councillors. Four persons appointed by the Board of Directors from among graduates of schools established by the School corporation and persons who have an understanding of the education of the school corporation.
Board Meetings	Attendance of two-thirds or more of the total number of directors.	Attendance of the majority of the total number of directors.	Attendance of two-thirds or more of the total number of directors.
Resolution of the Board of Directors	The majority of the directors present.	The majority of the directors present.	Two-thirds or more of the directors present.
Appointment of the Chairperson of the Board of Directors	Election by a majority vote of the total number of directors; dismissal by the same vote.	Dean of Kwansei Gakuin period President, Kwansei Gakuin University. Two persons appointed by the Board of Directors from among the President of Seiwa Junior College, the Dean of Kwansei Gakuin Senior High School, the Principal of Senri International High School, the Dean of Kwansei Gakuin Junior High School, the Principal of Senri International Middle School, the Principal of Elementary School, the Director of Kwansei Gakuin Kindergarten and the Principal of Osaka International School. Director General, Kwansei Gakuin Administrative Office. Six elected by the Board of Councillors. However, at least five of them must be Councillors. Seven persons appointed by the Board of Directors from among academic experts,	One of the Directors appointed by the Board of Directors as the President.

		members of the Kwansei Gakuin Alumni Association, and persons with an understanding of the education of this corporation. To be determined by mutual election of the Directors in accordance with the above provisions.	
Christianity	The majority of the board members are members of evangelical Christian based churches (at least 12 out of 22).	None in particular.	Ten must be Christians (president, one junior high school or high school principal, and one elementary school principal must be Christians), three pastors appointed by the board of directors from among pastors of churches affiliated with the Japan Baptist Convention, and four graduates or those who have an understanding of education at the corporation, at least three of whom must be Christians.
Percentage of Christians (lowest rate)	12 or more out of 22 (54.5%)	No special remarks (0%)	10 or more out of 16 (62.5%)

Seinan Gakuin used the same method as Tohoku Gakuin and Kwansei Gakuin in terms of consent of the Board of Councillors and election by the president; however, the method of election of auditors was determined separately, and the details were not clear from the contents of the Articles of Bylaw alone. Tohoku Gakuin and Kwansei Gakuin did not require that the auditors be Christians. Seinan Gakuin required at least one of its two auditors to be a Christian. After checking all the contents of the act of bylaw regarding the auditors, the author investigated how many of the auditors were required to be Christians, and the percentage of Christians (minimum percentage) is shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Information on the auditors

School Corporation	Tohoku Gakuin	Kwansei Gakuin	Seinan Gakuin
Number of Auditors	3	4	2
Appointment of Auditors	The Chairperson of the Board of Directors shall elect from among the candidates selected by the Board of Directors, with the consent of the Board of Councillors.	The Chairperson of the Board of Directors shall appoint from among the candidates selected by the Board of Directors, with the consent of the Board of Councillors.	The Chairperson of the Board of Directors shall appoint with the consent of the Board of Councillors. The method of appointment shall be determined separately.
Christianity	No special note.	No special note.	At least one of the two must be Christian.
Percentage of Christians (lowest rate)	0%	0%	50%

Table 5 presents information regarding the councillors and board of councillors. The three school corporations exhibited the same information in the duties of councillors. After reviewing all of the information regarding councillors and board of councillors in the articles of bylaw, the author investigated how many of the total councillors were determined to be Christians, and the percentage of Christians (the lowest percentage) is shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Information on the councillors and board of councillors

School Corporation	Tohoku Gakuin	Kwansei Gakuin	Seinan Gakuin
Number of councillors	46	52	35
Appointment of Councillors	Board of Directors	Board of Directors	Determine separately

Breakdown of Councillors	Rector. Dean. Director of Religious Affairs. General Manager of General Affairs Dept. General Affairs Section Chief. Assistant Principal. Kindergarten Director. General Manager. General Manager, Finance Dept. Director of Facilities. Seven persons to be appointed from among staff members. Twelve persons who graduated from a school established by a juridical person, who are appointed, and who are 25 years of age or more. Ten academic experts related to the corporation.	President of Kwansei Gakuin. Seven persons from among the President of Seiwa Junior College, the Dean of Kwansei Gakuin Senior High School, the Principal of Senri International High School, the Dean of Kwansei Gakuin Junior High School, the Principal of Senri International Middle School, the Principal of Elementary School, the Principal of Kwansei Gakuin Kindergarten and the Principal of Osaka International School of Kwansei Gakuin. Chief Minister of Religious Affairs, Kwansei Gakuin. Four evangelicals who stand for evangelicalism. Four missionaries in Japan. Ten students who graduated from a school established by the corporation and are at least 25 years of age. Two parents or guardians of students enrolled in schools established by the corporation. Two are academic experts related to the corporation. Fifteen full-time faculty members. Five persons who served the corporation well and have a good understanding of education at the schools established by the corporation.	The Rector, the President, the Principal, the Principals of junior high schools, high schools, and elementary schools, and one Vice-President who is a member of the Board of Directors. Director of Religious Affairs. Two persons appointed by the Board of Councillors from among the members of the Council of Deans of Colleges and Universities, one of whom shall be a Christian. Vice-principals of junior high schools and high schools, and vice-principals of high schools, junior high schools, and elementary schools. Religious director of high schools and junior high schools. Director of kindergarten and nursery school. Two persons appointed by the Board of Directors from among the members of the Administrative Managers' Council. Two persons appointed by the Board of Directors from among the pastors of member churches of the Japan Baptist Convention. Six graduates (age 25 and over) from schools established by the school corporation, three of whom are Christians. Six persons (four of whom are Christians) who have an understanding of the education of the school corporation. Three staff members.
Duties of Councillors with respect to Article 42 of the Private School Act	The President must hear the opinions of the Board of Councillors.	Requires consent of the Board of Councillors.	The President must hear the opinions of the Board of Councillors.
Meeting of the Board of Councillors	Majority attendance.	Majority attendance.	Majority attendance.
Resolution of the Board of Councillors	The majority of the councillors present.	The majority of the councillors present.	The majority of the councillors present.
Christianity	The majority of the councillors shall be members of an evangelical Christian church.	Among eight councillors, four shall be evangelical ministers and four, missionaries in Japan.	At least 19 of the 35 councillors must be Christians.
Percentage of Christians (lowest rate)	Out of 46, more than 24 are Christians (52.1%)	8 out of 52 are Christians (15.4%)	19 out of 35 are Christians (54.3%)

Discussion

Based on the results of the analysis of the bylaws of three CSCs, this study examined the potential impact of the number of Christians on (1) the Christian-related language in the bylaws and (2) the governance of each school corporation organization.

CR Words as Indicated in Bylaw Articles

In the bylaws of Tohoku Gakuin and Kwansei Gakuin, there are no references to specific denominations, such as “Christianity,” “members of churches based on evangelical Christianity,” “evangelical church leaders,” and “missionaries in Japan.” This could be interpreted as meaning that “something symbolic” (Saito, 2011, p. 89) is included in the organization itself. Conversely, Seinan Gakuin’s articles of bylaw state the name of a specific religious organization, as in “a minister of a church affiliated with the Japan Baptist Convention”. The Christianity expressed in the act of bylaw of Seinan Gakuin is more concrete than that of Japanese Christians as a symbolic element. The fact that the pastor is a member of a federation of churches of a denomination closely related to the founder of the school could be interpreted as meaning the social legitimacy of the corporate organization itself.

To understand the nature of CSCs in Japan, it must be confirmed whether Christians are the managers, and the purpose of the school corporation in the bylaw act must be identified (Suzuki, 2017). Therefore, when the contents of the bylaw act were analysed, the word “Christian” or “Christianity” was indicated in the purpose of all three corporations. The bylaw acts of Tohoku Gakuin and Seinan Gakuin specify that Christians are elected as directors, whereas Kwansei Gakuin’s bylaw act does not. In this respect, it seems that Tohoku Gakuin and Seinan Gakuin clearly indicate the character of a Christian-run school corporation.

Impact of the Number of Christians on the Governance of School Organizations

Referring to Table 2, the number of directors required to attend a board meeting and the number of directors required to vote were used to determine the percentage of the total number of directors required to make a final decision. Tohoku Gakuin, Kwansei Gakuin, and Seinan Gakuin can make a resolution with the affirmative votes of 34%, 26%, and 67% of all directors, respectively.

Based on the information presented in Tables 2, 4, and 5, the author examined the percentage (minimum percentage) of Christians in the number of officers (directors and auditors). The results demonstrated that Tohoku Gakuin had 48% (12 out of 25), Kwansei Gakuin had 0% (0 out of 29), and Seinan Gakuin had 61.1% (11 out of 18). The minimum percentages of Christians among the councillors shown in Table 5 were 52.1% at Tohoku Gakuin, 15.4% at Kwansei Gakuin, and 54.4% at Seinan Gakuin.

Based on the characteristics of the three school corporations, the author investigated (1) directors and board of councillors, (2) auditors, and (3) councillors and board of councillors and examined how the number of Christians might function in the governance of each corporate organization. In the case of Tohoku Gakuin and Seinan Gakuin, more than half of the members of both the board of directors and the board of councillors are Christians. This suggests that the boards of councillors at Touhoku Gakuin and Seinan Gakuin not only check the board of directors but also have the function of promoting the board’s policies based on the intentions of the board from the perspective of Christians. As mentioned, Tohoku Gakuin has a lower percentage of Christians on the Board of Councillors than Seinan Gakuin. However, unlike Seinan Gakuin, which requires a two-third majority of the board members in attendance to vote, Touhoku Gakuin allows voting with the majority of the board members in attendance, facilitating the promotion of Christian voting. As such, both Touhoku Gakuin and Seinan Gakuin have a governance system that promotes Christian voting by the board of directors and board of councillors.

Kwansei Gakuin does not specify the election of Christians to the Board of Directors. Christians may be elected to the positions of president, rector, and deans of junior colleges. However, it is not clearly stated. Christians are elected to 15.4% (8 out of 52) of the Board of Councillors. Kwansei Gakuin’s Articles of Bylaw state that the Board of Directors requires the “consent” of the Board of Councilors. As with Tohoku Gakuin and Seinan Gakuin, Kwansei Gakuin’s Board of Councillors has voting rights.

If this "consent" is the three-fourths majority indicated in the Articles of Bylaw, then in addition to Christians, who make up 15.4% of the Board of Councillors, other councillors (approximately 10% of the total) would agree with the views of the Councillors elected as Christians. The Board of Councillors can check and balance the Board of Directors. Therefore, Kwansei Gakuin has a governance system in which Christian councillors can check and restrict the Board of Directors from voting.[9]

CSC in Japan have faced a decline in the number of Christians on the teaching staff for more than half a century, indicating the secularization of the organization (Fukaya, 2006).[8] There are two possible responses to secularization. The first is to emphasize self-identity as a CSC and enhance legitimacy within the organization to prevent further secularization. Specifically, Christian articles in bylaws would be maintained, and the number of Christians on the board of directors would be maintained or increased. The second is to accept secularization. From a management perspective, the simplification or elimination of the Christian article could be considered to increase legitimacy outside the organization by emphasizing the school corporation and university's name recognition and public reputation.

Arthur (2006) reported that Baylor University in Texas, USA, oscillated between two self-definitions of religious and academic in its university administration, with the religious aspect corresponding to the internal legitimacy of the university's founding, history, and traditions, and academic aspect corresponding to the external legitimacy that emphasizes the university's reputation in society. Baylor's lack of financial resources and administrative leadership led the university to re-evaluate its governance, to distance itself from the influence of its founding parents, the Southern Baptist Convention, and focus on the academic side of the university. Maintaining a cooperative relationship with related churches and organizations, the university does not identify externally with any particular denomination but defines itself as a Christian university and nationally ranked research institution.[11] This distancing from specific denominations, shift in policy toward the pursuit of scholarship, and emphasis on Christianity in general signify the secularization of Christian universities (Umezu, 2012). Future studies should analyse the bylaws from a diachronic perspective and consider whether the discussion can be developed by relating organizational change to the phenomenon of secularization.

Conclusion and Remaining Issues

The following conclusions were obtained.

(1) In the articles of bylaw of the three school corporations studied, some or all of the articles concerning directors, board of directors, auditors, councillors, and board of councillors used CR words, and there were provisions concerning the election of Christians.

(2) CR words were used differently by school corporations. Moreover, there was a difference between the use of CR words in general (Tohoku Gakuin, Kwansei Gakuin) and the use of names of specific religious institutions (Seinan Gakuin).

(3) Tohoku Gakuin and Kwansei Gakuin did not use CR words in their articles regarding auditors and directors, respectively.

(4) Two types of governance were identified: Christians promoting voting by the Board of Directors and Board of Councillors" (Tohoku Gakuin and Seinan Gakuin) and Christian councillors checking and restricting voting by the Board of Directors" (Kwansei Gakuin).

Future research should consider a longitudinal analysis of the articles of bylaw of school corporations and examine whether changes in the governance of CSCs are associated with the secularization of the organization. The acts of bylaw define the basic framework of the organization. Moreover, there is an "informal aspect of organizational decision-making that is based on the implicit agreement of the parties involved" (Oba, 2011, p. 267). To accurately understand organizational governance, future studies should include interviews with the parties concerned.

Notes

1. The Private School Law and School Education Law apply to school corporations.
2. The Private School Law has provisions regarding the composition of the board of directors and board of councillors. However, there is no regulation on who appoints directors and councillors, and it is left to the contents of the bylaw articles.
3. As Okubo (2014) noted, the board of directors is the decision-making body for school corporation operations, the president is responsible for the execution of operations, and the board of councillors is an advisory body to the board. Therefore, the board of councillors is regarded as an executive body. However, unlike foundations, school corporations cannot be regarded as a board of councillors that appoints directors (governing body).
4. At that time, the Meiji government ended its policy of banning Christianity to proceed with treaty revisions with Western countries.
5. The subjects of this research are school corporations founded by Christian missionaries and running universities that have a theological department or curriculum that trains pastors and schoolteachers of Christianity.
6. An anonymous reviewer argues that women's schools had played an essential role in the emergence of Christian universities in Japan. Given this historical reality, it might be reasonable to analyse bylaws of women's Christian universities in Japan. However, as far as the author investigated, based on Ejima (2017), no women's universities have training programs for religious people such as pastors or schoolteachers of Christianity.
7. Article 42 of the Private School Law stipulates that the President shall obtain the opinions of the Board of Councillors on the following nine matters: (1) budget and business plan, (2) mid-term plan, (3) matters concerning borrowings and disposal of important assets, (4) standards for payment of remuneration to officers, (5) amendment to articles of bylaw, (6) mergers, (7) dissolutions, (8) important matters concerning profit-making business, (9) other important matters concerning business of the School Corporation, which are to be determined by the articles of bylaw.
8. The three bylaws analysed in this study do not exclude the election of Christians, except in the clause on the election of Christians, nor do they require the election of a certain number of "non-Christians." Therefore, it is possible that more than the minimum number (minimum rate) of Christians would be elected.
9. The relationship between Kwansei Gakuin's board members (directors and auditors) and the board of councillors seems to approximate the governance of a foundation. It differs from Tohoku Gakuin and Seinan Gakuin in that it does not specify the assumption that Christians are elected to the Board of Councillors.
10. There are many critical opinions about the secularization of Christian school organizations. However, there is also an argument that the significance of secular evaluation, such as university name recognition, should be emphasized from the perspective of management (Doi, 2005).
11. Baylor University is known for its high percentage of Christian students and faculty. As such, even if the governance of the corporation avoids the influence of the founding denominations, the faith and religiosity of the faculty and staff are maintained. Comparisons with the current situation in Japan will be developed in a separate paper.

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The Impact of the Erasmus Program and the Institutional Administration of Internationalization in Türkiye

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Abstract

International student and staff mobility, which is widely experienced worldwide, constitutes one of the most critical dimensions of the internationalization of higher education. The Erasmus program, initiated by the European Union, plays a significant role in increasing mobility, especially between European countries. Türkiye is one of these countries that benefit significantly from the Erasmus program, which has become a driving force for Turkish universities to accelerate internationalization. In this paper, we conducted a quantitative study to evaluate the perceptions of international office professionals (IPs) on the impact of the Erasmus Program and institutional structures in the universities to administer internationalization. 126 IPs working in international offices of Turkish universities representing public and foundation universities participated in the study. The survey results revealed that IPs believe in the positive impacts of the Erasmus student and staff mobility on the institutionalization of internationalization in their universities, and most universities in Türkiye include internationalization in their strategic plan as one of the priorities. On the other hand, IPs stated that institutional support given to their offices by high-ranking administrators and other stakeholders is insufficient to administer internationalization. Moreover, the T-test results between public and foundation universities revealed that developing internationalization is a more important priority for the latter than the public ones.

Keywords: Erasmus Program, Internationalization, International office professionals, Higher education, Türkiye

Introduction

The internationalization of higher education (IHE) has become a fundamental strategic goal in the agendas of supra-national and national authorities and higher education institutions (HEIs). IHE is realized in various forms, such as branch campuses and joint degree programs; however, student and staff mobility are still the most well-known form of internationalization (Van Damme, 2001). Student mobility figures are increasing all over the world. According to OECD (2021) statistics, international student mobility has been steadily expanding in the last 20 years. In 2019, 6.1 million higher education students went to study in another country, more than twice that in 2007. In other words, the number of international students in higher education increased by an average of 5.5% per year between 1998 and 2019.

Although student mobility seems widespread in all universities worldwide, it is still not inclusive for all higher education students and staff (De Wit & Jones, 2018; Janebová & Johnstone, 2020; Van Mol & Perez-Encinas, 2022). According to the study by De Wit and Jones (2018), 99% of the higher education student population in the world does not participate in physical mobility. Therefore, despite regional and international grant schemes, international mobility is implemented in an elitist structure (De Wit, 2020) and is only accessible to a minority of students.

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The Erasmus Program has become a well-known student and staff exchange schema in Europe. With the funding provided by the European Union (EU), the students and staff participating in the Program have the opportunity to get grants for their mobility period. With this granted schema, the EU targeted to offer physical mobility for all students and staff in Europe and make it inclusive for all European HEIs. However, the goal of the EU to send a minimum of 10% of higher education students to mobility programs has failed (De Wit & Altbach, 2021), and it seems that the Erasmus grant programs are insufficient for a more inclusive international education in Europe.

Hence, as these statistics show, international student mobility programs are not as inclusive as desired in the world or Europe. In other words, only a minority of university students and staff benefit from these programs. However, structural exchange programs (e.g., the Erasmus) have significant institutional impacts on universities and their stakeholders. For these impacts to be more visible and effective, it is crucial that exchange programs and internationalization are well managed in the universities at the institutional level. This study, therefore, focuses on the impact of the Erasmus student and staff exchange program and the institutional management of internationalization.

The research was conducted in Türkiye, which has been part of the Erasmus Program since 2005. The effect of the Erasmus Program is highly critical in the country for two reasons. First, for most universities, the Erasmus Program is the only opportunity for the students and staff to be granted a mobility scheme, and thousands of Turkish participants visited Europe through this Program. Secondly, international offices were established in order to administer this Program in most universities. In other words, the Program accelerated the institutionalization of internationalization in Turkish universities.

Accordingly, this study aims to investigate the impact of the Erasmus student and staff mobility Program and the administration of internationalization in institutional terms. The study was conducted with international office professionals (IPs) as practitioners working in international offices and having direct experience with the impact and administration of the Program. In this article, the literature review is first presented, followed by the methods, results and discussion.

The Erasmus Program in Europe

The European higher education system has been in flux, and policymakers have viewed HEIs as economic engines essential for knowledge production with research, innovation, and education (Sursock & Smidt, 2010). Building the European Higher Education Area is a top priority agenda of the European Commission to redesign HEIs' economic and cultural roles in the global context (Gornitzka, 2010). Due to the need for European internationalization, the European Commission established different education mobility programs such as Erasmus and Youth. Among these, Erasmus Program has a crucial impact on universities. Erdogan (2014) states that mobility is the most visible face of internationalization. Especially in Europe, the promotion of international student mobility has particularly gained importance in recent decades (Kelo et al., 2006). By observing the significant impact of these programs, European supra-national organizations have developed many policies to disseminate the Program.

All European Union Education and Youth Programs, including Erasmus, are designed for seven years. Between 2000 and 2007, the Erasmus Program was under the Socrates program; between 2007 and 2014, it was under Life-long Learning Program. Between 2014-2020, the Erasmus+, as an umbrella term, was used to cover all education and youth programs and has become a flagship ever since. According to European Commission (2021), Erasmus+ will benefit from an estimated budget of around €26.2 billion for 2021-2027, nearly doubling the funding compared to the previous period. According to Erasmus+ 2020 Annual Report (European Commission, 2021), since the launch of the program in 1987, approximately 11.7 million participants have been supported by the Erasmus+ Program.

Although the Erasmus+ Program covers learning mobilities at all levels, this study mainly focuses on mobility in higher education. The Program includes different schemes of higher education mobility. For students, 'student mobility' and 'placement mobility' programs were designed. The student mobility program covers a short-term credit mobility experience where students study their courses in a European university, whereas the placement mobility is conducted to have an internship experience in a European institution. Furthermore, for staff working in HEIs, there are two different types of programs. The 'teaching staff mobility' covers the exchange of faculty members to teach abroad, and 'staff training mobility' includes job shadowing or other training activities for mostly administrative staff.

Internationalization and the Erasmus Program in Türkiye

Higher education in Türkiye is centrally planned and controlled by the Council of Higher Education (CoHE). 129 state and 79 foundation universities host approximately 8.000.000 students (CoHE, 2022), including distance education. Public universities are founded and funded by the state and offer free higher education services for students. On the other hand, foundation universities are established as non-profit institutions by foundations and charge tuition fees from the students. Although there are no private HEIs in Türkiye, foundation universities are mostly incorporated with business institutions and act like private universities.

In parallel with the developments in the world, the Turkish higher education system also attaches increasing importance to internationalization. Both the CoHE at the national level and universities at the institutional level have embraced internationalization as a strategic goal. The Internationalization Strategy Document of Higher Education (2018-2022) was published by CoHE (2017), and the main aim of internationalization is to attract more international students and staff. Similarly, a recent study (Erdogan & Bulut-Sahin, 2022) examined how internationalization is included in the strategic plan documents of foundation and public universities in Türkiye and concluded that student and staff mobility is the most recurrent strategic goal. Therefore, it can be argued that Turkish universities have adopted the classical internationalization model according to the typology developed by Knight (2015). Accordingly, international collaborations, student and faculty exchange, and intercultural activities are the most used tools of internationalization. However, practices such as a joint diploma or branch campus have not become widespread among Turkish universities.

Türkiye has a unique internationalization practice (Bulut-Sahin & Kondakci, 2022), playing an important role in the region due to the country's attraction based on political, economic, and historical characteristics. The country holds a significant regional hub position (Kondakci, 2011) by attracting degree-seeking international students from neighbouring countries based on cultural rationales. The regional hub position has become more assertive in recent years with the hosted Syrian students, and the CoHE announced Türkiye as one of the first ten countries in the World in terms of incoming international students (CoHE, 2021).

The Erasmus Program has also created a vital internationalization practice for Turkish universities. With the launch of the Erasmus program, universities that have never been involved in international activities before had the opportunity to be involved in international student mobility. Although the Erasmus Program started in 1987 in Europe, Türkiye participated in this program through pilot projects in the 2003-2004 academic year and became a full participant in the 2004-2005 academic year. Since then, many Turkish students and staff have participated in this program, and many European students and staff have also visited Türkiye.

The data presented in Table 1 shows the number of Turkish students and staff who participated in the Erasmus study and placement program and the number of incoming students and staff who visited Türkiye in the framework of the Erasmus Program. It is worth noting that the statistics given above only reflect the participants from the Program countries but not the participants from the non-European ones. Moreover, another fact is the COVID-19 pandemic restricted studying abroad which caused a decrease in student numbers in the 2019-2020 academic year.

Table 1. The last five-year statistics for the Erasmus Program in Türkiye (exchange with Program countries)

	Outgoing Student	Student Placement	Incoming Student	Incoming Placement	Outgoing staff	Incoming staff
2015-2016	12964	3111	5793	1153	2772	1520
2016-2017	13303	3586	2222	812	3334	1199
2017-2018	13834	4017	2007	1096	3241	1958
2018-2019	13197	4204	2727	1481	3259	2384
2019-2020	12968	2628	3489	915	1194	1106

Note: Adapted from "Erasmus+ country factsheets - 2020" by European Commission, 2021 (http://https://erasmus-plus.ec.europa.eu/resources-and-tools/statistics-and-factsheets/factsheets/country-2020). Copyright 2021 by European Commission.

The statistics in Table 1 indicate an imbalance between outgoing and incoming students in the Turkish case. The number of outgoing Turkish students is always higher than that of incoming students. In other words, while Turkish students have a high demand to study in Europe, the country is not so attractive for European students. Moreover, the number of students who participated in the Erasmus student placement program is less than that of students who participated in the student mobility program. One of the main reasons for this difference is the low budget share of student placement in the overall Erasmus budget of the countries. Furthermore, in placement programs, students should find the placement institution by themselves, and universities do not make agreements for placements, which might be another reason for low participation rates. Table 1 also introduces the number of outgoing and incoming staff numbers under the Erasmus teaching staff exchange and staff mobility programs. The number of staff is lower than the number of students since the Erasmus Program's budget prioritizes and offers more funding to student mobility. Similar to data on student mobility, the imbalance between outgoing and incoming staff is still valid. Moreover, the low number of participated staff demonstrates the lack of inclusiveness in the staff mobility program.

The above statistics also show that the EU's and the national authorities' budget distribution rules affect the number of participants. In other words, the Erasmus Program was developed by the EU, and most of the regulations and implementation program decisions are made on the supra-national level as a top-down policy-making process (Marginson, 2007; Teichler, 2002). On the national level, the National Agencies founded in the countries monitor the implementation of the Program and distribute the budget to HEIs. Similarly, the Turkish National Agency was founded in 2002, one year before the Turkish universities participated in the Program through pilot projects. The Turkish National Agency has close contacts with the international offices and, therefore, the IPs to ensure the effective and accurate use of the funds. Thus, on the institutional level, IPs are the primary actors in implementing the Erasmus Program in HEIs.

Although international activities were more individually oriented, entire institutions can be involved in these activities (Luijten-Lub, 2007), and internationalization has started to be perceived as an institutional perspective and strategy. Edelstein & Douglass (2012) also states that international realities have become a central concern for many universities, and they utilize this strategy to compete with peer institutions at home and abroad. As Yılmaz (2013) also mentions, internationalization has become an important strategic area for HEIs. Therefore, institutional perspectives on internationalization should not be disregarded. However, although the program is widely implemented in all Turkish universities, there are rare studies in literature conducted with IPs as the university staff who are directly implementing this project. Therefore, this study aims to analyse the implementation of the Erasmus Program and internationalization in Türkiye from the point of view of the IPs.

This study is guided by the following research questions:

a) What are the perceptions of IPs on the impact of the Erasmus student and staff mobility?

b) What are the perceptions of the IPs on the administration of internationalization in their institution?

Moreover, two sub-questions were also used to compare the survey results between public and foundation universities:

a) Is there a meaningful difference between perceptions of IPs in public and foundation universities regarding the impact of the Erasmus student and staff mobility program?

b) Is there a meaningful difference between perceptions of IPs in public and foundation universities regarding the administration of internationalization in Turkish institutions?

Method

In this study, the Survey Research Design was used to learn about the perspectives of IPs in both foundation and public universities regarding the impact of the Erasmus student and staff mobility and the administration of internationalization in Turkish institutions. In the survey method (McMillan & Schumacher, 2009), to learn about individuals' perspectives, thoughts, and beliefs about the variables researchers are interested in, a questionnaire is applied to a sample of individuals from the targeted population of the study.

Instrument

The researchers developed the survey based on the knowledge obtained from the literature, and two experts on the internationalization of higher education in Türkiye reviewed the survey. Participants were first asked about their demographic information. Descriptive questions were about their gender, the type of the university they work in (public or foundation), working duration, and level of education. The qualitative part included three open-ended questions to gather information on the administration of the Program in their institution.

The survey included 15 items on a 5-point Likert scale on a continuum of strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (5). Among these 15 items, ten questions measured the impact of the Erasmus program (perceptions about the impact of student and staff mobility), and the remaining five measured the administration of internationalization on the institutional level. In the current study, Cronbach's alpha was computed as a measure of reliability and was found to be .74, indicating acceptable internal consistency. Lastly, the survey included three open-ended questions. The open-ended questions were "what are the main challenges while working in the international office?", "what is your perception of the administration of internationalization in your institution?" and "how the internationalization strategy was developed in your institution?".

Participants

The study's target population was all the International Office Professionals (IPs) of Turkish universities. IPs are the practitioners working in international offices to administer the Erasmus exchange program study and placement mobility for students and teaching and training mobilities for the staff. They mainly deal with administrative and bureaucratic work related to student and staff exchange and several other internationalization-related tasks, such as establishing bilateral agreements with partner universities or promoting the university abroad.

The e-mails were sent to the international office e-mail addresses of 208 universities, and the volunteer IPs working in these offices participated in the study. The accessible population of this study was 129 IPs from Turkish universities; however, three participants were excluded from the study based on the amount of missing data. The analysis was conducted with 126 IPs. The 126 IPs from public universities (73.8%) and foundation universities (26.2%) participated in the survey. Participants' years of experience in the international office ranged from 1 month to 12 years. The demographic characteristics of the participants are presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2. Demographic Characteristics of Participants

		N	%
Gender	Male	51	40.5
	Female	75	59.5
University Type	Public	93	73.8
	Foundation	33	26.2
Level of Education	Associate Degree	1	0.8
	Bachelor's degree	35	27.8
	Master's degree	52	41.3
	Ph.D. Degree	38	30.2

Data Analysis

The survey was conducted in Turkish, and after the data analysis, the findings were transcribed into English. The survey and demographic questions were analysed through SPSS version 28 (IBM Corp., 2021). Several independent sample t-tests were conducted to compare perceptions of IPs from public and foundation universities for all items in the scale. In addition, the descriptive analysis of the open-ended questions was conducted through the MAXQDA program.

Prior to conducting the independent samples t-test, the normality assumption was checked via skewness and kurtosis values. According to Kline (2016), skewness and kurtosis values ranging between -3 and +3 indicate normal distribution. Skewness and kurtosis values both for the impact of the Erasmus program and administration of the internationalization on the institutional level ranged between -3 and +3, indicating that the normality assumption was not violated in this study. Also, the normality assumption was checked via Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests. Kolmogorov- Smirnov results indicated nonnormality for the impact of the Erasmus student and staff mobility program (D (126) = .15, $p < .001$) and administration of internationalization on the institutional level (D (126) = .11, $p < .001$). However, violation of normality with a sample size larger than 30 can be disregarded (Gravetter & Walnau, 2016). Secondly, the homogeneity of variances assumption was checked. According to Levene's test results, the homogeneity of variances assumption was not violated for the impact of the Erasmus student and staff mobility program (F_{Levene} = .03, $p > .05$) and administration of internationalization on the institutional level (F_{Levene} = 1.02, $p > .05$). Therefore, analysis was conducted.

Results

The results section includes two categories: a) the impact of the Erasmus Program and b) the administration of internationalization on the institutional level.

The Impact of the Erasmus Program

This section is composed of a descriptive analysis of the impact questions and a comparison of the results for public and foundation universities. In this section, the descriptive findings are presented as the impact of student mobility and the impact of staff mobility on internationalization processes, institutional capacities, further cooperation in education and research, and lastly, on other university stakeholders.

First of all, regarding *student mobility*, overall, the majority of the participants strongly agreed that it contributes to the internationalization processes (54%) and is useful in developing the institutional capacities of the universities (44.4 %). However, foundation universities strongly agreed that student mobility is beneficial in developing institutional capacities (54.5%), whereas most IPs in state universities only agreed with this view (41.7%). Moreover, student mobility positively impacts the stakeholders of the university who did not participate in the program (40.5%). Furthermore, the impact of the Erasmus student mobility program on the other types of international cooperation was also asked to the participants. Most participants agreed that the agreements concluded for student mobility produce further collaboration with the partner institutions (37.3%). On the other hand, they partially agreed that higher student mobility rates lead to international research partnerships (38.9%).

Secondly, regarding *staff mobility*, the majority of the participants strongly agreed that it has a positive impact on other stakeholders of the university who did not participate in the program (40%). Most participants agreed that staff mobility contributes to the internationalization processes (44.4%) and is effective in developing the institutional capacities of the universities (46%). Besides, they agreed that the agreements concluded for staff mobility led to other types of cooperation between the partner institutions (37.3%). Most of the IPs in foundation universities strongly agreed with this further cooperation (39.4%), and IPs in state universities only agreed with this view (40.9%). In addition, the participants strongly agreed that a higher rate of staff mobility generates research cooperation with universities abroad (37.3%). IPs in state universities strongly agreed with this view (38.7%), whereas IPs in foundation universities partially agreed with that (45.5%).

An independent sample t-test was conducted to compare IPs in the foundation and public universities regarding the impact of the Erasmus student and staff mobility Program. The results showed that there is not a meaningful difference between IPs in state universities (M= 40.81, SD= 5) and foundation universities (M= 40.24, SD= 4.82) regarding the impact of the Erasmus program, t (124) =.56, p >.05. Moreover, when items measuring the impact of the Erasmus program were analysed separately, no significant differences were found between IPs in state universities and foundation universities.

The Administration of the Internationalization on the Institutional Level

This section comprises the descriptive analysis of the survey questions, comparing the results for public and foundation universities, and analysing the open-ended questions. The descriptive results include the findings on the institutionalization of internationalization, strategic planning, and prioritizing internationalization. Moreover, the descriptive results also have IPs' perceptions of the international office capacity in terms of human resources and physical conditions. Lastly, open-ended questions were presented as the challenges related to official status, management, and other stakeholders' support and strategy development.

First, most participants strongly agreed that their university has a straightforward institutionalization process on internationalization (%31.7). Most of them agree that internationalization is included in the university's strategic plan (37.3%) and is one of their university's priorities (33.3%). The participants were also asked about the human resource and physical capacity of the international offices that they work in. They partially agreed that the physical conditions of their offices are sufficient to conduct international programs (33.3%). Most of them also disagreed that the number of IPs is adequate to run international programs (30.2%). Of the IPs in foundation universities, the majority strongly agreed that internationalization is one of the priorities of their university, but IPs in public universities only agreed with this view (48.5%).

According to the results of the independent sample t-test, there is no significant difference between IPs in public universities (M= 26.31, SD= 3.12) and foundation universities (M= 27.15, SD= 2.73) regarding their overall perception of the administration of internationalization; t (124) = -1.37, p>.05. However, IPs in foundation universities (M= 4, SD= .80) have a significantly higher perception than IPs in public universities (M= 3.52, SD= 1.29) regarding their view that institutionalization is one of the priorities of their institution; t (92.464) = .00, p <.05, d= 1.18. According to Cohen (1988), this is a large effect. In addition to that, IPs in foundation universities (M= 3.52, SD= .1.25) have a significantly higher perception than IPs in state universities (M= 3.01, SD= 1.30) regarding their view about the sufficiency of their office's physical conditions to run the programs; t (123) = .03, p <.05, d=1.29. According to Cohen (1988), this is a large effect. No significant differences were found in the remaining items between IPs in foundation universities and IPs in state universities.

Lastly, the open-ended questions revealed critical results regarding the challenges that IPs experience in the administration of internationalization in universities. The findings include their main challenges while working in an international office, their perception of the administration of internationalization in their institution, and the development process of the internationalization strategy. The open-ended questions were analysed descriptively. However, some quotations from the participants were also provided to better reflect their perspectives. Among 126 participants, 102 replied to the first question, 83 replied to the second question, and 59 replied to the last question.

While replying to the first question, 65 participants mentioned the uncertainty of the official status of international offices. The state university IPs participating in the study emphasized that the international offices are not placed in the official structure of the HEIs in Türkiye, e.g., some of them work under the Students Affairs, and some work directly with a Vice-Rector. This unstandardized type of institutionalization might seem like an opportunity for the autonomy and flexibility of HEIs. However, it also causes international offices open to frequent changes and become more vulnerable to management decisions. A participant expressed his views on the challenges that he experienced:

> The institutional structure is the biggest problem. That's our more important problem than anything else right now. It is not clear to whom the offices are affiliated, it is not clear what the staff of the employees in the office will be, and it is not clear how many people should work in the office. There are different office structures, arbitrary practices, and injustices, but the same result is expected from everyone: you need to increase internationalization! How is it going to be? (IP-18).

The second frequently stated answer to the first question was the international offices' lack of human resource policy. 49 participants mentioned that the personnel number in the offices defined by the university administrations is insufficient, and most newly established HEIs work with only one IP. Moreover, they experience a high turnover in working personnel since the university management makes rotations in the university. Another problem mentioned about personnel policy is the lack of training programs for the new personnel. IPs noted that there are no standardized criteria for being appointed as an IP, which sometimes causes qualification problems in conducting the job. IP-32 stated that even the staff with insufficient foreign language skills was appointed to the international office, and this caused several challenges:

> The position of the staff working in the offices should not be temporary, and they should be experts in the work. To prevent the constant change of office workers, it is necessary to follow the workflow closely and support the number of personnel required. Most importantly, they should not send the staff who do not speak English to this office with the decision of the Rectorate (IP-32).

Among 83 participants who replied to the second question, 62 stated that they experienced a lack of support from the management and other stakeholders of the university. The IPs think that the busy schedules of the vice-rectors responsible for official signatures cause several problems for them. Moreover, IPs mentioned that it is challenging for them to work with a manager who is physically away from the office and has a lot of other duties:

> To facilitate daily and especially urgent transactions, the persons authorized to sign should be those close to the office. Otherwise, in some universities, the fact that coordinators have multiple duties and are physically in another unit away from the office creates environments that disrupt the processes and cause problems between the student and the office staff (IP-61).

Moreover, 49 participants perceive that administrators do not support the international office and do not respect their job. IPs mentioned that most of the top management responsible for the management of international offices are unwilling to listen to IPs' needs and do not treat them as internationalization experts. This decreased the motivation of the IPs, and they felt isolated in their internationalization efforts:

> People in the administration should be open to innovations and aware of what internationalization can bring to the university. All the burden should not be placed on the shoulders of the international office employees. People in the administration should be able to speak English actively. It should be understood that the necessity of abroad experience and partnership visits is a part of our job (IP-73).

Similarly, 41 IPs criticize that the managers in the university primarily focus on increasing the number of international students. The IPs expressed that they are pleased to contribute to increasing the number of students and staff since this is one of their main tasks. However, they also stated that their sole effort would not be sufficient without a comprehensive understanding of internationalization at the university. An IP noted that academics' reluctance to offer English courses is a challenge to having more international students:

> The office should not only be seen as the unit that produces the number of incoming students. It should be realized that increasing the number of incoming students is not a job only the office can

> do alone. Also, the real reasons underlying the numerical reports (attitude of academicians in English courses, language inadequacy of administrative staff, etc.) should be focused on (IP-45).

Lastly, the participants mentioned their challenges in developing the internationalization strategy in the third open-ended question. The survey results above show that 36 participants strongly agree, and 47 agree that internationalization was included in the university's strategic plan. However, in the open-ended questions, 55 participants emphasized that the internationalization strategy is not jointly developed and is solely prepared by the management. Moreover, they also stated that some written strategies are not implemented:

> There is a need for an internationalization strategy that is jointly prepared, owned, and integrated into the overall university strategy by each unit/faculty of the university. Internationalization should not be included in the strategic plan as a mere expression, efforts should be made for this, and reward mechanisms should be developed for academic and administrative staff working in this direction (IP-12).

Conclusion and Discussion

The first part of the findings showed that IPs mostly believe in the positive impact of the Erasmus student and staff mobility programs on the internationalization practices in their institution. The participants agreed on the contribution of the mobility programs in developing institutional capacities for internationalization and the positive impact on the other university stakeholders who did not participate in the Program. In addition, IPs perceive that student and staff mobility programs are leading to other types of international cooperation between partner institutions (e.g., joint master’s degree programs). Regarding further research partnerships (e.g., joint research projects), the participants think Erasmus staff mobility has a higher effect on research cooperation than student mobility.

On the other hand, in terms of international offices, most IPs think the number of personnel is insufficient. The main difficulties were the lack of sufficient personnel (single staff working in some universities) and the appointment of personnel who did not receive any training and even lacked knowledge of a foreign language due to arbitrary assignments. The participants explained in the open-ended questions that since there is no clear job description, a great variety of jobs were expected from them (e.g., translation of Turkish documents into English), and therefore their human resource capacity stays insufficient. Moreover, the IPs were also asked about the international offices' physical condition, and most disagreed or partially agreed that their condition was sufficient.

The survey results showed that most of the participants’ universities included internationalization in their strategic plan, they have a clear institutionalization process for internationalization, and internationalization is one of the priorities for their institution. On the other hand, when the strategy development method was asked in the open-ended questions, IPs mentioned that senior management mostly determined these written strategies in a top-down way, and these strategies were not implemented. Foskett (2012) argues that most of the time, there is a gap between published strategic documents and the operational practices of the universities. Similarly, this study also showed that the top-down strategy development method in internationalization might cause some challenges in implementing the strategies.

Next, the findings revealed that internationalization seems to consist of numbers, and there is a high expectation of increasing numbers from the offices. At that point, IPs feel so much pressure on their offices to increase the quantitative targets, e.g., to increase the number of incoming students. On the other hand, IPs argue that obstacles to internationalization that may arise from other university stakeholders (such as the unwillingness of academics to teach in English) are ignored. As De Wit and Hunter (2014) mentioned, internationalization should not be only located in international offices. In other words, IPs felt lonely in taking responsibility for internationalization; and complained about not getting enough support from the administrators and other stakeholders in managing internationalization. The main problems were stated as the fact that the top managers are away from the office and daily operations. Moreover, the professional knowledge and expertise of the IPs are not respected, and the needs of the IPs are not listened to. On the other hand, comprehensive and strategic policies are needed to be developed in internationalization (De Wit et al., 2015); where all stakeholders take responsibility for the action.

Furthermore, the survey results also revealed differences in the perceptions of the IPs working in state and foundation universities. First, IPs in foundation universities agree more that internationalization is a priority in their institution, contributing to the institutionalization capacity than the ones in state universities. Moreover, IPs in foundation universities are more content with the physical conditions of the international offices than those in state universities. These differences in the findings for different types of universities lead us to conclude that foundation universities give more importance to internationalization in institutional terms. There might have various reasons for this, but recent research (Bulut-Sahin, 2022) on internationalization in foundation universities shows that most of the foundation universities in Türkiye included internationalization in their strategic plan to mainly attract more international students, mostly based on economic rationales. In other words, both the tuition fee provided by international students and the university's promotion in the international arena are important rationales for foundation universities to prioritize internationalization.

The open-ended questions also revealed challenges related to official status, management, other stakeholders' support, and strategy development. Participants first expressed the structural problems related to their offices, especially the lack of legal status of international offices in public universities. Taylor (2010) states that for higher education, the emergence of internationalization as a management function is also associated with new forms of professionalism and approaches to administration; since internationalization has encouraged new forms of centralized control and oversight. Internationalization in Turkish universities, as an administrative function, not recognized as an official department, is handled in various ways, sometimes as a semi-official office under the Rectorate, sometimes as a sub-bureau of the department of student affairs, etc. Another common practice in Turkish public universities is to assign personnel working in different departments to international offices. These practices cause a great contradiction with the national and institutional aims of internationalization. International offices, as the main units of implementation for internationalization, are expected to be structured in a more institutional and systematic approach.

The results highlighted that IPs think highly of the positive impact of the Erasmus Program, but there are several problems with the institutional administration of internationalization. De Wit (2013) states that the internationalization of higher education is perceived as a goal instead of a means to an end. In other words, internationalization should not be perceived as an end that can be easily reached by just adding it to strategic plans. On the other hand, internationalization in the general end, Erasmus Program, in particular, is an essential means to a strong objective of “being an international university.” In other words, sending some students and staff for an exchange is just a short-term result of the program. Stromquist (2007) stated that internationalization does not only influence the academic programs but also the administrative structures and privileges in the universities. Therefore, the long-term results should be considered more in the internationalization discussion than the short-term quantitative results. Having a multicultural campus environment, the networks established through the program, and more cooperation, such as double-degree and joint-degree programs, might be the long-term effects of the program for being an international university.

The findings also demonstrate important results for Türkiye. The statistics of the Erasmus Program demonstrate an imbalance between incoming and outgoing students in credit mobility in terms of the Erasmus Program. Türkiye has become a regional hub for degree-seeking students (Kondakci et al., 2018), and the number of international degree-seeking students is increasing day by day. However, when we look at the statistics of students coming from Europe within the scope of the Erasmus Program, it is seen that the number of incoming students is relatively low compared to other European countries (European Commission, 2021). Considering that socioeconomic rationales are the main reason for Türkiye to become a centre of attraction for international students (Kondakci, 2011), it is important to examine the possible academic, economic, socio-cultural, and political reasons for the insufficient increase in the number of students coming for Erasmus students. The finding of the positive effects of the Erasmus program of this study also shows that the rise in the number of credit mobility students is as significant as the increase in degree-seeking students for the internationalization of higher education in Türkiye. This increase in numbers will not only increase the number of students numerically, but also the national diversity of incoming students will increase, and the interaction of Turkish students with more international students will increase.

This study has two main limitations. First, in this study, the participants were asked about the Erasmus Program with the European program countries, and the exchange with the non-European countries was excluded. Secondly, this study only reflects the perceptions of the IPs as just one stakeholder in the university in terms of internationalization; however, we believe that they have a critical experience in the impact and administration of the Program. For further research, other studies can be conducted with the upper and middle-level administrators of the universities to reveal the administration problems of internationalization in Turkish universities.

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