INVESTIGATING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PRIMARY AND
SECONDARY LEVEL PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHERS' READINESS FOR
CHANGE AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST

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ABSTRACT

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The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between teachers' intentional, emotional, and cognitive readiness for change and perceived faculty trust in colleagues, in principal, and in clients (students and parents).

The study was designed as a correlational study and the participants comprised of 603 teachers working at primary and secondary level public schools selected from the four school districts in Ankara via cluster sampling. For the data collection, newly developed Readiness for Change Scale and Turkish adaptation of Omnibus T-Scale were utilized. Both descriptive and inferential statistics techniques (Canonical Correlation) were used for the data analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis for Readiness for Change Scale and Omnibus T-Scale were also performed within the scope of this study. Descriptive and inferential statistical analyses were performed by the software PASW Statistics 18 while the confirmatory factor analysis was performed by the software AMOS 4.

The results of the study revealed that teachers' readiness for change and perceived organizational trust were significantly correlated with each other in a way that intentional, emotional, and cognitive readiness for change were all associated with teachers' readiness for change and contributed significantly in perceived organizational trust. Conversely, the results indicated that perceived faculty trust in colleagues, in principal, and in clients (students and parents) are all correlated with perceived organizational trust, and contributed significantly in teachers' readiness for change.

Consequently, the results of this study revealed that organizational trust is an essential internal context variable, which is correlated with teachers' readiness for change. In this respect, the decision-making body of educational organizations, MONE, and schools should undertake necessary precautions to empower trust-based relationship within the teacher, principal and client (students and parents) triangulation for effective implementation and desired outcomes of the change interventions.

Keywords: Organizational Change, Readiness for Change, and Organizational Trust

ÖZ

İLKÖĞRETİM VE ORTAÖĞRETİM DÜZEYİNDEKİ DEVLET OKULLARINDA GÖREV YAPAN ÖĞRETMENLERİN DEĞİŞİME HAZIR OLMA DURUMLARI VE ALGILADIKLARI ÖRGÜTSEL GÜVEN ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİNİN İNCELENMESİ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı, öğretmenlerin bilişsel, duygusal ve kararlılık boyutunda değişime hazır olma durumları ve yöneticilerine, meslektaşlarına, öğrenci ve velilere yönelik okullarında algıladıkları güven düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir.

Çalışma, ilişkisel bir çalışma olarak desenlenmiş olup katılımcılar Ankara'da bulunan dört semtten kümeleme yöntemiyle seçilmiş ilköğretim ve ortaöğretim düzeyindeki devlet okullarında görev yapan 603 öğretmenden oluşmuştur. Veri toplama aracı olarak, yeni geliştirilen Değişime Hazır Olma Ölçeği ve Türkçe adaptasyonu yapılmış olan Çok Amaçlı T Ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Çalışma kapsamında elde edilen veriler betimsel ve yordamsal (Kanonik Korrelasyon Analizi) istatistik metotları kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Değişime Hazır Olma Ölçeği ve Çok Amaçlı T Ölçeği'nin doğrulayıcı faktör analizlerine de çalışmanın içeriğinde yer verilmiştir. Betimsel ve yordamsal istatistik analizleri için PASW 18 programı, doğrulayıcı faktör analizleri içinse AMOS 4 programı kullanılmıştır.

Çalışmanın sonuçları öğretmenlerin değişime hazır olma durumları ve algıladıkları örgütsel güven arasında anlamlı bir korelasyon olduğunu göstermiştir. Şöyle ki, öğretmenlerin bilişsel, duygusal ve kararlılık boyutunda değişime hazır olma durumları, değişime hazır olma tutumuyla anlamlı bir şekilde ilişkilendirilmiş ve bu değişkenlerin algılanan örgütsel güven düzeyine katkıda bulunduğu ortaya konmuştur. Diğer taraftan, çalışmanın sonuçları, öğretmenlerin meslektaşlarına, yöneticilerine, öğrenci ve velilerine duydukları güvenin, algıladıkları örgütsel güven düzeyiyle anlamlı bir ilişkisi olduğunu gösterirken bu değişkenlerin değişime hazır olma tutumuna katkıda bulunduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

Sonuç olarak, çalışmanın bulguları, örgütsel güvenin öğretmenlerin değişime hazır olma tutumuyla ilişkili önemli bir örgütsel içerik değişkeni olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu bakımdan, eğitim örgütlerinin karar verme organı olan Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı ve okullar daha etkili bir değişim süreci ve değişim girişimlerinden istenilen sonuçlara ulaşılabilmesi için öğretmen, yönetici ve öğrenci-veli üçgenlemesinde güvene dayalı ilişkileri güçlendirmek için gerekli önlemleri almalıdır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Örgütsel Değişim, Değişime Hazır olma ve Örgütsel Güven

To "Peace" in my heart…

and

To my family and lovely niece, Ada…

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ABBREVIATIONS

MONE: Ministry of National Education

PASW: Predictive Analytics Software

M: Mean

SD: Standard deviation

AMOS: Analysis Moments of Structures

CFA: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

NNFI: Non-normed Fit Index

CFI: Comparative Fit Index

RMSEA: Root Mean Square of Error Approximation

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Recently, organizations experience change in order to survive in a dynamic and volatile external environment continuously. There are different forces pushing organizations for change. These forces stem from the internal and external environment of the organizations. As Kezar (2001) argued, when there is an incompatibility with the balance between the organizations' internal and external environment, these forces trigger organizations for change. Hence, change is always on the agenda of the organizations. According to Damanpour (1991), specialization, managerial attitude toward change, slack resources, and professionalism are some internal forces triggering organizational change. On the other hand, according to Burke (2002), change in the marketplace, continuous technological developments in the sector and legal regulations are some examples of the external forces pushing organizations for change.

The need for change is evident not only for for-profit organizations (or private sector) but also for non-profit organizations including public organizations as well. Non-profit organizations also continuously experience change because the environment in which they are located is in flux also.

Educational organizations also experience change in order to keep up the developments in the external environment and to bring up the students with the requirements of the modern world (Aydoğan, 2007; Lewin, 1993). Accordingly, Ministry of National Education (MONE) initiated many change projects in order to meet the requirements of European membership (Ertürk, 2008), meet the

increased demands for education (Özmen & Sönmez, 2007), teach student to reach and generate new knowledge (Can, 2002) and keep up newly developed and pervading technology (Argon & Özçelik, 2008). Improving the physical capacity of schools and increasing the quality of education, increasing the rate of schooling to reach EU standards, improving technological and physical infrastructure of the schools, increasing computer literacy by adopting computerized education, adopting constructivist approach in education, and transferring administrative processes into computerized environment (e-school) are some other change projects recently initiated by MONE, which illustrate the pervasive change need in educational organizations (Akşit, 2007; Argon & Özçelik, 2008; Kuzubaşoğlu & Çelebi, 2009).

Whatever the underlying forces of change are, the aim of all change practices is to ensure healthy functioning in the organization, increase the performance, improve the current conditions, and thereby, to ensure the survival. Although relevant literature provides ample of research concerning the reasons of organizational change, there is not enough investigation to guide successful implementation and accomplishment of the change practices. Some scholars argue that this is one of the reasons why most of the change initiatives fail (Beer & Nohria, 2000a; Burke, 2008). The high failure rate is equally true for educational organizations as well. According to George, White and Schlaffer (2007), the number of change initiatives in educational organizations have intensified recently; however, the rate of accomplishment is not satisfactory.

 As the change initiatives require organizations to make monetary and human investment, the failure of change efforts cost organizations financial and human resources (Beer & Nohria, 2000b). Therefore, failure in change efforts and unmet organizational goals end up with different outcomes such as overall ineffectiveness, decreased customer satisfaction and decreased employee commitment, satisfaction, morale, and motivation. Finally, and worse of all, cynicism and high turnover rates are some of other probable outcomes for the

failure of organizational change (Lewis, 2000; Mohrman, Tenkasi & Mohrman, 2003; Whelan-Berry, Gordon & Hinings, 2003).

Various studies attempting to clarify the reasons of the failure of change interventions also give rise to rich literature on organizational change. More specifically, Burke (2008) argued the reasons of the failure as the difficulty of changing organizational culture and employees' lack of knowledge with regard to planning and implementation of the change efforts. In a subsequent study, Geisler (2001) and Lunnenburg and Ornstein (2008) asserted that employees' resistance to change is one of the most obvious threats for the success of change interventions. Besides, overconcentration on technical and financial aspects of change and underestimating the importance of human side of the change were also suggested as another major cause of the failure in most organizational change initiatives (Clegg & Walsh, 2004). Lunenburg and Ornstein (2008) argued that change efforts in schools result in resistance because change involves uncertainty and employees are likely to have a fear to adopt the requirements of the proposed changes. Also, resistance is suggested to be resulted from the changes which interfere with the organizational members' economic, social, esteem, expertise and other needs and changes which threats one's power or the influence in the organization (Fullan, 2001; Greenberg & Baron, 2000; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008; Robbins, 2000). Moreover, Bouckenooghe (2009) proposed that the antecedent of the failure of the most change initiatives is the lack of employee motivation and readiness for change.

As the previous studies revealed, several scholars also suggest that lack of positive employee attitudes is the major cause of the unsuccessful change efforts in business and educational organizations. Employee attitudes toward change were suggested to be changeable and mostly depend on organizational culture, leadership style and nature of the organization (Rashid, Sambasivan & Rahman, 2004). These discussions suggest that attitudes toward change depend on group and individual dynamics within the organization. When the group dynamics

impact is taken into account, Harris (2002) proposed that organizational culture and climate affect employee attitudes toward change. On the other hand, with regard to the individual dynamics impact, Whelan-Berry et al. (2003) argued that the success of the change initiatives mainly depend on the individuals in the organizations since change occurs even if individuals in the organization change their attitudes and behaviors accordingly. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that the key elements for the success of change efforts or the failure caused by resistance are employee attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions concerning the change initiatives.

In this respect, it can be concluded that ignoring human side of change practices is one of the major reasons behind the high failure rate of the change interventions. Hence, considering human side of change and particularly, employee readiness as an essential prerequisite for overcoming negative attitudes, readiness for change can be concluded as a foremost critical attitude that leads employees to embrace organizational change and not to resist it (Self, 2007). Therefore, readiness for change can be associated with the successful outcomes of the change efforts. As Self and Schraeder (2009) claimed, creating employee readiness during the initial steps of the change process result in supportive and enacting employee behaviors for the proposed changes. However, if creating employee readiness is ignored, the authors argued that these change effort are likely to be resisted actively or passively by the employees.

As well as creating readiness for change, the success of organizational change efforts also depends on the context of the change taking place (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999). Bouckenooghe (2009) also supported this argument in his study and asserted that successful change implementation depends on employee attitudes toward change, context, and process factors of the change. In this sense, trust is proposed to be an essential internal context factor which fosters communication and collaboration (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000), and reduces the employee resistance caused by the proposed changes (Karim & Kathawala,

2005). These findings imply that when trusting atmosphere pervades in the organization, the success of change can be warranted. The rationale behind this assertation is based on the study of Bocchino (1993). According to the author, creating trusting atmosphere and reinforcing collaborative approach in the organization result in employees to embrace and support the change efforts and finally, to reach the desired outcomes of the change. Correspondingly, ambiguity and fear of unknown caused by initiated change projects were asserted to be decreased by trusting atmosphere in the organization (Martin, 1998). Hence, negative employee attitudes toward change can be converted to the positive ones by empowering trust. This, in turn, increases the likelihood of the successful outcomes for the change interventions. Therefore, organizational trust can be considered as an internal context variable that enhances the process and affects the outcomes of the change efforts positively. In that respect, the major focus of this study was to investigate the relationship between readiness for change and organizational trust.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

Change efforts initiated by MONE or school-level changes affect professional and daily life activities of all the stakeholders, which is especially valid for teachers and principals. Hence, it is an important requirement to investigate organizational change in educational setting in order to provide relevant information to the implementers for effective change processes and desired outcomes. As teachers play a key role in the successful change interventions at school organizations (Özmen & Sönmez, 2007), it is essential to understand teachers' attitudes towards change, and the internal context factors that nurture positive teacher attitudes toward change. The literature review revealed that readiness for change is the primary attitude that reduces the resistance and fosters the enacting behaviors of the employees (Armenakis, Harris, & Mossholder, 1993). In addition, organizational trust is suggested as an essential internal context variable that enhances the success of change interventions (Bouckenooghe, 2009). In the light

of the previous arguments, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between teachers' readiness for change and perceived organizational trust.

1.3. Significance of the Study

It is evident that organizational change has been a topic that has aroused the interest of many scholars for years so there have been numerous numbers of research studies investigating the different aspects of organizational change. According to Haveman, Russo, and Meyer (2001), the dominant strategy of organizational change has been studied in detail. In a similar manner, Armenakis, Harris, and Field (1999) argued that adequate research has been conducted with regard to content, context, and process aspects of organizational change for future studies to predict how and why organizational change occurs. However, due to being a crucial topic for organization survival and effective functioning, organizational change is still required to be investigated more. The rationale behind this assertation based on the studies revealing that most of the change efforts fail in both business and educational organizations. Despite the fact that (at least in conceptual discussion) human psychology and human factors are considered as one important reason for the fail of change initiatives and the difficulties faced during the implementation phase, there is a gap in the change literature with regard to the human aspect of organizational change (Clegg & Walsh, 2004). Lack of micro-level perspective in the change literature and limited success rate of change efforts imply that organizational change should be investigated at individual-level. Therefore, the results of this study have potential to contribute to fill a gap in the change literature with regard to studying organizational change at individual level.

In addition, the necessity of investigating organizational change in educational organizations has been indicated by the change projects initiated by MONE since the recent changes have created a change climate in Turkish Education System. In

such an atmosphere, teachers act like a bridge between principal, students, and parents and become the most essential components of the change interventions. Therefore, to reach the desired goals of these change efforts, it is critical to understand the factors that nurture teachers' supporting behaviors. Although trust is regarded as a crucial factor in the change process (Mishra, 1996) and readiness for change is considered as the precursor for the success of most change efforts (Armenakis et al., 1993), the literature revealed that readiness for change and organizational trust studies in educational settings are limited (Bökeoğlu & Yılmaz, 2008; Gizir, 2008). Moreover, quite a few studies in the relevant literature have attempted to find the relationship between organizational trust in different reference groups and readiness for change (Jones, Jimmieson & Griffiths, 2005; Weber & Weber, 2001). Literature review on the organizational change also indicated that majority of the studies conducted focused on the leader and the ways to effectively manage the change process (Argon & Özçelik, 2008; Gokçe, 2009; Saylı & Tüfekçi, 2008). Hence, this study was expected to contribute in the change literature by presenting the relationship between readiness for change and organizational trust in educational setting from the teachers' point of view.

The results of the study are also expected to have significant contributions to theory, research, and practice on organizational change in educational organizations (Armenakis & Bedeain, 1999).

Theoretically, the study adapts the content, context, process, and outcome framework (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999) partly and focuses on one outcome variable as the dependent variable (readiness to change) and on one context variable as the independent variable (organizational trust). Moreover, Piderit's (2000) three-factor framework for investigating general attitudes and three-factor structure for the attitude of readiness for change (Bouckenooghe, Devos & Van Den Broeck, 2009) are adopted in this study. In accordance with the proposed frameworks, readiness for change is investigated as a three-factor structure as

intentional readiness, emotional readiness and cognitive readiness in educational setting. Finally, although this study was conducted with correlational design, which does not present causal relationship between the variables, it is argued to imply causality (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). Therefore, this study was expected to bring about the results suggesting whether readiness is high or low with high or low organizational trust.

Secondly, in terms of research, the study aimed to contribute to the development and validation of the newly developed Turkish Readiness for Change Scale measuring organizational members' readiness for change in educational organizations.

Finally, in practice, this study raises the issue of considering human side of change practices in educational organizations in Turkey. It invites the policy makers and administrators to consider human side and invest in readiness of their members for change practices by fostering open communication, organizational trust, participatory decision-making and empowering self-efficacy and collective efficacy of teachers.

1.4. Definition of Terms

In order to understand the variables used in this study better, one should ascertain the definition of the terms as follows:

Attitudes toward change refer to "a person's tendency to feel, think or behave in a positive or negative manner toward that change" (Arnold, Cooper & Robertson, 1995, p.167).

Readiness refers to the "cognitive precursor to the behaviors of either resistance to, or support for, a change effort" (Armenakis et al., 1993, p.681).

Readiness for change is "reflected in organizational members' beliefs, attitudes, and intentions regarding the extent to which changes are needed and the organization's capacity to successfully make those changes" (Armenakis et al., 1993, p.681).

Intentional readiness for change refers to the "the effort and energy organizational members are willing to invest in the change process" (Bouckenooghe et al., 2009, p.576).

Cognitive readiness for change refers to "the beliefs and thoughts organizational members hold about the outcomes of change" (Bouckenooghe et al., 2009, p.576).

Emotional readiness for change refers to the organizational members' "feelings about a specific change project being introduced" (Bouckenooghe et al., 2009, p.576).

Trust refers to "an individual's or group's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest, and open" (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, p. 189).

Faculty trust refers to the collective trust shared by the teachers working in the same school (Van Maele & Van Houtte, 2009).

Trust in principal is defined as "the faculty has confidence that the principal will keep his or her word and act in the best interest of the teachers" (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998, p.342).

Trust in colleagues is defined as "teachers can depend on each other in difficult situations and teachers can rely on the integrity of their colleagues" (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998, p.342).

Trust in clients refers to teachers trust in parents' doing good job, being reliable in their promises and teachers trust in what parents are telling. In addition, teacher trust in students' competency in learning, their capacity to do well on works and students' caring for each other (Tschannen-Moran, 2009).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter presents a comprehensive review of the literature on organizational change, readiness for change and organizational trust. The chapter is organized under four main parts. In the first part, the definition of organizational change is made and organizational change types and attitudes toward change are presented in details. In the second part, definition of readiness for change and its dimension, the literature with regard to creation of readiness for change, and the content, context, process and individual factors affecting readiness for change are depicted broadly. In the third part, organizational trust with the emphasis on trust in school organizations and four dimensions of school trust are presented. In the final part of the chapter, trust in change context is depicted within the summary of the literature.

2.1. Organizational Change

Today's organizations face with the challenge of collapsing if they do not meet the demands of the external environment. As Burke (2008) stated, change in the external environment is more rapid than that of in the organizations. Hence, organizations continuously experience change to keep up this pace. Therefore, the major question of many studies seek to answer is what the organizational change is and how it can be achieved.

Lewin (1951) is commonly accepted as the father of organizational change concept. Since the work of Lewin, there have been numerous attempts to define and describe change. These efforts had been intensified during 1980 and 1990, when the organization entered into an era of dynamic external environments

(Kondakci, 2005). During this era, several forces started to push the organizations for change some aspects or the total organization. More volatile state of economic conditions (Hoskisson, Eden, Lau, & Wright, 2000) continuously developing technological conditions (Wanberg & Banas, 2000) and change in the workforce (Lerman & Schmidt, 2002, as cited in Self & Schraeder, 2009) are some of the external forces in competitive external environment. It is commonly believed that if organizations fail to keep up with the ascending pace of continuously changing environment and to adapt these turbulent conditions, they will probably encounter with the risk of forfeit their market share, successful employees and even support of their shareholders (Collins, 2001; Vollman, 1996). Organizations may also face with the risk of collapsing at worst (Collins, 2001; Vollman, 1996). Beer and Nohria (2000a) reaffirm the previous argument by stating that unless the traditional organizations change as response to the external demands, they are likely to fail. Hence, organizations need to experience change on a continuous basis to be more competent in such an unstable and versatile environment.

2.1.1. Definition of Organizational Change

In the light of the previous findings, Burke (2008) defined organizational change as fundamental alterations in the current ways used in the organization, re-design of the organizational decision-making and accountability processes and creating a new vision for the employees with regard to the future.

According to Mills, Dye and Mills (2009), organizational change is a revision in the major elements of the organizational functioning such as structure, technology, culture, leadership, strategy, goals and organizational members (Mills, Dye & Mills, 2009).

In accordance with the definition of Burke, Erdoğan (2002) described organizational change as the decision-making and implementation process which involves the re-construction of the system to generate and create new ideas in

order to meet the needs when the existent conditions in the organization fail to meet the demands of the external environment.

Several scholars argued that the field of organizational change is characterized with theoretical plurality (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995). These theories are either developed specifically for understanding and/or explaining organizational change or they are adopted from other fields including both social sciences and hard sciences. For instance, several scholars argued that organizations are open entities and they proposed open systems approach as a theoretical instrument to explain change and development in organizations. Burke (2008) also adopted this approach to describe organizational change and characterized organizations as open systems since they have continuous interaction with their external environment on which they are dependent for survival. As proposed by Katz and Kahn (1978), open systems function within the cyclical process with three stages of input-throughput-output mechanism. Organizations require energy and raw materials from external environment to function. These inputs are consumed and turned into different products in the throughput stage. Subsequently the product is delivered back to the external environment. However, the process does not end with output stage. Rather, in most cases the product becomes an input for another cycle. The continuous in- and out-flow mechanism indicates the dependency of organizations to their external environment.

Other than cyclical input-throughput-output mechanism, Katz and Kahn (1978) suggested that negative entropy is another characteristic that distinguishes open systems. As a natural law, the disorder in all systems increases as time passes which is called entropy (Scott, 2003). However, if organizations import more energy than they consume, they can store energy and gain negative entropy (Burke, 2008; Scott, 2003). Therefore, organizations should continuously exert effort to maintain their current state, to survive and grow in a competitive world. This aim of the organizations can be achieved by information input, negative feedback, and the coding process, which is one another characteristic of open

systems (Burke, 2008). When the organization receives feedback, particularly, negative feedback about its products, this negative feedback turns out to be another input for the organization to change the throughput in order to improve the output (Burke, 2008). Therefore, organizations can overcome entropy if their gain is greater than the costs. To ensure that, organizations need to get continuous feedback from their external environment. At this point, organizational change gains more importance because the feedback mechanism helps to improve the output through initiating necessary change initiatives in the organization (Burke, 2008). Therefore, the major aim of organizational change can be argued to be a mean to create more healthy organizations that will survive and grow in such a competitive and constantly changing environment (Kondakci, 2005).

It is commonly argued that educational organizations have some unique characteristics that distinguish them from business organizations due to having human as the raw material (Özen, Gül, & Gülaçtı, 2007; Özmen & Sönmez, 2007). As Argon and Özçelik (2008) emphasized, educational organizations both affect the external environment and being affected by it also. According to the authors, within this process, one of the major purposes of the schools is to raise the individuals who carrying out the change process. Moreover, due to being the systems that generate knowledge, skills and qualities required by other organizations, educational organizations need to track changes in the external environment that affect the demands directly and they need to change accordingly (Özmen & Sönmez, 2007).

Despite these differences, change need is equally true for educational organizations as well (Kuzubaşıoğlu & Çelebi, 2009; Özmen & Sönmez, 2007). The literature proves that some internal and external forces push schools for change. Lunenburg and Ornstein (2008) presented these external forces as accountability with regard to superordinate-subordinate relationship, changing demographics, staffing shortages, technological change and knowledge exposition and internal forces as process and people. The authors declared process problems

that push schools for change as communication, decision-making, motivation, and leadership. Also, the problems caused by the people in the organization that bring about change were presented as low performance of teachers and students, high absenteeism rates of teachers and parents, high level of teacher turnover and student dropout, ineffective communication between school and community and low satisfaction and morale of teachers. In accordance with the previous results, Töremen (2002) also argued the major reasons that bring about school change as external pressures on school, changing legislations and regulations, conflict and crises, inadequate communication, change in school organization culture and low school performance.

If schools as being open-systems fail to make changes on their input and throughput processes brought by the environmental developments, internal and external forces, they are probably faced with the danger of entropy (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1996). Therefore, it is vital for school survival to be aware of the changes in the external environment and adopt the requirements of these changes.

2.1.2. Major Lenses of Change

As change being a multifaceted and complex concept, it needs to be addressed in a more comprehensive and broader way by combining different views together (Poole, 2004). Several scholars argued that to tackle with this complexity, change has been investigated through different lenses in the literature as order of change, nature of change, level of change and intentionality of change (Kezar, 2001) as displayed in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1

Major Lenses of Organizational Change

Lenses of change	Types of change
Order of change	
	First-order changes
	Second-order changes
Nature of Change	
	Evolutionary change
	Revolutionary change
Levels of Change	
	Individual-level change
	Group-level change
	Organizational-level change
	Industry-level change
Intentionality of Change	
	Planned change
	Unplanned change

2.1.2.1. Order of Change

Several scholars made differentiation between first- and second-order changes (Bartunek & Moch, 1987; Kondakci, 2005; Moch & Bartunek, 1990; Porras & Robertson, 1992). First-order and second-order changes depends on the depth of the change being initiated and focus on the answer of the question "how radical or fundamental the planned changes" (Seo, Putnam & Bartunek, 2004, p.78). According to authors, first order changes have the aim of increasing the skills or solving the problems in the previously agreed areas in the organization. These changes involve changing one or more aspects of the organization in the form of an adjustment, improvement, or iteration; however, first-order change does not involve changing the basic strategy, direction, mission, or the dominant paradigm within the organization (Kondakci, 2005; Porras & Robertson, 1992). In addition, unlike second-order changes, first-order changes are continuous in nature (Yuan & Woodman, 2007). On the contrary, second-order changes involve alteration of

employees' frame of references, the main strategy of the organization, mission or the dominant paradigm of the organization (Seo et al., 2004; Yuan & Woodman, 2007) and these changes are suggested to be discontinuous in nature (Levy & Merry, 1986).

2.1.2.2. Nature of Change

Classifying organizational change in terms of its nature has been another major concern of change researchers. As Burke (2002) stated, although revolutionary and evolutionary changes have some common characteristics, making classification according to the nature of the change is essential since their focus of organizational domains are different. In accordance with the previous findings, Kondakci (2005) also indicated that classifying change as revolutionary and evolutionary contributes our understanding about the aim of the change as making adjustment in some areas of the organization or making alterations in the fundamental parts of the organization. Revolutionary and evolutionary changes are identified by the scale and pace of the change (Greenwood & Hinings, 1996). In that sense, the authors emphasized that evolutionary change happens in a gradual and slow way while revolutionary change occurs rapidly and affect almost all components of the organization.

As the term revolution implies, revolutionary change is defined as a perturbation in the system, which results in organization to be completely different since then (Burke, 2008). Since revolutionary change brings about alterations in the core of the organization, Seo et al. (2004) asserted that it could happen under some certain circumstances. The authors exemplified these circumstances as internal or external forces like dramatic decrease in organizational performance and change in the market place. In addition, it is argued that direct executive leadership is needed for revolutionary organizational change due to the fact that top management has the authority to make deep changes in the core dimensions of the organization (Nadler & Tushman, 1995). On the other hand, most of the changes

organizations experience are evolutionary changes, which does not influence the fundamental parts of the organization and entails measuring quality or improving it, measures for advancing the way a product is designed and delivering a service (Burke, 2008).

2.1.2.3. Levels of Change

To comprehend the complexity and multidimensionality of change, organizational change has been investigated at different levels in the organization. In that sense, Burke (2008) stated that an organization consist of interacting smaller units and parts that forms the totality. Hence, the author argued that understanding organizational change comprehensively depends on analyzing different smaller parts and their effect on each other and on the whole system and vice versa.

Accordingly, Whelan-Berry and her colleagues (2003) argued in their study that change needs to be analyzed at individual and groups levels since organizational change can not occur without individuals and groups in the organization change their work routines, frameworks or values. In a subsequent study, Mills et al. (2009) also underlined the importance of studying change at different levels in organizations since the change efforts have the aim to make different alterations in different target levels. Hence, the authors examined change at three level as individual, group and organizational level. Burke (2008), on the other hand, elaborated three levels of organizational change and emphasized the need for examining change with the prefix "inter" at all these levels due to the fact that individuals, groups and organizations all have interrelationship with other individuals and groups in the organization and other organizations in the outside environment.

Individual-level changes have been described as the efforts to change individuals' behaviors, attitudes, and perceptions in the organization (Mills et al., 2009). Within this level, to reach the intended goals, training programs like counseling

and coaching and employee responses toward change are dealt with (Burke, 2008). Hence, individual level interventions can be inferred to have the aim of developing readiness, openness and other positive attitudes towards change while decreasing negative attitudes such as cynicism toward change and sabotaging change.

Group-level changes involve changing the work processes (Mills et al., 2009). As groups being the primary subsystems in the organization functioning building well-functioning teams in the organization brings about more successful change efforts since every member of the team moves to the same direction accordingly with the proposed change (Burke, 2008).

Organizational-level changes are suggested to be generally focused on restructuring and reorganizing which may affect the whole organization (Mills et al., 2009). Because of having such a broad scope, these changes generally begins at individual level and needs to be analyzed by taking into account the order of change, the phase of the change, the focus of the change, the nature of the change and intervention strategies (Burke 2002; Burke, 2008).

Industry-level, or sector-level, has also been emphasized in the relevant literature as the forth level of organizational change (Kezar, 2001). In that sense, Kondakci (2005) asserted that industrial level changes should be analyzed in organizational change studies due to the fact that there may be a reciprocal effect caused by the proposed organizational change efforts in the organizations and population of organizations on each other. In a subsequent study, Meyer, Brooks and Goes (1990) also indicated the importance of examining industry-level changes in the environment that pace of higher level changes surpasses the pace of lower-level changes.

2.1.2.4. Intentionality of Change

With regard to intentionality, Porras and Robertson (1992) made a distinction between planned and unplanned change. This distinction between planned and unplanned change depends on the extent to which proposed changes are controlled or choreographed (Poole, 2004). As stated by the author, planned change is "consciously conceived and implemented by knowledgeable actors" (p.4). Thereby, planned changes are indicated to have the aim to improve the conditions in the organization to reach a desired-end state. On the contrary, unplanned change is suggested to occur with or without human choice; therefore, the outcome of the unplanned changes can be desired or undesired end-state for the organization (Poole, 2004).

2.1.3. Content, Context, Process, and Outcome Model of Organizational Change

Complexity of organizational change necessitates utilization of complex models to investigate organizational change. According to Armenakis and Bedeian (1999), organizational change research needs to focus on content, context, process, and outcome dimensions. In that sense, the relevant literature indicated that the success of change efforts majorly depends on the congruence between content, context, and process of the change, not solely on the nature of the change efforts (Damanpour, 1991). This finding suggested that successful change research and practices depends on understanding what to change, in what conditions change is taking place, how to change and the outcome of the change efforts with the order of the change, nature of the change, intervention strategies, etc.

2.1.3.1. Content Research

According to Burke (2008), content research seeks an answer to the question of "what" which involves antecedents and consequences of the change efforts. Dainty and Kakabadse (1990) presented a framework for the content of

organizational change which specifies the four areas of change as task, people, technology and structure (Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1 Content Areas of Organizational Change

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Source: Dainty, P., & Kakabadse, A. (1990). Organizational change: A strategy for successful implementation. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 4*(4), 463-481.

Within this framework, the authors emphasized that people are the "hub of the wheel" (p.466) in the change process. In this respect, since the human is the core of the change efforts, employee resistance is likely to emerge because of the factors specific to the content of the change (Self & Schreader, 2009). Indeed, employee reactions were suggested to be affected by the extent the proposed change influences their lives (Self, Armenakis & Schraeder, 2007). According to Fox (1997), if there is a sense of loss or reduction in the personal control with the proposed changes, resistance is likely to emerge. In addition, if the change is not clarified and employee's understanding is not ensured, resisting behaviors may evolve (Alas, 2007a). According the Self and Schreader (2009), if employees do not believe in the appropriateness of the change efforts, they also exhibit resisting behaviors. Hence, Self et al. (2007) stated that if the proposed changes cause a serious impact on the employees, they can exhibit a negative reaction, and vice versa. Therefore, the scale of the change is also proposed to be critical which determine the employee reactions toward change (Dainty & Kakabadse, 1990).

2.1.3.2. Context Research

Contextual factors are defined as the conditions in the internal and external environment of the organization that affect its functioning (Armenakis and Bedeian, 1999; Bouckenooghe, 2009; Self et al., 2007; Walker, Armenakis & Bernerth., 2007). In that sense, external context factors that affect organizational change can be counted as governmental regulations (Kelly & Amburgey, 1991), legislative and technological changes (Haveman, 1992), and competitive pressures (Meyer et al., 1990).

Internal context factors associated with organizational change, on the other hand, can be exemplified as trust, change history of the organization, and management attitude toward change.

The studies concerning the successful change efforts indicated that trust plays a crucial role as an internal context variable during organizational change efforts. As trust is described as a feeling that reduces the uncertainty and stress caused by the change (Martin, 1998), it is possible to concluded that trust is associated with positive employee attitudes. More specifically, the study conducted by Van Dam, Shaul and Schnys (2008) affirmed this assertation by concluding that trust is strongly related with resistance to change and it is a key element in fostering employee cooperation and support during the change efforts. Therefore, since the lack of trust is considered as one of the major source of resistance (Karim & Kathawala, 2005; Mink, 1992), creating trust-based relationship in the organization during change process is likely to result in positive employee attitudes. In a subsequent study investigating the role of managerial communication, employee participation and trust in supervisor on openness to change reached the conclusions that the relationship between managerial communication and openness to change is mediated by trust in supervisor (Ertürk, 2008). Some other studies also supported the previous works by suggesting that trust in superior is strongly correlated with openness to change (Devos, Buelens &

Bouckenooghe, 2007; Eby, Adams, Russel & Gabby, 2000). Therefore, building trust during organizational change efforts brings about positive employee responses, effective communication and thereby, supporting behaviors. Since trust is another focal point in this study, in the subsequent section of the literature report there will be detailed elaborations on organizational trust and trust in organizational change context.

Organization's change history and whether the prior change experiences fail or succeed are other concerns of the literature pertaining to organizational internal context variables (Bouckenooghe, 2009; Kondakci, 2005). The results of the conducted studies revealed that history of unsuccessfully implemented change efforts brings about negative employee attitudes and vice versa. To illustrate, studies corning the organizations' change history on employee attitudes indicated that if the organization's past change experiences ended up with failure, employees respond with lack of motivation to continue to implement changes, thereby, cynicism emerges on the part of the employee and frustration emerges on the part of the management (Schneider, Brief & Guzzo, 1996; Wanous, Reichers & Austin, 2000). On the other hand, Self and Schraeder (2009) asserted in their study that successful past changes lead employees to believe in the success of current changes which, in turn, brings about less resistance and less cynicism. Correspondingly, Devos et al. (2007) investigated the relationship between track of change records of the organization and employee openness and indicated that successful change history is an important precondition for openness to change. Like the previous study, another study conducted by Bouckenooghe and Devos (2008) also emphasized the effect of history of successful change efforts on positive employee attitudes and concluded that history of change is an important predictor of employee readiness for change which brings about encouragement for employees to implement new changes. In the light of the previous arguments, positive employee attitudes and desired outcomes of the change efforts can be associated with the organizations' history of change.

Finally, management attitude toward change is regarded as an essential contextual factor in organizational change practice. It is believed that top management has the responsibility to create a culture and climate in the organization in which organizational change is effectively implemented and sustained (Schneider et al., 1996). As well as creating a suitable atmosphere, the importance of supportive management attitude during the change efforts was addressed in the same study by stressing that without the superiors' commitment about change and their understanding, organizational change efforts are likely to fail. Some studies also stressed the importance of intense supportive managerial attitude in the change process and argued that management supportive and committed attitudes play a key role in effective implementation of change management (Skalik, Barabasz & Belz, 2002). Similarly, Damanpour (1991) also emphasized the essence of supportive managerial attitude in change process by describing that favorable managerial attitude brings about conductive internal climate for change and plays a crucial role in conflict resolutions between employees and units during the implementation stage of the change efforts. Besides, in another study, the essence of management attitude on creating readiness for change was addressed and principal support was argued as one of the five essential characteristics of the change message, which creates readiness for change (Armenakis et al., 1999). Therefore, supportive managerial attitudes during organizational change are likely to end up with enacting employee behaviors since when the employees perceived higher managerial support in the organization, their perception about the change efforts would be more justified (Dallavalle, 1991; Self et al., 2007). Therefore, when the employee uncertainties are handled, positive attitudes are expected to emerge on the part of the organizational members.

2.1.3.3. Process Research

The studies concerning the process issues of organizational change involves both process models proposed for effective change implementation and process factors that contribute to the positive outcomes of the change efforts.

Studies concerning the phases for the effective change implementation process have started from the work of Lewin (1947) in which three-step model for organizational change was suggested. According to Lewin, change implementation starts with unfreezing which involves communicating information with the organizational members to show that there is a discrepancy between the current state and desired end state of the organization. The second step, moving, involves creating new behaviors, attitudes, and values in the organization. The last step, which is freezing, involves sustaining the organization at the newly reached state. Following the work of Lewin, many other researchers have also proposed their model for change implementation. Similar to the model suggested by Lewin, Bridges (1991) also proposed a three-step model for effective change process as endings, transitions, and new beginnings.

Kotter (1995) also proposed a change process model for successful large-scale changes comprises of eight steps as; (a) creating a sense of urgency; (b) building a guiding team of individuals who work for the embracement of change by the other organizational members; (c) developing right vision to reach the desired end-state; (d) communicating the new vision for buy-in; (e) empowering people to act on the new vision; (f) creating short term wins, thereby momentum is built with fewer resistance; (g) not letting up the leaders to create wave after wave of change until the state intended by new vision is reached; (h) making change stick by cultivating the new culture (Kotter & Cohen, 2002).

More recent studies on the process of change gave out some other models with different phases for effective implementation of organizational change. Galphin's model (1996) was based on an analogy of wheel with nine wedges as; (a) establishing the need for change; (b) developing and disseminating a new vision for the change; (c) diagnosing and analyzing the current situation; (d) generating recommendations; (e) detailing the recommendations; (f) pilot testing of the recommendations; (g) preparing the recommendations for rollout; (h) rolling out the recommendations; and (i) measuring, reinforcing and refining the change.

Armenakis, Harris, and Field (1999) also proposed a widely used model for successful change process. The model comprises of three steps as; (a) readiness which involves developing the attitude of readiness for change in the organization; (b) adoption which entails the implementation and adoption of the new ways brought by the change and; (c) institutionalization which depends on the maintaining the changes until they become norms in the organization. The first step of this model, readiness, was also proposed to be created through another model. Armenakis et al. (1993) argued that readiness depends on communicating the change message with the employees. As suggested by Armenakis at el. (1999), for change message to be effective, the change message should include five issues as discrepancy, self-efficacy, personal valence, principal support and appropriateness.

In addition to the stages of change implementation, process dimension of change interventions refers to the conditions facilitating or inhibiting success of change. Open and wide communication, knowledge share, participation are some factors of which existence may facilitate successful change practices and vice versa.

Participation in the decision making during the change efforts is regarded as one of the critical factors which hinders negative employee attitudes and fosters positive ones (Armenakis et al., 1993; Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005). To illustrate, in the model proposed by Armenakis et al. (1999), the authors suggested some ways to convey the change message. By emphasizing the importance of the employee participation in the change process, they indicated that one of the best methods to transmit the change message is employee active participation. In the literature, participation is also asserted to be critical process factor that reduces resistance to the proposed changes. Indeed, one of the well-known and oldest study on employee resistance to change conducted by Coch and French (1948) demonstrated that the most common obstacle for the success of change efforts which is resistance can be eliminated through active participation of the employees in the change process. Participation in decision-making is also

proposed to be positively related with the effective implementation and success of organizational change efforts (Armenakis et al.,1993; Heller, 2003; Sagie & Koslowski, 1996; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). Van Dam et al. (2008) also supported the essence of the active participation during the change process by adding that active participation contributes openness to change and it is negatively correlated with resistance to change.

In addition to participation, communication is also a critical factor for effective change process (Mento, Jones & Dirndorfer, 2010; Walker, Armenakis & Bernerth, 2007). Studies conducted on the necessity of effective communication during change process indicated that the aim of adopting honest and effective communication during change process is to contribute to the employee understanding about the change, to create commitment, to overcome resistance caused by confusion and uncertainty (Mento et al., 2010). Similarly, Bordia, Hobman, Jones, Gallois, and Callan (2004) indicated that communication in the change process promotes openness and positive employee attitudes if uncertainty caused by the change is successfully handled. The study conducted by Saksvik et al. (2007) also reaffirmed the previous findings and emphasized that through effective communication in the change process, employee frustration can be handled. The study conducted by Young and Post (1993) reaffirmed the previous findings and declared that communication during the change efforts clarify the reason of the change to the employees, thus, fosters employees' efficacy and elucidate their roles in the process. In brief, when employees are provided with clear justification about the changes being proposed, the attitude of readiness for change and support for change can be built (Armenakis et al., 1993).

2.1.3.4. Outcome Research

The outcome research mainly concentrated on the determinants that bring about innovation and change in the organization and the employee attitudes that is directly associated with the success of change efforts.

A highly well known meta-analysis of Damanpour (1991) conducted in order to manifest the relationship between innovation and its potential correlates and to examine the moderating innovation factors on the relationship between innovation and its determinants, gives out rich information for the outcome research on organizational change. In the study, the author referred innovation as a means of organizational change and concluded that there is a positive relationship between innovation and some determinants of innovation such as, specialization, management attitude toward change, administrative intensity and external and internal communication. In addition, the results of the study indicated a negative relationship between centralization in the organization and innovation. However, formalization and management tenure were not concluded to be associated with the innovation. Therefore, results of this study reaffirmed the previous findings in the context and process research for the desired end-state of organizational change.

In addition to all these, since the outcome of the change efforts majorly depend on the extent to which employees embrace the change or show negative responses, employees' enacting behaviors were argued to be critical for the success of the change efforts (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999). In that sense, Clegg and Walsh (2004) emphasized that underestimating employee attitudes toward change result in unsuccessful change efforts. Therefore, the outcome research also primarily focuses on the reasons of the failure or the success of the change efforts as employee attitudes toward change. Accordingly, to this end, employee attitudes toward change have been investigated through negative and positive perspectives in the literature (Bouckenooghe, 2009). Within this framework, resistance to change, cynicism, and coping with change are regarded as the negative employee attitudes. On the other hand, openness to change, adjustment to change, commitment to change and readiness for change are considered as positive employee attitudes toward change.

2.1.4. Negative Employee Attitudes toward Change

Employee resistance to change has been suggested to be the main reason for the failure of organizational change (Parker, 1980; Waddell & Sohal, 1998). In the relevant literature, studies investigating the reasons of change resistance bring about variety of outcomes. To illustrate, Burnes and James (1995) argued that employee resistance to change is high when the culture of the organization is not supportive or participatory. In addition, Ford and Ford (1995) indicated that lack of quality communication in the organization result in derailed change. Correspondingly, Zimmerman (2006) asserted that since change brings about insecurity and perceived as a threat to the current practices, employee resistance to change emerges. Therefore, employees are likely to resist proposed changes when they do not participate in decision-making, and feel to be threatened by the newly developed practices. In such cases, people are prone to consider their own self-interest more than the organization' interest (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999) which, in turn, brings about employee resistance and unsuccessful change efforts.

In addition, cynicism about organizational change has been argued as the negative employee attitude toward change, which brings about undesirable outcomes for the organizational change as well (Wanous, Reichers & Austin, 2000). In the study conducted by Stanley, Meyer, and Topolnytsky (2005), the authors concluded that cynicism is an attitude that contributes to the resistance to change. As this construct involves pessimistic viewpoint about the potential positive outcomes of the change efforts (Wanous et al., 2000; 2004), it is associated with the lack of intent for change (Stanley et al., 2005; Wanous et al., 2000). Therefore, cynicism about change affects employees' supportive behaviors negatively, thereby increases the probability of unsuccessful change efforts.

Coping with change is another negative employee attitude that takes its roots from negative psychology (Bouckenooghe, 2009). Coping is defined as "the person's cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage (reduce, minimize, or tolerate) the

internal and external demands of the person-environment transaction that is appraised as taxing or exceeding the person's resources" (Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen & Delongis, 1986). In the literature, coping with change is associated with positive employee attitudes toward change. To illustrate, Cunningham et al. (2002) asserted that when the confidence of employees in coping with change is high, they are more ready to contribute to the change efforts. In that sense, Judge, Thoresen, Pucik and Welbourne (1999) concluded in their study that coping with change is strongly associated with commitment to change which, in turn, gives rise to more enacting behaviors of the employees.

2.1.5. Positive Employee Attitudes toward Change

Positive employee attitudes, on the other hand, are all suggested to be critical predictors for successful organizational change efforts. Although the major focus of this study is readiness for change, employee adjustment to change, openness to change, commitment about change are also depicted briefly.

Openness to change is considered as the willingness to embrace the change which brings about positive outcomes for the change efforts (Wanberg & Banas, 2000). According to Miller, Johnson, and Grau (1994), openness to change involves supporting behaviors of change efforts which, in turn, results in positive influence on potential outcomes of the change efforts. As Devos et al. (2007) argued, openness to change is affected by the employees' history of change in such a way that if employees' previous change experiences end up with failure, the attitude of cynicism emerges on the part of the employee. With the emergence of cynicism among employees, the authors emphasized that motivation for future changes is likely to decrease. Therefore, openness to change is considered as an attitude that helps employees to be motivated to behave in a supporting manner for change the efforts, and contributes to reach desired goals at the end.

Another positive employee attitude toward change is adjustment to change, which is one of the poorly defined employee attitudes and it demands further investigation (Bouckenooghe, 2009). Existing literature on adjustment to change, however, demonstrated that, this attitude could be associated with the desired outcomes of the change efforts. According to Martin, Jones, and Callan (2005), successful employee adjustment to organizational change leads to increased willingness to change in the future by contributing to learning and development. Poor adjustment to change, on the contrary, is argued to involve the feeling of threat, anxiety, stress, and insecurity about the job-related issues as job security, status, and relationship with co-workers (Ashford, 1988) and inferred to results in negative employee attitudes and unsupportive behaviors. Therefore, adjustment to change creates enacting behaviors for organizational change efforts by the help of increasing openness to change and reducing uncertainty (Callan et al., 2007), and it clearly affects the outcome of the change efforts positively.

Similarly, commitment to change is regarded as an employee attitude which affects the outcomes of organizational change positively. According to Herscovitch and Meyer (2002), commitment to change is an important predictor of supporting employee behavior for change. Therefore, increase in negative attitudes among employees; such as, cynicism results in reduced employee commitment (Abraham, 2000; Reichers, Wanous & Austin, 1997). As a result, when employees are committed about organizational change, their supporting and enacting behaviors are likely to increase. This, in turn, leads to decrease in cynicism and organizational change efforts to be achieved.

Since the purpose of the study focus on investigating readiness for change, more detailed discussion on readiness for change is presented in the following section.

2.2. Readiness for Change

As indicated above, one of the basic reasons for the failure of change

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interventions is related to negative employee attitudes toward change (Clegg & Walsh, 2004). As a result, one of the major concerns of many studies in the change literature is to investigate positive employee attitudes, the variables that positively and/or negatively related to these attitudes and their impact on the success of organizational change efforts (e.g., Armenakis et al., 1993; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Martin, Jones & Callan, 2005; Wanberg & Banas, 2000).

Readiness for change emerged as one of the core attitude affecting success/failure of change interventions. Indeed, several scholars have concluded that it is a prerequisite for the success of change interventions (Armenakis et al., 1993; Bernerth, 2004). According to Weiner (2009), readiness for change involves employees' beliefs in their potential and efficacy for the change efforts. In that sense, readiness for change can be considered as the opposite pole of resistance to change. However, Self (2007) asserted in his study that readiness and resistance are not two opposite constructs. In accordance with this understanding, the author emphasized that creating readiness for change contributes to creating supporting employee behaviors rather than resisting behaviors. Hence, readiness for change is argued to be a critical factor in identifying the major causes of employee resistance toward large-scale organizational changes (Eby et al, 2000). In addition, Bernerth (2004) underlined the essence of creating readiness for the successful change initiatives by concluding that readiness for change creates the positive energy necessary for the success of change efforts; thus, becomes a first step to reach the desired outcomes at the end of the change process.

Weiner (2009) described readiness for change from the perspectives of social cognitive theory and motivational theory and explained the usefulness of creating readiness for change to create enacting employee behaviors. By considering social cognitive theory, the author suggested that readiness for change encourages employees' to be voluntary to commence change, motivates them to invest greater effort to embrace change, and drives them to overcome the obstacles. In addition, from the point of motivational theory, the author declared that when the employee

readiness is high in organization, employees are likely to exhibit more enacting behaviors that are not specified in their formal job descriptions.

In brief, readiness for change is considered as a positive employee attitude that creates employee willingness to initiate and support the change efforts, and also a necessary condition to overcome resistance, thereby, to accomplish organizational change intervention successfully.

2.2.1. Definitions of Readiness for Change

Readiness for change is a construct that has been defined in many different industry settings as health care, business, education, government, and human services or defined generally for multiple sectors and regarded as either organizational-level and individual-level construct (Weiner, Amick & Lee, 2008).

Backer (1997) referred readiness for change as an organizational-level construct in health care industry setting and defined it as a mind state that determines the desired behaviors for the enhancement or the resistance of the innovations.

In another definition made for business sector, Peach, Jimmieson, and White (2005) regarded readiness for change as an individual-level construct and explained it as the extent of positive employee ideas regarding the need for change and the positive outcomes of the change efforts for themselves and for the organization. In a subsequent study, readiness for change has been described as an organizational-level construct and delineated as employees' shared level of commitment to change and their shared belief to successfully implement the proposed changes (Weiner, 2009).

Moreover, readiness for change has also been defined in educational setting and referred as the characteristics related with adopting the change interventions and perceiving as an opportunity for development (Campbell, 2006). Although in the

previous definition regarded readiness for change as an individual-level construct, in another definition, it is referred as an organizational-level construct in educational setting (Chatterji, 2002). In this definition, readiness for change indicates the extent to which desired directions of the measurable school outcomes by the reformers are parallel with the indicators of the standard based reform acquired from the variety of research.

In addition to all these definitions, one of the most comprehensive definitions of readiness for change was made by Armenakis et al. (1993) valid for all sectors, which is also the base of this study. According to the authors, readiness for change is the cognitive state that affects employee behaviors toward the change process as either resisting or supporting it. The authors broaden the definition by suggesting that readiness for change is related to the degree of employees' beliefs, attitudes, and intentions with regard to necessity of change and the organization's resource adequacy to successfully implement those changes.

2.2.2. Dimensions of Readiness for Change

Social psychological research proposed that attitudes are multidimensional constructs, which comprises of three dimensions (Katz, 1960; Piderit, 2000). Later, these three dimensions were named as cognitive, emotional and intention components and described respectively as; (a) cognitive dimension is an individual's beliefs about the attitude object"; (b) emotional dimension is "an individual's feelings in response to the attitude object"; (c) intentional dimension is "an individual's evaluations of an attitude object that are based in past behaviors and future intentions to act" (Piderit, 2000, p.786).

In accordance with the previous attitude studies, this three-dimensional framework of Piderit has been applied to change context and readiness for change has been investigated as a three-dimensional construct as cognitive readiness for change, emotional readiness for change and intentional readiness for change

(Bouckenooghe et al., 2009). As Oreg (2006) described, affective component of the change attitudes involves individual feelings with regard to the change like being anxious or angry. In the same study, cognitive dimension referred as individuals' thoughts about the change, which also seeks an answer to the questions like "is it necessary?" or "will it be beneficial?" (Oreg, 2006, p. 76). Intentional dimension of readiness for change was referred as the energy and effort that organizational members are eager to put in the change process (Bouckenooghe et al., 2009) and focused on the intentions of the employees to act as answer to the change initiatives (Oreg, 2006).

Although this three dimensional framework is useful in handling different aspects of change related attitudes of the individuals, they are also dependent on each other in a way that one's feelings regarding a change is generally associated with the thoughts and behavioral intentions of that person about this change (Oreg, 2006).

In addition, adopting multidimensional framework in scrutinizing readiness for change contributes to the studies in a variety of ways. According to Bouckenooghe et al. (2009), adopting multidimensional view helps researchers to deal with the complexity of the construct effectively. Moreover, multidimensional approach ensures that changing employee attitudes in each dimension can be handled easily and can be manifested clearly (Piderit, 2000). As a result, in this study, three-dimensional framework of readiness for change is adopted and readiness for change is investigated under the dimensions of intentional, emotional, and cognitive readiness.

2.2.3. Creating Readiness for Change

Since employee readiness is considered as a necessary prerequisite for the success of change efforts (Armenakis et al., 1993), many studies have been conducted concerning the proper phase to create readiness in the change process.

In a study conducted with the aim of providing theoretical bases for a specific readiness for change model, Bernerth (2004) asserted that readiness for change could be associated with the first two steps of organizational change process model proposed by Lewin (1947) as unfreezing and moving. In a subsequent study, readiness for change was associated with the initial steps of organizational change process in the three-step change process model of Armenakis et al. (1999) as readiness, adoption, and institutionalization. Although in the previous studies readiness for change was suggested to be created during the initial steps of the change efforts, Armenakis and his colleagues (1993) emphasized the importance of creating readiness during the initial steps of organizational change efforts but sustaining it throughout the change process since readiness was argued to reinforce supporting employee behaviors for the change interventions.

As well as the appropriate phase, the other major concern of the conducted studies is the way to create readiness. Based on the arguments of Armenakis and his colleagues (1993), it can be stated that creating readiness for change entails several actions and steps. The authors proposed that a major mechanism to create readiness is communicating a change message with the employees. Therefore, the content of the message and the way to transmit it also come into question in order for the message to be effective in creating readiness since change message is argued to contribute in creating employee readiness and also suggested to play a motivating role for the adoption and institutionalization of the proposed changes (Armenakis & Harris, 2002).

In the light of the previous argument, to be effective, five critical dimension of the change message have been presented by Armenakis et al. (1999) as self-efficacy, principal support, discrepancy, appropriateness, and personal valence (Table 2.2).

Table 2.2

Five Components of the Change Message

Message	Definition	Question It Looks to Answer
Self-efficacy	Confidence in individual and group's ability to make the change succeed	Can we do this? Will this work?
Principal support	Key organizational leader support this particular change	Is management walking the talk? Do organizational leaders believe in this change?
Discrepancy	A gap between the current state and an ideal state	Why change?
Appropriateness	The correct reaction to fix the gap identified by discrepancy	Why this change?
Personal valence	Clarifies the intrinsic and extrinsic benefits of the change	What's in it for me?

Source: Bernerth, J. (2004). Expanding our understanding of the change message. *Human Resource Development Review, 3*(1), 36-52.

The first dimension of the change message is self-efficacy (Armenakis et al., 1999). Indeed, Bandura (1982) related self-efficacy with one's persistence and eagerness to invest effort to reach a desired outcome. Within the change context, self-efficacy is suggested to involve employees' confidence to implement the proposed changes (Armenakis et al., 1993; Armenakis & Harris, 2002; Bernerth, 2004; Self, 2007). To create the sense of self-efficacy, change leader is expected to put emphasis on the skills, capabilities, and knowledge of the employees to perform the requirements of the proposed changes successfully (Self, 2007). Hence, when the organizational members believe in their capacity to implement changes and to overcome obstacles persistently, the change effort is likely to end up with desired outcomes.

The second dimension of the change message is principal support (Armenakis et al., 1999). Because change initiatives creates uncertainty in the organization, employees determine their own behaviors by taking their co-workers' and leaders' behaviors as reference points (Self, 2007). Therefore, if the co-workers and

leaders exhibit supporting behaviors for the initiated changes, employees are likely to respond in a similar manner and enact with supporting behaviors; on the other hand, if the co-workers and leaders resist the change, resistance of other employees will probably emerge (Bernerth, 2004). Therefore, supportive principal behavior is regarded as another critical factor in creating readiness for the successful change efforts.

The third dimension of the effective change message is discrepancy, which justifies the reason of the change to the employees (Armenakis et al., 1993; Bernerth, 2004). As Katz and Kahn (1978) stated, employees' beliefs in the need for change can be created through demonstrating the discrepancy between the current conditions of the organization and the conditions when the desired outcomes of the change efforts are reached. Hence, Bernerth (2004) concluded that unless employees notice any problems in the organizational functioning and believe in the need for change, they are likely to exhibit unsupportive behaviors.

The fourth dimension of the change message is appropriateness, which clarifies employees that the proposed change is correct to fix the discrepancy (Armenakis et al., 1999; Bernerth, 2004). Employees' beliefs in the appropriateness of the change message is critical to create readiness since if they do not believe in the proposed change is the right one to solve the problems, they are likely to exhibit unsupportive behaviors (Armenakis & Harris, 2002; Bernerth, 2004). Hence, it is the leaders' responsibility to convince employees' that the proposed change is the right change by showing that desired end state and improved functioning result in increase in revenues (Self, 2007).

The last dimension of change message is personal valence, which elucidates for the employees the benefits and detriments involved in the change effort for their wellbeing (Armenakis et al., 1999; Bernerth, 2004). Indeed, even the other four dimensions are accepted by the employees, if they do not believe that they get benefit from the proposed changes, employees are likely not to participate in

implementation of the change efforts and exhibit resisting behaviors (Bernerth, 2004). Therefore, to reach the successful outcomes of the change efforts and employees to buy-in the change process, they should believe in the positive outcomes of the change efforts.

In brief, transmitting a change message with the aforementioned dimensions is argued to be essential in creating readiness for change by increasing employee willingness to embrace the change and reducing resistance or completely eliminating it (Armenakis et al., 1999). Therefore, by creating readiness, employees' commitment to change is likely to increase which, in turn, brings about the last step of organizational change process; namely, institutionalization (Bernerth, 2004).

In addition to the essential dimensions of the change message, in some studies, three practical message conveying strategies were presented as; (a) active participation (e.g., vicarious learning, enactive mastery and participation in decision-making); (b) persuasive communication (e.g., oral or written persuasive communication providing clear information concerning discrepancy and efficacy); (c) management of internal and external information (e.g., .external sources that reinforce change message as consulting firms, the news media, books, films, etc.) (Armenakis et al., 1993; Armenakis & Harris, 2002). In the study conducted by Armenakis et al. (1999), the other message conveying strategies like human resource management practices (e.g., compensation, performance appraisals, etc.), symbolic activities like ceremonies, and formal activities revealing support for the initiated changes were also presented.

In an attempt to provide a critical evolution on the works of the previous studies presenting message-conveying strategies (Armenakis et al., 1993; Armenakis & Harris, 2002), Todnem (2007) argued that the proposed change readiness framework is applicable to the modern business settings; however, implicit communication needs to be considered as a forth way to transmit the change

message since it underlines the importance of continuous change readiness throughout the change process.

2.2.4. Process, Content, Context and Individual Factors and Readiness for Change

Readiness for change is elucidated as a complex construct that is likely to be affected by the organizational factors as content that is specific for the change, internal context that change is taking place, process of the change and individual attributes of the employees implementing change (Holt, Armenakis, Harris and Hubert, 2007; Holt, Armenakis, Hubert & Harris, 2007). Organizational and individual factors that are dealt within the following section are displayed in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3

Organizational and Individual Factors Influencing Readiness for Change

Organizational Factors	Individual Factors
Content Factors	Growth orientation
Nature of change	Self-efficacy
(Evolutionary & Revolutionary)	Adaptability to changing environment
Context Factors	Change self-efficacy
Organizational culture and climate	Organizational commitment
History of change	Stress level
Trust in top management	Influencing skills
Trust in peers	Perceived personal competence
Process Factors	
Quality of change communication	
Participation in decision-making	

Holt et al. (2007a) proposed a model incorporating the process, content, context, and individual factors that affect readiness and the outcomes of readiness as displayed in Figure 2.2. In this model, readiness for change was suggested to be reflected in the employees' reactions and intentions, which bring about behaviors

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as an outcome. Therefore, the authors supported the argument of Armenakis et al. (1993) with emphasizing that readiness for change determines the supporting or resisting employee behaviors for the change efforts.

Content Factors. The first factor that may affect readiness is the content that is specific for the proposed changes and involves the appropriateness dimension of the change message (Armenakis et al., 1999). According to Holt et al. (2007a), this factor seeks an answer to the question of what is being changed. Some common organizational changes have been exemplified by the authors as changes in the organizations' structure and strategies, improvement in the human resource practices and change in the physical infrastructure of the organization. When change interventions start in the organization, employees are argued to assess the nature of the proposed change and how they are likely to be affected by this change (Self, 2007). Based on their evaluations, they are suggested to exhibit enacting behaviors or resisting behaviors. As the scale and scope of the revolutionary and evolutionary changes are considered, employees are likely to respond with low readiness and high resistance to the revolutionary changes since these changes makes fundamental alternations in the organization (Burke, 2008). On the other hand, when the scope and pace of the evolutionary changes are considered, employees may respond with low resistance and likely to exhibit more enacting behaviors since these changes majorly entails improvement practices in the organization (Burke, 2008).

Context Factors. The second factor that is likely to affect employee readiness is the internal context of the organization in which change is taking place. This factor seeks an answer to the question of where the change is taking place with regard to the discrepancy and peer support aspects of the change message (Bouckenooghe, 2009; Holt et al., 2007a, b). Therefore, organizational culture and climate, history of change efforts, and trust in top management are all considered as an internal context variables that are likely affect employee readiness.

Organizational culture and climate emerged as one of the highly investigated organizational context factors in creating readiness for change. In the readiness literature, the studies conducted on organizational culture and climate brought about the results supporting the model proposed by Holt et al. (2007a). More specifically, Schneider and his colleagues (1996) conducted a study in which they investigated the major reasons of the continuing cycle of initiating change efforts and ending up with the failure. The authors concluded that organizational culture and climate have a considerable impact on the success of organizational change efforts; thus, organizations should develop a new culture and climate for the change efforts to be successful and sustainable. However, the authors did not prescribe a certain type of organizational culture that bring about successful change outcomes since each organizations' nature of the workforce, their market and their industries are different from one another.

On the other hand, other studies conducted on culture and climate, and organizational change in general suggested several ideas on the relationships between culture, climate, and readiness for change. In the study conducted with the aim to provide a triangular model to investigate organizational change, Alas (2007b) proposed that type of change, process of change and readiness for change have been interdependent within the context of change. In this model, the relationship between readiness for change and organizational culture was also presented with another triangulation in a way that readiness for change depends on organizational learning, employee attitudes and, organizational culture.

In accordance with the previous findings, Saylı and Tüfekçi (2008) argued that creating an innovative culture and changeable organizational structure is directly related with the successful outcomes of the change initiatives. Subsequent study conducted with aim to investigate the effect of organizational culture on the positive and negative employee attitudes have reaffirmed the previous findings by concluding that organizational culture is likely associated with the success of organizational change efforts (Rashid, Sambasivan & Rahman, 2004). According

to the authors, particular culture patterns promote positive employee attitudes toward change while some culture patterns make adverse effect on the employee attitudes. As the previous studies indicated, organizational culture and climate have a significant impact on the positive employee attitudes, and thereby, on the successful change initiatives. Based on the arguments above, cultures fostering participation, open and wide communication as the core values and supporting self-efficacy and other positive self-regulation constructs are likely to nurture readiness for change as well.

In addition to the organizational culture and climate, organizations' change history is also suggested to affect employee readiness for change (Schneider et al., 1996). Bouckenooghe and Devos (2008) have examined the effect of organizations' psychological climate factors on readiness for change and concluded that history of change is a significant predictor of employee readiness with the process factors of participation in decision-making and quality of change communication. Bernerth (2004) also supported these finding in his study and argued that employee readiness can be activated by the successful change history of the organization but inhibited by the unsuccessful track record of change.

Figure 2.2 An Integrated Model of Readiness for Change

Change-specific Content
Ask, "What is being changed?"
Consider assessing the *appropriateness* of the change.

Internal Context
Ask, "Where is the change occurring?"
Consider assessing the *discrepancy* and *peer support*.

Process
Ask, "How is change being implemented?"
Consider assessing *leadership support* for the change.

Individual Attributes
Ask, "Who has to implement the change?"
Consider assessing *efficacy and valence.*

Readiness for Change

Intentions & Reactions

. . .

Time

Outcomes

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Source: Holt, D., Armenakis, A. A., Harris, S. G., & Hubert, S. F. (2007). Toward a comprehensive definition of readiness for change: A review of research and instrumentation. In W. A. Passmore & R. W. Woodman (Eds.), *Research in organizational change and development* (Vol. 16, pp.289-336). Oxford, UK: Elsevier Ltd.

Moreover, trust in top management is regarded as another critical organizational context factor that affects positive employee attitudes toward change, thereby, readiness for change (Bouckenooghe & Devos, 2007; Eby et al., 2000). Trust is a construct that is defined as one's tendency to be vulnerable to others with the credence that they are competent, reliable, open, and concerned (Mishra, 1996). In the light of this definition, building trust based relationship between employees and leaders can be concluded to be critical for employees to believe in the need for change and the valence of the change for themselves. Similarly, in the message-conveying model to create readiness, Armenakis et al. (1993) also stressed the importance of principal support by suggesting that trustworthiness as one of the most essential characteristics of the change agent to create readiness. This assertation is supported by the study of Moos and Kofod (2007) conducted in a school setting by concluding that employee trust in principal facilitated organizational change efforts. In their study conducted with the aim to determine the characteristics and the roles of the change agent during the change process in the school setting, Özmen and Sönmez (2007) supported the importance of building trust based relationships between the employees and the principal since trustworthiness reduces the anxiety caused by the uncertainty of the change atmosphere. As Saylı and Tüfekçi (2008) argued, trust based relationship between employees and the leader is effective in reducing the future-related stress caused by the change interventions, thus, reduces the resistance. Therefore, trust in top management is considered as a critical factor in creating readiness for change.

In the light of the previous findings, it is possible to conclude that internal context factors research on readiness for change provide rich source of information for the general or business organizational settings by putting emphasis on the factors of supportive culture and climate, successful change history and high levels of trust. Although these factors are expected to contribute in readiness for change in the school setting, there is not much study conducted particularly for the educational organizations. Therefore, the aim of this study is to investigate readiness for change in the school setting in order to fill this gap in the literature.

Process Factors: As the successful outcomes of the change efforts majorly depend on the process factors, readiness for change is also argued to be affected by those process variables like effective communication and participation in the decision-making during the change interventions (Bouckenooghe et al., 2009; Bouckenooghe & Devos, 2008; Holt et al., 2007a).

Quality of change communication is described with regard to the answer of the question of how change is communicated (Miller, Johnson & Grau, 1994). In that definition, clarity, frequency, and openness are considered as the critical factors that determine the effectiveness of the communication. Therefore, effective communication helps employees to comprehend the reasons that bring about change, the need for and relevancy of the change and understand the details of the proposed change (Weick, 1995). In that sense, quality of change communication is associated with the positive employee attitudes (Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005) and argued as the primary mechanism of creating employee readiness during the change efforts (Armenakis et al., 1993; Bernerth, 2004).

Furthermore, participation in decision-making is delineated as the extent of employee involvement in the decision-making process, and the degree of employee enlightenment on the target of the change with regard to the proposed change efforts (Lines, 2004). Therefore, participation in decision-making is proposed to be an important factor that promotes positive employee attitudes (Svensen, Neset & Eriksen, 2007; Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005). More specifically, it is one of the most essential change message-conveying strategies, which creates readiness for change in the model proposed by Armenakis et al. (1993). To reaffirm the previous findings, Bouckenooghe and Devos (2008) also investigated the effect of organizational climate factors on readiness for change and concluded that there is a positive correlation between participation in decision-making and readiness for change.

As suggested in the previous studies, process research on readiness for change highlight the importance of effective and open communication during the change interventions to create and sustain readiness for change. In addition, participation in the decision-making has been supported to be another process variable that affects readiness for change positively. Although these two construct provide broad information about fostering readiness, the effect of the other administrative process variables can be investigated on creating and reinforcing readiness for change such as; motivation or leadership in educational organizations.

Individual Factors: In addition to process, content, context factors, readiness for change is asserted to be affected by the individual factors (Holt et al., 2007a). According to the authors, these factors focus on the employees on the target of the change and clarify the efficacy and valance aspects of the change message (Figure 2.2). In that sense, Holt et al. (2007b) stressed the importance of investigating individual attributes (e.g., self-efficacy and personal valence) to understand readiness for change by stating that each individual have different attributes so that some of the employees are more prone to embrace and implement change efforts than others.

As a support to this assertion, in the study conducted by Lehman, Greener and Simpson (2002) with the aim of explaining the rationale and the structure of organizational readiness for change, the authors presented growth-orientation, self-efficacy, influencing skills of the employees and adaptability to changing environment as the necessary employee attributes that positively affect organizational change efforts.

In a subsequent study, Cunningham et al. (2002) examined the individual and organizational factors that affect readiness for change in a healthcare organization. The authors measured readiness for change and concluded that employees who have higher job-change self-efficacy and who have an active approach in problem solving reported higher readiness for change. In the same study, having active

jobs, active problem solving approach and change self-efficacy were presented as the predictors of employee readiness for change independently.

Another study conducted with the aim to create readiness for change in order to facilitate IT-driven organizational change, both individual characteristics independent of the organization that change is introduced and target system characteristics adopted by the employees were examined (Kwahk & Kim, 2008). In the study, the authors proposed that perceived personal competence and organizational commitment are the two individual factors and performance expectancy and effort expectancy are two target system factors that are likely to affect readiness for change. The result of the study supported the previous findings on individual level and concluded that perceived personal competence and organizational commitment affect readiness for change significantly.

Moreover, with the assumption that employee perception of readiness for change is associated with the successful change outcomes, Eby et al. (2000) investigated three variables that are likely to affect employee perceptions of readiness for change; namely, individual attitudes and preferences (self-efficacy for change, perceived organizational support, preference for working in teams), work groups and job attitudes (trust in peers, skill variety and perceived participation) and contextual variables (flexibility in policies and procedures, logistics and system support and trust in division leadership). However, unlike the aforementioned studies, the researchers did not come up with the conclusion that self-efficacy for change is significantly related with perception of readiness for change. The findings of the study, on the contrary, demonstrated that preference for working in teams, trust in peers and flexibility in policies and procedures of the organization are associated with employee perception of readiness for change.

Finally, Vakola and Nikolaou (2005) also conducted a study on the individual factors that are likely to affect employee attitudes toward change. More specifically, the authors examined the relationship between employee attitudes

and occupational stress with the moderator variable of organizational commitment. The results of the study indicated an expected relationship between employee attitudes and occupational stress by concluding that high occupational stress results in employees to be more reluctant to embrace organizational change efforts by decreasing commitment to change. In the study, it is also emphasized that one of the most common stressor of employees is the bad work relationship. Therefore, the results of the study suggested that positive employee attitude; particularly, readiness for change can be associated with organizational commitment, low level of stress and well work relationships.

The results of the studies conducted on the relationship between readiness for change and individual variables imply that some certain individual characteristics are likely to foster readiness for change. However, the results also suggest that although some of these characteristics merely depend on the individuals themselves, some of them are reinforced by the organizational culture and climate. More specifically, active approach in problem solving, change related self-efficacy, low levels of stress and organizational commitment are individual characteristics that are likely to be reinforced with the supportive organizational culture in which organizational members trust each other and communicate in an open and effective way. Hence, creating such an atmosphere probably result in higher readiness for change and employees are likely to exhibit more enacting behaviors than resisting behaviors which, in turn, brings about more successful change efforts.

In the light of the previous arguments, it can be concluded that readiness for change is a deeply investigated construct, especially in the business setting. However, it is not the situation in Turkey. Although organizational change has been a main concern of many studies conducted in Turkey currently (Alkaya & Hepaktan, 2003; Gizir, 2008; Saylı & Tüfekçi, 2008; Yalçın, Seçkin & Demirel, 2009), readiness for change is not a topic investigated much. Moreover, despite the fact that many studies focused on organizational change in the school settings

(Argon & Özçelik, 2008; Aydoğan, 2007; Özmen & Sönmez, 2007; Taş, 2007; Töremen, 2002), it is not a topic studied broadly in both educational and business organizations. Hence, the major purpose of this study is to provide rich knowledge about readiness for change in educational setting, and to investigate the relationship between readiness for change and one of the most important internal context variables; namely, organizational trust.

2.3. Organizational Trust

Today, the complexity of life has resulted in increased interdependences between self and external world including the workplace and the people inhabited in the workplace. Human being counts on the other people that they meet their expectations. However, if one's expectations are violated, distrust emerges which brings about the deterioration of the communication and interaction in the society. Hence, trust is an essential and indivisible component of the requirements of interdependent society. Being such an important construct, trust has been attempted to be described in different social science fields like economics, sociology, political science, psychology, and history (Worchel, 1979). Accordingly, the bases of trust were explained through different perspectives of all these fields. Indeed, personality theorists associated trust readiness with individual personality differences; economists and sociologists concentrated on trust as an institutional phenomenon while psychologists treated trust with the focus on interpersonal transactions (as cited in Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Lewicki & Wiethof, 2000). Although trust is investigated from different perspectives and it has a variety of definitions, multiple dimensions with ample of research investigating these dimensions, all these researches concluded with the importance of trust in social interactions (Petersen, 2008). Therefore, despite the fact that we know too much about trust, we are still dependent on further investigations on trust to improve our social interactions.

2.3.1. Definition of Trust

Trust is a construct gaining the attention of many researchers for decades with the aim of explaining how relationships are formed and evolved over time. Accordingly, variety of definitions has been proposed to describe trust with the focus on different facets. One of the most widely recognized definitions of trust was suggested by Deutsch (1958):

> Trust is an expectation by an individual in the occurrence of an event such that expectation leads to behavior which the individual perceived would have greater negative consequences if the expectation was not confirmed than positive consequences if it was confirmed. (p. 266)

Rotter (1967) also defined trust as one's or group's expectancy regarding the reliability and dependability of the other's or other groups' promises. Butler and Cantrell (1984) proposed a broader definition of trust that emphasizes the multidimensionality of trust such as honesty, integrity, competence, consistency, reliability, predictability, loyalty, and openness. In a similar manner, Mishra (1996) defined trust as one's tendency to be vulnerable to other people with the credence that they are competent, reliable, open, and concerned. One of the most widely utilized definitions of trust, which is also used in this study, was suggested by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999). They defined trust as "a person's or group's willingness to make themselves vulnerable to another person or group, relying on the confidence that the other party exhibits the following characteristics or facets: benevolence, reliability, competence, honesty, and openness" (p. 189).

2.3.2. Types of Trust

Personal and professional relationships are considered to have different natures of trust. That is, personal relationships are considered more emotional and the focus is on people in the relationship but professional relationships are based on task orientation and peoples' focus is on accomplishing their goals (Lewicki & Wiethoff, 2000). With an attempt to explain the formation of professional

relationship, Shapiro, Sheppard, and Cheraskin (1992) suggested that three types of trust are essential in developing professional relationships which are calculus-based trust, knowledge-based trust and identification-based trust. According to Lewicki and Bunker (1996), these trust types are linked to one another sequentially and development of trust in one level leads to the development of trust in the next level. The researchers also added that this three-level trust model helps us to comprehend the way how trust is created and evolved over time. At this point, the authors emphasized that although trust changes and evolves throughout the time, it is not necessarily that all relationships turn to the second and third level trust. Therefore, some relationships can remain as the first or second level of trust.

Trust-based relationships start from"calculus-based" trust, which is also identified as deterrent-based trust. This type of trust is based on calculation of self-interest and determination of the deterrent if trust is broken (Nooteboom & Six, 2003; Lewicki & Wiethoff, 2000). Therefore, the possibility of deterrent is a more considerable motivator in developing trust than the probability of reward. This type of trust is considered as calculus-based since it is based on not only the intensity of the punishment if trust is destroyed, but also the reward if the trust is not destroyed (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). The second level of trust is 'knowledge-based' trust in which trust develops over time with the information gained through interaction between both parties. Hence, other's behaviors gain predictability to a certain extent as the former knows the latter adequately (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). The last type of trust is 'identification-based' trust, which involves mutual understanding of both parties' needs, intentions, desires, and preferences and considering other's feelings, wants, and priorities as their own (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). This type of trust is beyond the knowledge-based trust and entails both parties' learning each other better. Increased identification leads them to think, feel, and respond alike. Hence, they can easily act for each other (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). According to Lewicki and Wiethoff (2000), work relationship trust is generally considered as a kind of calculus-based trust although some

identification-based trust can be developed. On the other hand, the researchers added that intimate relationships are generally associated with identification-based trust although some calculus-based trust may emerge for parties to live together in a harmony.

2.3.3. Facets of Trust

Despite the fact that the importance of trust in organizational setting and human behavior has been emphasized broadly in the literature, there is not a clear agreement with regard to the definition of this construct (Hosmer, 1995). Although trust has been defined in a variety of ways, it is a complex construct to define since it is a multifaceted concept with different bases and degrees and it depends on the context of the relationships (Tschannen, Moran & Hoy, 2000). However, variety of definitions gives out some common themes regardless of the context of the trust relation. Firstly, the existence of vulnerability is indicated as a precondition of trusting relationships in the literature since vulnerability implies that there is a risk of loss in a way that trustor is aware of the possibility that the trustee can harm or betray the valued things of the trustor (Kee & Knox, 1970; Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). Therefore, trust is not just a risk taking but also a willingness to be vulnerable in addition to take risk (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt & Camerer, 1998). Under the precursor of vulnerability, five common and crucial facets of trust are emerged as benevolence, reliability, competency, honesty, and openness, which are all required to develop trust, based relationships (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999).

Benevolence is one of the most significant aspects of trust-based relationships, which can be explained as the confidence that the trustee will protect but not harm the trusting persons' well-being (Hoy & Kupersmith, 1985; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999).

Reliability, another important aspect of trust, is a sense that strengthens the feeling

of benevolence with the confidence that trustee is predictable (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1999). Accordingly, reliability is described as the consistency of others' behaviors and a sense to know how they will behave. Indeed, presence of reliability in relationships results in the confidence that one's needs will be met (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). However, benevolence and reliability are not two sufficient conditions to develop trust.

Competency is also another crucial facet of trusting relationships. In occasions when one person depends on the other and the latter is not skillful enough to meet the expectations of the former, then trust is not developed (Mishra, 1996). Hence, competency emerges as an indispensable feature of trusting relationships.

Honesty also has a considerable impact on developing trust. It refers to one's character, integrity and authenticity (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). Indeed, the authors associated integrity of one with the correspondence of his actions and statements. Likewise, authenticity was associated with one's taking his own responsibility and not changing the truth to put the blame on someone else. Hence, honesty is counted as a foremost facet to create trust (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996).

Finally, based on the belief that trust is a reciprocal feeling, openness possesses a significant role in developing trust. Openness is described as the belief that personal information or the individuals themselves are not betrayed by the trusted person and vice versa (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000).

2.3.4. Bases of Trust

Although all facets of trust are essential in building trusting relationships, their particular importance arises with regard to the nature of the interdependence and the one who is trusted (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). According to the authors, people are different in their vulnerability to a trustee and this difference

can be explained by a person's disposition to trust, moods and emotions, values and attitudes, calculative motives, institutional supports for trust and knowledge of the other person.

In a similar manner, Kramer (1999) explained bases of trust as trustor's disposition to trust or distrust, interactional histories of the parties and building trust with regard to the cumulative interaction between trustor and trustee. Moreover, the author asserted that third parties in the organization and building trust based on one's particular role in the organization and trustee's membership were also some other factors that affect the nature of the trusting relationship.

Mayer et al. (1995) also described the factors that will affect trust in a trust formation model. They suggested that one's characteristics of propensity of trust would affect the probability of whether a person will trust or not. In addition, characteristics of the trustee that are considered trustworthy will affect trust building. These characteristics are counted as ability, benevolence, and integrity. As stated before, trust requires interdependence and risk taking with being vulnerable to the trusted person. In this model, the level of trust is compared with the perceived level of risk. If one's level of trust exceeds the perceived level of risk, risk-taking relationship will emerge. On the contrary, if perceived level of risk exceeds the level of trust, the trustor will not attend to risk taking relationship. In this argument, it is suggested that even if the factors that affect trust remain stable, the context in which the trust relationship is built will affect the outcome. It is also asserted that the involved stakes, the balance of power in the relationship, the perception of the level of risk and the alternatives available to the trustor will affect the trust outcome.

2.3.5. Distrust

Trust "is not taking risk per se, but rather it is a willingness to take risk" (Mayer et al., 1995, p.712). Hence, trust involves vulnerability of the trustor to the other

party although there is a risk to be betrayed and exploited. According to Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000), if one's vulnerability is exploited by the trusted person for its' own well, trust is destroyed and distrust is emerged.

2.3.5.1. Betrayal

Betrayal is the breach of trust, which involves the violation of trust (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). According to the authors, it is mostly intentional and includes the negative assessment of the trustee that betrayal of the expectations ends up with more gain than lost, such as; damage in the betrayed person as the change in the behavioral pattern and even despair. Similarly, betrayal also argued to end up with the worsening of employee performance in the organization and even leaving the employer (Robinson, 1996). Correspondingly, when organizational members experience betrayal, they restrict their interactions within the organization, which, in turn, leads to the reduction in the individual and organizational capital (Hargreaves, 2002).

2.3.5.2. Revenge

Revenge is a response to betrayal that is affected by the betrayed person's judgment about whether the perpetrator is responsible for the offense or it is outside the control of him. When the perpetrator is found guilty then the motivation for revenge is emerged (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). The victim's responses to the violator vary greatly such as withdrawing interaction with the betrayer, doing nothing but enjoying with revenge fantasies, self-sustained cycle of feuding or even forgiving (Bies & Tripp, 1996). Surprisingly, the authors asserted that revenge could bring out some positive outcomes for the organization such as promoting cooperation and motivating reform.

2.3.6. Trust Repair

Once trust is broken, it is a hard and demanding process to repair which requires

each party in the relationship to be dedicated to invest time and energy and be aware of the behaviors necessary for restoring relationship (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). According to Osgood (1959), the way to overcome distrust requires one party's mediatory initiative, which is conducted reliably. In this process, the other party is expected to behave reciprocally to this conciliatory initiative. Sometimes, rebuilding of trust requires many communication attempts of one party. Indeed, the proposed trust-rebuilding model by Osgood is considered useful for the schools in which reciprocal distrust is high (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). Correspondingly, Lewicki and Wiethoff (2000) proposed a five step model for rebuilding of trust which involve determining the behaviors that result in distrust, both parties' apologizing for the violation of trust, negotiating the reciprocal expectations for future activities, founding evaluation procedures to ensure that both parties' promises are met and developing alternative ways for the issues creating distrust in order to decrease the vulnerability.

2.3.7. Trust in Educational Organizations

As the definition of Baier (1985) emphasized, trust involves entrusting our valued things with relying on the competence and willingness of the trustee to keep them under scrutiny and not to harm them. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998) stated that this valued thing can be a tangible thing like money or our children or it can be an intangible thing like our norms. In that respect, the importance of the existence of trust in the school settings is emerged since schools look after our children for us and our norms for the society.

The literature includes numerous researches demonstrating the positive effects of trust on organizational processes and school level outcomes. Indeed, Cunningham and Gresso (1993) considered trust as the base of school effectiveness. In that manner, building trust-based relationships in school is indicated to contribute in effective schools (Hoy & Sabo, 1998), to enhance school processes like communication and to empower open school climate (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). In addition to all these findings, existence of trust in school organization is

also associated with positive outcomes for the most essential stakeholders of the school. For instance, presence of trust positively affects teachers' collective and self-efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Goddard, 2000), increases students' academic achievement (Goddard, Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001), and plays a vital role for effective leadership (Bass, 1990).

School trust literature gives out three important elements of trusting relationships, which are also the indicators of school climate and organizational health as trust in school organization, trust in principal, and trust in colleagues (Hoy et al., 2002). Additionally, the authors asserted that faculty trust in clients (students and parents) has become a topic that has aroused the interest of the researchers currently. Therefore, these four elements are asserted as the indispensable constituents of healthy and effective school organizations (Goddard et. al., 2001; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000).

2.3.7.1. Trust in School Organizations

Trust is considered as an essential element for creating and sustaining effective communication within the organizations (Hoy et al., 2002). Schools like other organizations depend on effective communication for successful functioning and trust is a prerequisite for open and effective communication. Through open communication, people can reveal their feelings and ideas and provide more precise and pertinent data about the problems (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). Indeed, trust literature demonstrated that trust and communication affect each other reciprocally. More specifically, Loomis (1959) stated that effective communication in the organization enhances trust which, in turn, leads to the increase in the cooperative behavior. Hence, principals as being on the top of the hierarchy in the school setting should enhance trusting atmosphere in school because emergence of distrust brings about the obstruct of effective communication (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000).

Subsequently, faculty trust is also considered as a critical element of open and healthy school climate (Hoy et al., 2002). Hoy and Sabo (1998) revealed in their study that core of open and healthy school climate involves four general characteristics as environmental press, collegial leadership, teacher professionalism and academic press. According to the authors, environmental press is associated with the relationship between school and community while collegial leadership is associated with openness of the principal's leader behavior. In addition, teacher professionalism is related with teacher-teacher interaction while academic press is associated with school and student relationship (Hoy et al., 2002). By considering these aspects, it was found out that collegial principalship is important in building faculty trust in principals. Hence, school principals are responsible for developing faculty trust in principal or create distrust. However, it is concluded that collegial principalship has limited effect on developing faculty trust in colleagues. It was also asserted that trust in colleagues is developed through the effect of professional teacher behaviors (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998; Hoy et al., 2002) and faculty trust in clients is developed with only achievement press (Hoy et al., 2002).

The other organizational correlate with which trust is found out to be related is organizational citizenship. According to Jex and Britt (2008), organizational citizenship behaviors are the ones that are not described in the employee's formal job description but involving the behaviors performed without the expectation to be rewarded. Wang et al. (2005) have found out that leadership is one of the most essential predictors of organizational citizenship behaviors. Hence, it is proposed that trust in principal is associated with the greater inclination to perform organizational citizenship behaviors.

2.3.7.2. Trust in Principal

Leaders are considered to be crucial for effective organizations at all levels and leader's effectiveness in organization essentially is suggested to depend on the

extent to which s/he is trusted by the subordinates and co-workers (Burke, Sims, Lazzara & Salas, 2007). Accordingly, school principals as being at the top of the school hierarchy is suggested to play a key role in developing trust in the school organizations. Indeed, the principal should be authentic to create trust since authenticity is associated with the openness in the relationships (Hoy et al., 2002; Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998). Indeed, the level of faculty trust in principal mainly depends on the leadership style and acts of principal in the school. Supportive and collegial principal leadership, which involves open, understanding, and friendly approach to teachers, results in teachers to trust in their principal (Tarter, Sabo & Hoy, 1995; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998). Trust in principal is also associated with variety of different positive school outcomes and processes. According to Moos and Kofod (2007), school change is facilitated in the presence of trust-based relationship between school leaders and staff. Moreover, faculty trust in principal and in colleagues is associated with effective schools (Tarter et al., 1995) and positive school organizational climate (Hoy et al., 1996). All these findings imply that developing faculty trust in principal is in the hand of the principal and once trust is created, the outcomes positively affect proper functioning of the school organizations.

2.3.7.3. Trust in Colleagues

Colleagues need to trust each other in many ways to provide better outcomes for the sake of the organization, thus, the literature revealed that faculty trust in colleagues is an essential element of school organizational trust and brings about positive outcomes for schools either. To illustrate, Geist and Hoy (2004) stated that faculty trust in colleagues affects the relationship between principals, teachers and students and results in the formation of trust-based relationships in the school. When such a respectful work atmosphere evades within teachers, more productive and adaptive schools can be formed by increased level of collaboration (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). In brief, to reinforce trusting atmosphere within

teachers, conducted studies gave out some correlates of faculty trust in colleagues as professionalism, collaboration, and collective efficacy.

Professional community in school reinforces an atmosphere of cooperation among teachers rather than competition which is likely to result in development of trust in the school (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). As professionalism implies, teachers respect their colleagues' capabilities and skills and work cooperatively with them in an eager manner to teach (Tschannen-Moran, 2009). A study investigating the relationship between teacher professionalism and faculty trust revealed that faculty trust is strongly related with teacher professionalism and the professional orientation of the school administrators (Tschannen-Moran, 2009). More specifically, the author concluded that faculty trust in colleagues plays a key role in creating teacher professionalism in school. As well as creating cooperative relationship between teachers, teacher professionalism was also indicated to result in positive outcomes for students in such a way that students' academic achievement increases with the increase in teacher professionalism (Tschannen-Moran et al., 2006).

A subsequent study investigating the relationship between trust and collaboration in schools gives out important implications for school stakeholders. Since teachers desire to be actively involved in the decision making process to feel loyalty and to increase their job satisfaction (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000), collaboration has recently been gaining importance with regard to the effective management of school organizations (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). The study conducted by Tschannen-Moran (2001) supported the idea that collaboration is not difficult to be developed in the presence of trust. The results of the same study also indicated that the level of collaboration for principal, teachers, and students are related with the level of trust they have to each other. It was also concluded that faculty trust in clients has the most influence on collaboration in schools which implies that shared decision making with parents and faculty will be high in the schools in which teachers trust in parents and students.

2.3.7.4. Trust in Clients

One of the major objectives of all schools is to increase students' academic achievement by providing quality education and creating high achievement standards. In order to accomplish these intended objectives, it is necessary to create trusting relationship between teachers and students. As a support to this assertion, Goddard et al. (2001) found a strong relationship between students' willingness to learn new things and student-teacher trust. That is, students are more eager to learn when they trust in their teachers. Moreover, as well as teacher-student trust, the author indicated that presence of teacher-parent trust is also a critical factor in schools to reach the common goals of education.

Indeed, a study investigating the faculty trust in students and parents suggested that faculty trust is a critical predictor of student achievement (Goddard et al., 2001). In other words, students' academic achievement is higher in the schools that teachers indicated greater trust. Hence, faculty trust in parents and students brings about a school environment that fosters learning probably with creating and fostering family-school connection. Consistently, a study exploring the relationship between faculty trust and academic achievement and assessing if the link between academic achievement, socioeconomic status (SES) and racial composition are mediated by trust gave out similar conclusions (Goddard et al., 2009). In this study, trust and achievement are concluded to be positively related and trust is indicated as one of the main predictors of academic achievement even if the aforementioned predictors are not accounted.

Subsequent study also reaffirmed the previous findings by bringing another perspective to the link between academic achievement and trust. The study conducted by Lee (2007) explores the relationship between student-teacher trust and school success by involving the variables of school adjustment, academic motivation, and performance. The results of the study demonstrated that trust is an important predictor of school success. Moreover, in the same study, indirect effect

of trust has been shown on academic performance through school adjustment and motivation. Hence, the results of the study not only implies that student- teacher trust in schools improves student performance, but also give out the result that organizational factors foster academic achievement of students.

Correspondingly, Hoy (2008) proposed that the triadic relationship between academic emphasis of the school, faculty trust in parents and student achievement give rise to the academic optimism culture in the schools. From the findings of the study, it was concluded that school cultures of efficacy, cultures of trust, and cultures of academic optimism increase students' academic achievement.

2.3.8. Distrust in Schools

Like other organizations, school organizations also suffer from distrust that may be caused by mandates of the government, resource problems, reform initiatives and media effects (Petersen, 2008). Moreover, proliferation of so many rules and rigid application were also regarded as the other reasons that result in distrust (Fox, 1974). Like all other organizations, schools also experience negative outcomes when distrust atmosphere evades in schools. Distrust in schools results in teachers and students to feel decreased commitment and loyalty, which, in turn, leads to increase in dishonesty and cheating (Kramer & Cook, 2004). Additionally, and may be more importantly, distrust diminishes communication in the organization. When low-trust atmosphere pervades in school, suspicion among teachers, students and principals emerge, thus, communication among them is deteriorated (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). One of the most striking findings related with distrust in schools is that when the level of distrust increases at critical levels in the school, parents are more reluctant to entrust their children to the schools (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000).

Besides all these, distrust is also considered as an obstacle for the school reform initiatives due to the fact that change initiatives create ambiguity in the

organization and can be perceived as a threat to the habits and existent practices (Zimmerman, 2006). Hence, reform efforts require teachers, principals, and clients to trust each other in order to reach the intended outcomes. Mishra (1996) also supported the necessity of organizational trust during the change processes since schools needs to be competitive to survive in flux and organizational trust and open communication foster the competitive advantage of the organizations.

In brief, although developing trust in school brings about valuable contributions to school success, violating trust, and emerging distrust cost schools a lot. Therefore, faculty trust in different reference groups plays critical role in effective functioning of the school processes and needs to be preserved to reach school organizations' one of the main purposes of high academic achievement.

2.4. Summary of the Literature Review

In this chapter, the literature regarding organizational change, readiness for change and organizational trust were reviewed in detail. In the light of the aforementioned studies, it can be concluded that organizational change is one of the major challenges that all organizations face with recently. Change is also emphasized to be inevitable for the educational organizations since the primary objective of all schools is to raise individuals with the requirements of the modern world.

As the relevant literature indicated, majority of the change efforts do not reach the desired outcomes both at the business organizations and at the educational organizations. The major reason for the failure of change efforts was associated with the negative employee attitudes, particularly, with resistance. In this respect, the focal point of many studies in the change literature is the way to overcome resistance and to reinforce positive employee attitudes instead. Readiness for change emerges as one of the primary mechanisms that contribute in reducing negative employee attitudes and enhancing enacting and supporting behaviors for

the change interventions. Therefore, readiness for change is associated with the successful outcomes of the change efforts. As being such a critical construct for the desired outcomes of the change initiatives, readiness for change is suggested to be influenced by the content of the proposed change, internal context of the organization, and process of the change.

Within this framework, readiness for change can be inferred to be affected by the organizational trust, which is one of the most significant internal context variables that affect the outcomes of the change efforts. Trust literature signifies that presence of trust in the organizations contribute significantly in organizational variables like communication, organizational citizenship behaviors, and open and healthy climate in the organization. Moreover, aforementioned studies indicated that school organizational trust result in higher academic achievement of the students, higher collective, and self-efficacy of the teachers and higher leadership effectiveness of the principals. All these findings imply that presence of trusting atmosphere in the organizations enhances organizational change efforts markedly.

The relevant literature also revealed that organizational change brings about uncertainty and ambiguity which results in employees to respond with suspicion. When the employees feel to be threatened by the proposed changes, they are likely to exhibit resisting behaviors. In such cases, readiness for change is suggested to be low. It is discussed in the literature that organizational members are likely to be in the need to trust their co-workers and super-ordinates to reduce uncertainty, and to believe in the need for change and positive outcomes for themselves. At this point, organizational trust plays an enhancing role in the change process by empowering positive employee attitudes. Moreover, some studies underlined the essence of trusting relationships during the change interventions since trust is claimed to reduce fear of unknown and ambiguity caused by the proposed changes, thereby, fosters positive employee attitudes towards change.

Some other studies in the literature focused on the critical role of trusting atmosphere during the change interventions by putting emphasis on the organizational processes. Trust is suggested to empower collaboration during the change efforts, which brings about enacting employee behaviors for change efforts. Moreover, trust is proposed to foster effective communication, which is one of the highly studied process factors of organizational change. Effective communication in the change process is argued as a mean that justifies the need for change and it is also critical in handling employee frustration during the change initiatives. Hence, effective communication is inferred to empower readiness for change in an indirect ways within the change process.

To sum up, although organizational change process and readiness for change are argued to be affected by variety of different context factors, trust emerges as one of the most critical factor that fosters the change interventions. When the gaps in the literature are also taken into account, the major purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between teachers' readiness for change and perceived organizational trust in the educational organizations.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

In this chapter, overall design of the study, the description of the population, sampling procedure and some demographic characteristics of the sample are presented. Next, the instruments utilized for collecting the data are described in details. Subsequently, data collection procedure and statistical methods followed in the data analysis are presented. At the end of the chapter, limitations of the study are described and the ways to handle these limitations are stated.

3.1. Design of the Study

This study was designed as a correlational study, one of the quantitative research methods. It is believed that quantitative research tradition is an appropriate choice since the aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between the variables that can not be manipulated. As Borrego, Douglas and Amelink (2009) stated, quantitative research is an appropriate method for deductive logic and it is instrumental in testing a pre-established hypothesis. Besides, in the same study, the purpose of conducting quantitative research was also presented as generalizing findings to a larger population and making inferences from these findings which are also parallel with the research question this study sought to answer.

Due to being a correlational research, this study sought to present a relationship between readiness for change variables and perceived faculty trust variables. Correlational design is an appropriate design for this study since it describes relationships between two quantitative variables or sometimes more variables than two without any attempt to manipulate them and which can not be designed experimentally, like for the case of the variables used in this study (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006).

3.2. Research Question

This study was conducted to address the following research question:

- Is there any relationship between teachers' intentional, emotional, and cognitive readiness for change and perceived faculty trust in colleagues, in principal and, in clients (students and parents)?

3.3. Description of the Variables

The operational definitions of the variables employed in the study are as follows:

Readiness for Change: It was the dependent variable of this study which was also a continuous variable. In this study, it was measured by three dimensions through Readiness for Change Scale. The scale includes 12 items with a 5-point-likert type ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The level of measurement for this variable was interval.

Intentional Readiness for Change: It was one of the continuous dependent variable indicating participants' degree of willingness to invest effort in change efforts. This dimension was measured by 5 items in the scale; hence, the score of a participant can get from this dimension ranges from 5 to 25 and the higher score of a participant in this dimension is associated with higher intentional readiness.

Emotional Readiness for Change: It was another continuous dependent variable of the study showing the feelings of the participants with regard to the proposed change. It was measured through Emotional Readiness for Change dimension of the scale with 3 items; thus, the minimum score a participant can get is 3 while the maximum score is 15. As the items within this dimension were reverse structured, lower scores indicates higher emotional readiness.

Cognitive Readiness for Change: It was the final dependent variable of the study and a continuous variable. It represents the thoughts of teachers with regard to the

outcomes of the change initiatives. In Readiness for Change scale, this dimension was measured by 4 items. Therefore, the score of a participant can be within the range of 4 to 20. Like other dimensions, the higher score of the participants indicates higher cognitive readiness.

Faculty Trust: It was the independent variable of the study indicating teachers' perceived level of organizational trust in their schools. Also, it was a continuous variable and measured with the teachers' perception of organizational trust in three different reference groups by Omnibus T-Scale. The scale includes 20 items with 5-point-likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The level of measurement for this variable was interval. The scale brings about an overall organizational trust score for the schools as well as organizational trust score for each dimension. The higher the score one gets from the dimensions of the scale indicates higher faculty trust in those reference groups and higher organizational trust.

Faculty Trust in Colleagues: It was a continuous independent variable measuring teacher's perception of himself and other teachers' trust in their colleagues at the same school. It was measured by 7 items in the scale which means that a participant can get a highest score of 35 and the lowest score of 7 in this dimension.

Faculty Trust in Principal: It was another continuous independent variable which measures teacher's perception of himself and other teachers' trust in their principal. This dimension was measured by 5 items in the Omnibus T-Scale, thus, the score of one participant can range from 5 to 25 in this dimension.

Faculty Trust in Clients: It was another continuous independent variable which measures teacher's perception of himself and other teachers' trust in students and parents. This dimension was measured by 8 items in the scale; hence, the score of a participant can be within the range of 8 to 40.

3.4. Population and Sample Selection

According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2006), in correlational design, sampling should be conducted carefully to get the exact degree of relationship between variables. The researchers suggested that random sampling should be used as a selection method if it is possible. According to the Ministry of National Education data, there are more than 500 public primary schools in Ankara, while there are approximately 200 public secondary schools with different types (MONE, 2010). However, it was not feasible to make random sampling with such a big population; therefore, cluster sampling was employed as a selection method in this study.

Cluster sampling is an appropriate method for this study since it is an effective and proper method with large number of clusters. In addition, cluster sampling is suggested to be useful when random sampling is difficult to be employed (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). The aforementioned aspects of cluster sampling fit in the characteristics of this study; therefore, it was used as the sampling method of the study.

Due to utilizing cluster sampling as the method for sample selection, firstly, four of the school districts were chosen in Ankara city (viz., Çankaya, Yenimahalle, Altındağ, and Keçiören). Afterwards, among all of the public primary and secondary schools in those districts, 53 schools were randomly selected through cluster sampling method. The teachers working in these schools constituted the accessible population of the study.

When the selected schools were grouped according to their student sizes, the results indicated that majority of the data were gathered from the schools having the student number within the range of 1001 to 2000, which constituted 45.9% of the sample. The mean student number of the participant schools was 1558.9 with the minimum number of 145 and maximum number of 3000. The teacher size of

the participant schools also varied within the sample. Indeed, 48.8% of the data were gathered from the schools with the teacher sizes were within the range of 51 to 100. The rest of the data were gathered from the schools mainly accumulated to the teacher number groups of 1-50 (21.7%) and 101-150 (21.6%), as can be seen from the Table 3.1.

Of the data, 47.4% were gathered from public primary schools and 52.6% were gathered from public secondary schools in the four selected school districts. Five different types of secondary schools were involved in secondary school sample in order to increase the representativeness of the sample and generalizabilility of the findings to different schools. More specifically, 32.9% of the data were collected from regular high schools, 21.9% of the data were collected from Anatolian high schools, and the rest were gathered from technical-vocational high schools. Indeed, industrial-vocational high schools constituted 29.2% of the secondary school sample while 10.3% was formed by technical-vocational high schools and 5.6% was constituted by hotel and tourism vocational high schools, as displayed in Table 3.1.

Target population of this study was all the teachers working at the primary and secondary level public schools in the four selected school districts in the city of Ankara. However, the teachers working at the selected schools constituted the accessible population of this study. Within the selected schools, totally 4860 teachers were working. Nevertheless, the researcher could reach only 650 of them. As 47 surveys were incompletely or inaccurately filled, they were eliminated from the analysis. Hence, in the accessible teacher population of the selected schools, 13.37% filled the surveys but 12.41% of the population constituted the sample of this study.

Table 3.1

Characteristics of the Selected Schools with respect to Number of Data Gathered

Variables	Frequency	Percent (%)	M	SD	Min	Max
Student Size						
1-1000	184	30.5				
1001-2000	277	45.9	1558.9	751.2	145	3000
2000>	142	23.5				
Teacher Size						
1-50	131	21.7				
51-100	294	48.8	87.9	39.8	32	200
101-150	130	21.6				
151>	48	8.0				
School Level						
Primary	286	47.4				
Secondary	317	52.6				
Secondary School Type						
Regular HS	105	32.9				
Anatolian HS	70	21.9				
Industrial –Vocational HS	93	29.2				
Technical-Vocational HS	33	10.3				
Hotel and Tourism Vocational HS	18	5.6				

3.5. Data Collection Instruments

Two data collection instruments utilized in this study were Readiness for Change Scale developed by Kondakci , Zayim and Çalışkan (in press) and Omnibus T-Scale developed by Tshannen-Moran and Hoy (2003) (see Appendix C and D) in order to investigate the relationship between teachers' readiness for change variables and perceived faculty trust variables. In order to gather data about the demographic characteristics of the participants, demographic information form was also included with the two questionnaires asking teachers' gender, age,

marital status, year of experience, school level, school size in terms of student number, whether teachers have in-service training and so on (see Appendix B).

3.5.1. Readiness for Change Scale

Piderit's (2000) three-dimensional framework to investigate general attitudes (intentional, emotional, and cognitive dimensions) was used as the theoretical framework of the newly developed Readiness for Change scale. In accordance with the study of Piderit (2000), Bouckenooghe et al. (2009) also investigated readiness for change in a three-dimensional framework as intentional readiness, cognitive readiness, and emotional readiness in a broader study investigating attitudes toward change.

Considering these two previous studies, readiness for change scale was developed by Kondakci, Zayim, and Caliskan (in press) with the aim of gauging the readiness for change of organizational members at school. Readiness for change dimension of Organizational Change Questionnaire-Climate of Change, Process and Readiness (OCQ-C, P, R) scale developed by Bouckenooghe et al. (2009) was used as the base of the Turkish version of the scale utilized in this study. Although both scales depend on the same theory, number of items has been increased in the Turkish version. Considering the literature and other scales on readiness for change, the initial version of the scale was an 18-item scale.

The pilot study for the Turkish version of the scale was performed with the data gathered from 100 teachers working at different school districts in Ankara. Following the pilot study, in order to ensure the construct validity, exploratory factor analysis was performed with the data gathered from 700 teachers working at 31 different schools in Ankara. The results of the factor analysis demonstrated that the scale comprises of 12 items which were loaded on three factors as in the original scale. These factors were Intentional Readiness for Change, Emotional Readiness for Change and Cognitive Readiness for Change.

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In the scale, organizational members were asked to respond to 12 items on intentional readiness (e.g., "I want to do my best for the success of change process", "I try to implement the proposed changes"), emotional readiness (e.g., "Change discourages me to work", "Change generally discomforts me") and cognitive readiness dimensions (e.g., "I find change refreshing", "The change will help me to do my work better") through 5-point likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The evaluation of each dimension involves summing up the scores given to related items and dividing the total to the item number. Therefore, the greater the score for each dimension indicates higher readiness for change in that dimension. Item numbers and reliabilities of three dimensions of Readiness for Change Scale are presented in a comparative manner in Table 3.2. Allthough the lower limit of Cronbach's alpha is suggested to be .70; it is proposed that it may decrease to .60 for exploratory research (Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson, 2010). Hence, intentional and cognitive readiness dimension as exceeding the proposed alpha are satisfactory but emotional readiness dimension has slightly lower reliability than the proposed values. In order to ensure the three-factor structure of the scale, confirmatory factor analysis was also conducted. The results of the CFA also indicated a good fitting model. The detailed results of the CFA are presented in the results section of this study.

Table 3.2

Dimensions and Reliabilities of Turkish Readiness for Change Scale

Dimensions	N	α
Intentional Readiness for Change	5	.87
Emotional Readiness for Change	3	.67
Cognitive Readiness for Change	4	.87

3.5.2. Omnibus T-Scale

Omnibus T-scale was developed by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003) to measure teachers' perceptions of organization trust at school. The scale gauges three dimensions of faculty trust as Trust in Principals, Trust in Colleagues, and Trust

in Clients (students and parents). The 26-item scale includes items measuring five facets of trust in each dimension, which are benevolence, reliability, competency, honesty, and openness. The teachers are asked to identify their schools through the 6-point scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The item numbers and reliability values of each dimension of original Omnibus T-scale can be seen in Table 3.3.

Turkish adaptation of the scale was performed by Özer, Demirtaş, Üstüner, and Cömert (2006). After the items were translated into Turkish, back translation method was employed to ensure correct meanings of all items. The pilot study was conducted with 156 teachers working at five different high schools in the city of Malatya. According to the authors, to ensure the construct validity of the instrument, exploratory factor analysis was also conducted. As in the original one, Turkish adaptation of the scale ensured that the items were loaded on the same three factors, that is, Trust in Principal (e.g., "Teachers in this school can rely on the principal", "Teachers in this school have faith in the integrity of the principal"), Trust in Colleagues (e.g., "Teachers in this school are open with each other", "Teachers in this school typically look out for each other") and Trust in Clients (e.g., "Students in this school can be counted on to do their work", "Teachers think that most of the parents do a good job"). By taking .40 as a cut-point for the item load, 20-item scale was obtained. However, unlike the original scale, Turkish version of the scale gauges faculty trust through 5-point likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The evaluation of each dimension involves computing the scores given to the related items composing subscale and dividing the total to the item number in that dimension.

The comparative item numbers for each dimension and the reliability values of original and Turkish adaptation of the scale can be seen in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3

Dimensions and Reliabilities of Original and Turkish Adaptation of Omnibus T-Scale

	Original Scale		Turkish Adaptation of the Scale	
Dimensions	*Items*	*α*	*Items*	*α*
Trust in Principal	8	.98	5	.86
Trust in Colleagues	8	.93	7	.82
Trust in Clients	10	.94	8	.70

In order to ensure the three-factor structure of the scale for this study, confirmatory factor analysis was also conducted. The results of the CFA also indicated a good fitting model with three factors as trust in principal, trust in colleagues and trust in clients. The detailed results of the CFA are presented in the results section of this study. With regard to the results of CFA, item numbers and reliabilities of each dimension of the scale were calculated and displayed in Table 3.4. As the lower limit for Cronbach's alpha as being .70 was taken into consideration (Hair et al., 2010), the relaibilites of each dimension could be concluded as satisfactory.

Table 3.4

Dimensions and Reliabilities of Omnibus T-Scale

Dimensions	*N*	*α*
Faculty Trust in Principal	5	.94
Faculty Trust in Colleagues	7	.92
Faculty Trust in Clients	8	.83

3.6. Data Collection Procedure

In this study, the data were collected via surveys administered to the teachers working at primary and secondary level public schools in Ankara. The first step in data collection was obtaining necessary permissions of both the Middle East Technical University (METU) Human Subjects Ethics Committee (see Appendix E) and then Provincial Directorate of Education (see Appendix F).

The instruments were administered by the researcher. Before the survey administration, the teachers were informed about the purpose of the study and they were asked to submit a written consent to participate in the study (see Appendix A). The participants were also ensured about the confidentiality and they were not asked any questions revealing their identity. During the administration of the scales, participants had the chance to quit the study whenever they want in order to ensure the essence of willingness. The data of the study were collected in April-May, 2010.

3.7. Data Analysis

Both descriptive statistics and inferential statistics were used to analyze the data in this study. Descriptive and inferential statistical analyses were performed by the software PASW Statistics 18 while the confirmatory factor analysis for Readiness for Change scales was performed by the software AMOS 4.

For the demographic characteristics of teachers; gender, age, marital status, year of experience, school level, school size in terms of student number, whether teachers have in-service training, whether they have participated in any institutional change projects were obtained and descriptive statistics were conducted in order to calculate the frequency, mean, standard deviation, and range calculations.

In order to investigate the relationship between readiness for change variables and faculty trust variables, the data were gathered via Readiness for Change Scale and Omnibus T-Scale relatively. Hence, inferential statistics were also utilized in this study. Beforehand, assumptions were validated and then canonical correlation analysis was conducted to analyze the relationship between teachers' intentional, emotional, and cognitive readiness for change and faculty trust in principal, colleagues, and clients. Canonical correlation is an appropriate statistical analysis for this study since it involves two sets of variables (readiness for change

variables and faculty trust variables), and the study aims to find out the relationship between these two sets (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Moreover, in order to test the three-factor structure of newly developed Readiness for Change Scale and Omnibus T-Scale, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was also conducted. While analyzing the results, alpha level was set as .05 in the study.

3.8. Limitations of the Study

There are some limitations of the study related to design and characteristics of participants. The most probable threat for this study is subject characteristics bias caused by the self-report technique utilized in this study. During the survey implementation, teachers were asked to choose the score that best reflects their feeling with regard to the items. However, in such situations, people may have a tendency to select the score that seems most appealing to others despite the fact that they may not think in that way in reality. Besides, due to the higher hierarchical position of school principal in the school organizational structure, teachers can be reluctant to score some items truly in the trust scale that ask them to rate their principals' trustworthiness. Hence, the results of the study can be biased due to the sample itself and self-report technique of the study.

Moreover, as the sample of this study comprised of 603 teachers selected from 53 public primary and secondary level public schools, more than one teacher participated in the study in each school. Hence, the assumption of independent observations may not be met for the study. However, during the data collection, the researcher was careful in order to obstruct teachers' influences on each other during the survey implementation.

In addition, the instruments were applied in different school settings in variety of different school districts and under different physical conditions. This may, in turn, leads to the location threat to the internal validity since the locations the scales implemented may affect the responses of the teachers. Although it is not

possible to hold the place constant for each survey administration at all schools, the surveys were administered in the silent places in order not to distract teachers.

Subsequently, personality of teachers, the success of previous change experiences of teachers can be the confounding variables for the study since they may affect teachers' scoring to the given items in both scales. Undesired effects of these confounding variables were tired to be handled by getting more information about the teachers with the data gathered via demographic scale.

Finally, since participants of the study were selected through cluster sampling, the external validity of the study decreased. However, the large sample size limits the negative impact of sampling procedure on the generalizability of the results.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis concerning the scales, participants and the canonical correlation analysis. The chapter is organized under four main parts. In the first part, demographic characteristics of the participants are depicted broadly. Next, descriptive statistics with regard to Readiness for Change Scale and Omnibus T-Scale are presented. In the third part, confirmatory factor analysis results for Readiness for Change Scale is described in details and in the final part, canonical correlation analysis results with the required assumptions are presented broadly.

4.1. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

In order to investigate the relationship between faculty trust and readiness for change, data were collected from 603 teachers working at primary and secondary level public schools in Ankara. As presented in Table 4.1, the majority of the participants were female which constituted 66% of the sample while 34% of them were male. Of the sample, age varies greatly also. Most of the participants' ages accumulated within the range of 30-39, 40-49, and 50-59 age groups. However, only 4.6% of the participants' ages were between 20-29 and just 5 participants were 60 or older than 60. The mean age of the participant teachers is 42.04 with the standard deviation of 7.84. The results also indicated that 86.6% of the teachers were married while only 13.4% of them were single.

When the participants were asked about their teaching experiences, the results revealed that majority of the participants' teaching experiences accumulated within the experience groups of 10 to 19 years (N=278) and 20 to 29 years

(*N*=169). The average experience of the participants is 18.31 years and changing within the range of minimum1 year to maximum 41 years.

Of the participants, 93.3% of them reported that they have had an in-service training; however, the rest reported that they have not had an in-service training at all. Surprisingly, the results also revealed that 20.1% of the participant teachers have participated at least one change project in their teaching career; though, 79.9% of the teachers reported that they have never participated in any change project.

Of the sample, 22.4% have reported to have administrative experience for a while in their career; nevertheless, 77.6% of the participants reported that they have never had an administrative experience. As can be seen in Table 4.1, of the teachers reported to have administrative experience, 56.9% of them have had assistant principalship experience while 25% of them have had school principalship experience. Moreover, 18% of the teachers indicated that they have had other administrative positions as department chief in technical-vocational high schools.

Table 4.1

Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Variables	Category	*Frequency*	*Percent (%)*	*Mean*	*SD*	*Min*	*Max*
Gender							
	Male	205	34.0				
	Female	398	66.0				
Age							
	20-29	28	4.6				
	30-39	204	33.8				
	40-49	239	39.6	42.04	7.84	22	65
	50-59	127	21.1				
	60 $\geq$	5	.8				
Marital Status							
	Single	81	13.4				
	Married	522	86.6				
Experience							
	1-9	81	13.4				
	10-19	278	46.1				
	20-29	169	28.0	18.31	8.15	1	41
	30-39	73	12.1				
	40$\geq$	2	.3				
In-service Training							
	Yes	566	93.3				
	No	36	6.0				
Participating Change Project							
	Yes	120	20.1				
	No	478	79.9				
Administrative Experience							
	Yes	135	22.4				
	No	468	77.6				
Types of Administrative Positions							
	Principal	33	25.0				
	Assist. Principal	75	56.9				
	Other	24	18.2				

4.2. Descriptive Statistics Results of Readiness for Change and Omnibus T-Scales

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between teachers' intentional, emotional, and cognitive readiness for change and perceived faculty trust in colleagues, in principal and in clients (students and parents). In order to achieve this goal, Readiness for Change Scale and Omnibus T-scale were utilized and the data were gathered from 603 teachers working at primary and secondary level public schools in the city of Ankara. In both scales, participants were asked to respond the items on a five level likert-type scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The number 3 in both scales represents the answer of neither agree nor disagree to the proposed items. When the overall mean scores were evaluated for each dimension, the higher mean values were associated with higher readiness in the Readiness for Change scale and higher trust in Omnibus T-scale respectively.

In Table 4.2, the results of the descriptive statistics of each sub-scale with mean, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values are presented. The results of the descriptive statistics indicated that the mean scores of teachers' cognitive readiness for change ($\overline{X}_{cognitive}$=4.11, $SD_{cognitive}$=.92) and emotional readiness for change ($\overline{X}_{emotional}$=4.17, $SD_{emotional}$=.94) are close to each other with also approximate standard deviation values. However, the mean score of teachers' intentional readiness for change ($\overline{X}_{intentional}$=3.94, $SD_{intentional}$=.87) is lower than the other two dimensions. Furthermore, three dimensions of faculty trust showed a similar pattern in such a way that the teachers' mean scores for the dimensions of faculty trust in colleagues ($\overline{X}_{colleagues}$=3.56, $SD_{colleagues}$=.88), and faculty trust in principal ($\overline{X}_{principle}$=3.70, $SD_{principle}$=1.08) are approximate to each other but the standard deviations are highly different from one another. On the other hand, teachers' mean scores on the third dimension of trust in clients ($\overline{X}_{clients}$=3.03, $SD_{clients}$=.71) is lower than the rest of the mean scores.

Table 4.2

Descriptive Statistics for Readiness for Change Scale and Omnibus T-Scale

Variables	Dimensions	M	SD	Min	Max
Readiness for Change					
	Cognitive Readiness for Change	4.11	.92	1	5
	Emotional Readiness for Change	4.17	.94	1	5
	Intentional Readiness for Change	3.94	.87	1	5
Perceived Faculty Trust					
	Faculty Trust in Colleagues	3.56	.88	1	5
	Faculty Trust in Principal	3.70	1.08	1	5
	Faculty Trust in Clients	3.03	.71	1	5

4.2.1. Results of Readiness for Change Sub-Scales

As previously stated, readiness for change involves three dimensions as cognitive readiness for change, emotional readiness for change and intentional readiness for change. The scale gauges teachers' readiness in each dimension with 4 items for cognitive readiness, 3 items for emotional readiness and 5 items for intentional readiness respectively.

The results of the descriptive statistics for the cognitive readiness for change items are presented in Table 4.3. The results indicated that majority of the participants rated the items in the cognitive readiness sub-scale as agree or strongly agree. Moreover, the mean scores of the participants for the first item ($\overline{X}$=4.14, SD=1.12), second item ($\overline{X}$=3.98, SD=1.11), and last item ($\overline{X}$=4.06, SD=1.09) are close to the value of agree. Likewise, the mean score for the third item ($\overline{X}$=4.24, SD=1.05) is between the values of agree and strongly agree which indicates majority of the participants support for this item.

The result of the descriptive statistics for the second dimension of the readiness for change scale revealed similar results with the first dimension. Each item in this dimension is structured as reverse items; hence, the results needed to be evaluated

in the reverse manner also. As presented in Table 4.3, the majority of the participants disagrees or strongly disagrees with the three items proposed with the percentages of 77.1 for the first item, 75.7 for the second item and 78.3 for the third item. The mean scores of all items also indicated that the participants' ratings are close to disagree in the emotional dimension of the Readiness for Change Scale which can be associated with participants' positive responses in emotional readiness for change.

The results of the descriptive statistics for the intentional readiness for change items revealed that majority of the participants rated the items as agree or strongly agree with the percentages of 55.7 for the first item, 70.9 for the second item, 78.1 for the third item, 78.6 for the forth item and 69.8 for the last item. As can be seen in Table 4.3, except for the first item, the mean values of the participants for the rest of the items are very close to agree. On the other hand, the mean value of the item asking for the participants' dedication in the change process as being lower than the rest of scores in this dimensions close to neither agree nor disagree with the mean value of 3.58 and standard deviation value of 1.08 which suggest teachers' indecisiveness in devoting themselves to the change process.

Table 4.3

Descriptive Statistics for the Readiness for Change Dimensions

Items	*M*	*SD*	Agree* (%)	Disagree** (%)
Cognitive Readiness for Change				
I find change refreshing	4.14	1.12	76.5	8.6
The change will help me to do my work better	3.98	1.11	71.6	10.0
I desire to see change efforts in my school	4.24	1.05	81.3	7.7
Proposed changes are generally designed to improve my organizations	4.06	1.09	73.9	9.3
Emotional Readiness for Change				
In general, I don't like change	1.82	1.13	10.8	77.1
Change discourages me to work	1.86	1.20	13.5	75.7
Change generally discomforts me	1.81	1.12	10.5	78.3
Intentional Readiness for Change				
I want to devote myself to the change process	3.58	1.08	55.7	13.5
Change encourages me to make more efforts in my work	3.95	1.04	70.9	8.3
I want to do my best for the success of change process	4.09	1.03	78.1	7.8
I try to implement the proposed changes	4.11	0.96	78.6	7.1
Change contributes to elimination of deficiencies in my school	3.94	1.06	69.8	8.5

*: percentage of teachers who responded as "Agree" and "Strongly Agree"
**: percentage of teachers who responded as "Strongly Disagree" and "Disagree"

4.2.2. Results of Faculty Trust Sub-Scales

Perceived faculty trust involves three sub-scales which gauge teachers' perceived organizational trust in three different reference groups. That is, trust in colleagues dimension measures faculty trust in their colleagues with 7 items in the Omnibus T-scale. Faculty trust in principal dimension measures teachers' perceived trust in school principal with 5 items, while faculty trust in clients dimension gauges teachers' perceived trust in students and parents with 8 items.

For the first dimension of Omnibus T-scale, descriptive statistics results revealed that most of the participants rated the items asking for teachers' perceived trust in their colleagues as agree or strongly agree (46.2% for the first item, 42% for the second item, 48.3% for the third item, 71.6% for the forth item, 69% for the fifth item, 63.1% for the sixth item and 62% for the last item), as presented in Table 4.4. The mean scores for the first three items as being very close to the value of 3 suggested that teachers are indecisive with these items. For the rest of the items, on the other hand, the mean scores are between neither agree nor disagree and agree but close to the value of agree which imply potential teacher support for these items.

Descriptive statistics results for the second dimension of the Omnibus T-scale indicated that majority of the participants rated the items in the dimension of faculty trust in principal as agree or strongly agree with the percentages of 54.1 for the first item, 59.2 for the second item, 65.1 for the third item, 72.2 for the forth item and 57.0 for the last item in this sub-scale, as presented in Table 4.4. The mean scores of the participants for each item are between 3 and 4 and close to the value of agree which suggested teachers' support on the proposed items

For the faculty trust in client dimension, descriptive statistics results indicated that the number of teachers rated the first (31.1%), third (38.4%), forth (28.3%), seventh (33.4%) and, the last items (37.9%) as disagree or strongly disagree is greater than that of teachers rated these items as agree. As presented in Table 4.4, for the rest of the items, more teachers rated as agree or strongly agree (34.7% for the second item, 45.2% for the fifth item and 33.7% for the sixth item) than the teachers rated as disagree. The mean scores of the participants for the proposed items are very close to the value of 3 which imply their indecisiveness about the trust they have in students and parents. On the other hand, as the last item of the scale was structured as a reverse item, it needed to be evaluated in a reverse manner. For this item, overall mean score of the participants as being between the values of 2 and 3 imply teachers' disagreement with this item.

Table 4.4

Descriptive Statistics for Omnibus T-Scale Dimensions

Items	M	SD	Agree* (%)	Disagree** (%)
Faculty Trust in Colleagues				
Teachers in this school trust each other	3.30	1.20	46.2	23.8
Teachers in this school are open with each other	3.20	1.16	42.0	23.9
Teachers in this school typically look out for each other	3.36	1.05	48.3	19.0
Teachers in this school do their jobs well	3.86	0.94	71.6	8.5
When teachers in this school tells you something, you can believe it	3.81	1.03	69.0	10.8
Even in difficult situations, teachers in this school can depend on each other	3.69	1.08	63.1	14.1
Teachers in this school have faith in the integrity of their colleagues	3.68	1.10	62.0	14.1
Faculty Trust in Principal				
Teachers in this school trust the principal	3.47	1.26	54.1	21.7
Teachers in this school can rely on the principal	3.62	1.22	59.2	17.7
Teachers in this school have faith in the integrity of the principal	3.79	1.17	65.1	13.5
The principal in this school is competent in doing his or her job	3.99	1.20	72.2	14.0
The principal in this school typically acts in the best interests of teachers	3.60	1.21	57.0	17.3
Faculty Trust in Clients				
Students in this school care about each other	2.93	1.03	28.1	31.1
Students in this school can be counted on to do their work	3.06	1.05	34.7	28.9
Teachers think that most of the parents do a good job	2.79	1.06	24.6	38.4
Parents in this school are reliable in their commitments	2.98	0.98	27.9	28.3
Teachers here believe students are competent learners	3.27	1.10	45.2	22.9
Teachers can believe what parents tell them	3.15	0.94	33.7	21.1
Teachers can count on parental support	2.88	1.06	26.9	33.4
Students here are secretive	2.78	1.10	25.0	37.9

*: percentage of teachers who responded as "Agree" and "Strongly Agree"
**: percentage of teachers who responded as "Strongly Disagree" and "Disagree"

4.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Readiness for Change Scale

In the previous studies, readiness for change was suggested to be a three-factor structure as intentional readiness, emotional readiness and cognitive readiness. In order to test this three-factor structure of readiness for change and to ensure the content validity of the scale, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted.

CFA results indicated significant chi-square value (χ^2=368.51, p=.00) with the comparative fit index (CFI) value of .93, non-normed fit index (NNFI) value of .91 and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value of .10. As the criterion value of RMSEA was taken into consideration, the CFA indicated poor fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). Due to concluding as poor fit, modification indices of errors (error covariance) were checked and the ones with highest values were identified as suggested by Arbuckle (1999). The identified item pairs with the high error covariance were ε_1-ε_5, ε_1- ε_2, ε_9- ε_{12}, ε_8- ε_9, ε_1- ε_6. The detected item pairs were also checked in order to determine whether they belonged to the same factor or measured related constructs.

As displayed in Figure 4.1, the item pairs of 1-2, and 1-5 were loaded on the third factor of the scale while the item pairs of 9-12 and 8-9 were also loaded on the same first factor. However, the item pair of 1-6 was not loaded on the same factor and also did not measure the same construct. After connecting the related items to each other, CFA was conducted once again.

The results of the second analysis resulted in better RMSEA value of .07 that indicated a fair fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). Moreover, by taking the value of .95 as a critical CFI value of a good-fitting model (Hu & Bentler, 1999), the results also ensured a good fit with the CFI value of .99 and NNFI value of .99. Despite the fact that RMSEA, CFI and NNFI values indicated a good fit, the results indicated a significant chi-square (χ^2=186.18, p=.00) which could be associated with the likelihood of poor fit (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). However, the

researchers emphasized that chi-square is sensitive to sample size and generally brings about significant values with the large sample size as in this study; hence, the other fit indices of RMSEA, CFI and NNFI need to be considered.

In Figure 4.1, the final three-factor CFA model of readiness for change is presented with the standardized estimates. As indicated in Figure 4.1, the standardized estimates range from .64 to .83 and the items are all loaded on the related factors significantly.
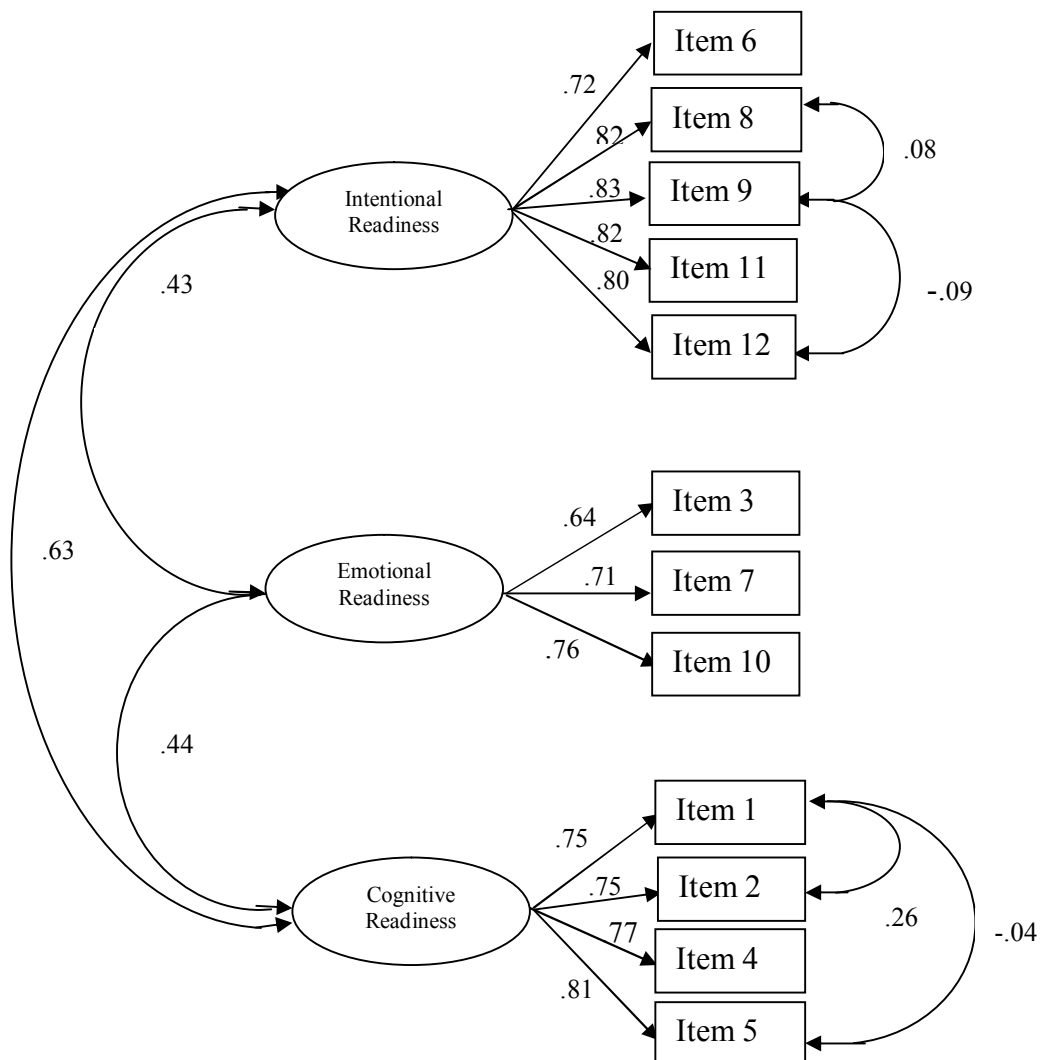

Figure 4.1 Three-Factor CFA Model of Readiness for Change Scale with Standardized Estimates

4.4. Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Omnibus T-Scale

As suggested in the literature, faculty trust was investigated under three dimensions as trust in colleagues, trust in principal, and trust in clients (students and parents). In order to test this three-factor structure of the scale in this study, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted.

CFA results indicated significant chi-square value (χ^2=772.431, p=.00) with the comparative fit index (CFI) value of .98, non-normed fit index (NNFI) value of .98 and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value of .078. As the criterion value of RMSEA was taken into consideration, the CFA indicated mediocre fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). Due to concluding as mediocre fit, modification indices of errors (error covariance) were checked and the ones with highest values were identified as suggested by Arbuckle (1999) in order to revise the model. The identified item pairs with the high error covariance were ε_1-ε_3, ε_1-ε_6, ε_6- ε_{13}, ε_9- ε_{12}, ε_4- ε_{12}, ε_{13}- $\varepsilon_{14.}$ The detected item pairs were also checked in order to determine whether they belonged to the same factor or measured related constructs. As displayed in Figure 4.2, the item pairs of 1-6, and 6-13 were loaded on the first factor of the scale while the item pairs of 4-12 and 9-12 were also loaded on the third factor. However, the item pair of 1-3 and 3-4 were not loaded on the same factors and also did not measure the same constructs. After connecting the related items to each other, CFA was conducted once again.

Although the results of the second analysis resulted in better RMSEA value of .07, the results again indicated a mediocre fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). Similarly, by taking the value of .95 as a critical CFI value of a good-fitting model (Hu & Bentler, 1999), the results also ensured a good fit with the CFI value of .99 and NNFI value of .98 with the significant chi-square (χ^2=646.907, p=.00).

In Figure 4.2, the final three-factor CFA model of perceived faculty trust is presented with the standardized estimates.
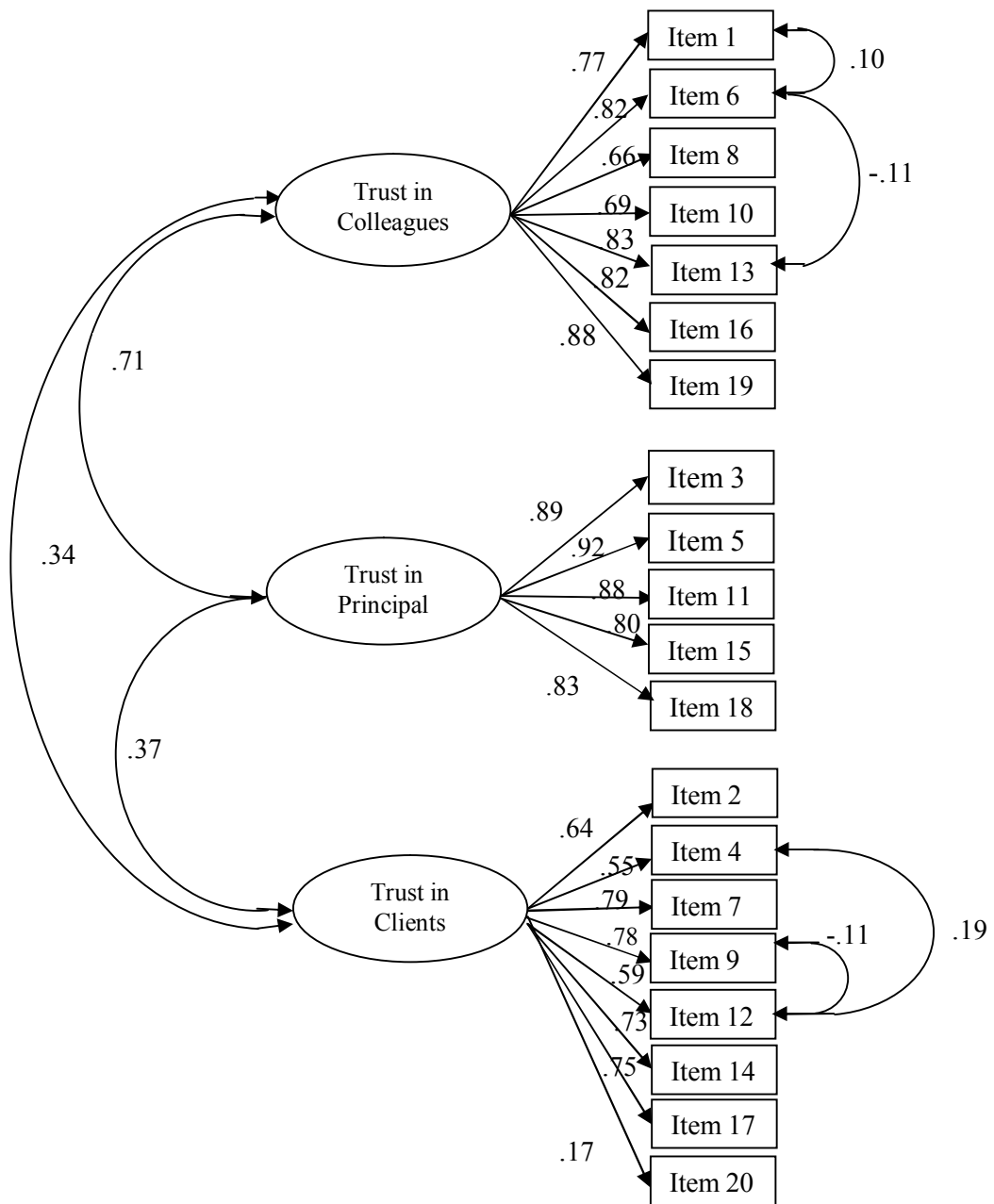
Figure 4.2 Three-Factor CFA Model of Omnibus T-Scale with Standardized
Estimates

4.5. Canonical Correlation Analysis

In order to examine the relationship between readiness for change variables and perceived faculty trust variables, canonical correlation analysis was employed in this study. In Canonical correlation analysis, sample size is a critical factor to reach reliable results. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) proposed that there needs to be at least 10 cases per each variable. In this study, the sample comprises of 603 cases and the study based on 6 variables which also ensure the validation of this requirement.

Canonical correlation analysis is alos a method which is highly sensitive for the minor changes in the data, thus missing data analysis should be handled carefully. In that sense, to reach reliable result through Canonical correlation, it is suggested that 5% or less data can be missing in a random fashion in a large data set (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). When the current data was screened for the missing values, the results indicated that there were only a few data missing in a random pattern which do not pose serious problems for the results of the study (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5

Valid and Missing Data Results in the Data Set

		Cognitive Readiness for Change	Emotional Readiness for Change	Intentional Readiness for Change	Faculty Trust in Colleagues	Faculty Trust in Principal	Faculty Trust in Clients
N	Valid	597	599	598	597	596	598
	Missing	6	4	5	6	7	5

Before carrying out the analysis, descriptive statistics regarding the canonical variables (Table 4.2) and the necessary assumptions were examined.

4.5.1. Assumptions of Canonical Correlation Analysis

In order to reach reliable results, assumptions of the canonical correlation analysis should be validated before the analysis is conducted. Required assumptions for

the analysis that are dealt within the following section are missing data, absence of outliers, multivariate normality, homoscedasticity, linearity, and multicollinearity.

Outliers

Another critical factor to consider in Canonical correlation analysis involves the absence of outliers in the data set. In this regard, the current data set was examined for the outliers via box-plot. As the results of the box-plot indicated, there are some outliers in the data set (See Figure 4.3).
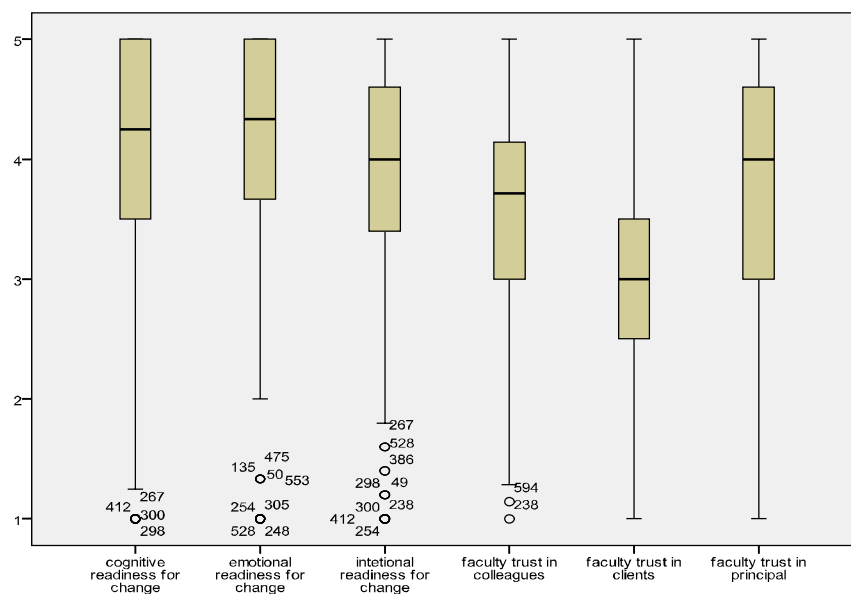

Figure 4.3 Box-Plot for Outlier Check

Multivariate Normality

For the multivariate normality assumption of canonical correlation analysis, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) proposed that all variables in the data set and their linear combinations should be normally distributed which majorly warrants the multivariate normality. Therefore, univariate normality tests were used to check the normality as histograms, Q-Q plots, skewness, and kurtosis values, Kolmogorov -Smirnov, and Shapiro-Wilk normality tests.

The visual inspection of histograms and Q-Q plots indicated that the variables are normally distributed. In addition, skewness and kurtosis values as being within the range of -1 and 1 also ensured the normality assumption although the skewness and kurtosis values of the variable "cognitive readiness for change" deviated little from 1. However, as the cut-off values of -3 to +3 was taken into consideration for the skewness and kurtosis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), it can be concluded that there is no problem with the normality in the data set.

Finally, Kolmogorov -Smirnov, and Shapiro-Wilk normality tests were also checked to validate normality assumption. Except for the variable "trust in clients" in Shapiro- Wilk test, these tests gave out significant results and did not validate the normality assumption for the current data set. However, Hair and his colleagues (2010) stated that large sample size as in this study (N=603) is useful in handling the unfavorable effects of non-normality.

Linearity and Homoscedasticity
For the validation of the homoscedasticity and linearity assumptions, scatter plots for the variables were checked. The visual inspection of the scatter plot indicated that there were not any patterns and great differences in the spread of each scatter plot which validates the homoscedasticity assumption (Figure 4.4).

Linearity assumption for the canonical correlation analysis was also examined through the scatter plots. As can be seen from Figure 4.4, there was a linear relationship between variables of the study.
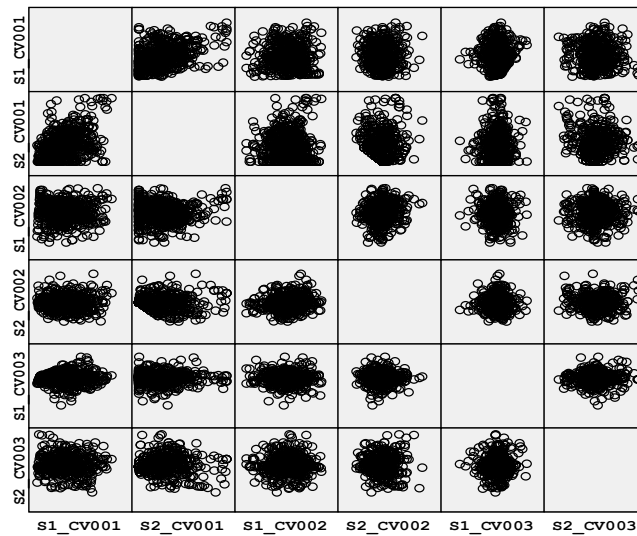
Figure 4.4 Scatter Plots for Homoscedasticity and Linearity Assumptions

Multicollinearity

In order to examine multicollinearity, correlations among canonical variables were checked by using bivariate correlations. As displayed in Table 4.6, bivariate correlation results indicated that correlation between canonical variables of teachers' readiness for change and perceived faculty trust did not exceed the critical value of .90 (Field, 2005) which ensures multicollinearity assumption for this study.

Table 4.6

Bivariate Correlations among Readiness for Change and Perceived Faculty Trust Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Cognitive Readiness for Change	1					
Emotional Readiness for Change	.57(**)	1				
Intentional Readiness for Change	.84(**)	.64(**)	1			
Faculty Trust in Colleagues	.35(**)	.26(**)	.40(**)	1		
Faculty Trust in Principal	.32(**)	.23(**)	.34(**)	.63(**)	1	
Faculty Trust in Clients	.14(**)	.08	.21(**)	.50(**)	.46(**)	1

** *p*< .01(2-tailed)

96

4.5.2. Results of Canonical Correlation Analysis

As the required assumptions of the canonical correlation analysis (missing data, outliers, multivariate normality, homoscedasticity, linearity, and multicollinearity) were validated, the canonical correlation analysis was performed.

In the analysis, perceived faculty trust variables (faculty trust in colleagues, faculty trust in principal, and faculty trust in clients) are referred as independent variable set (IV set). Readiness for change variables, on the other hand, are regarded as the dependent variable set (cognitive readiness, emotional readiness and, intentional readiness) (DV set). The results of the analysis are presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7

Correlations, Standardized Canonical Coefficients, Canonical Correlations, Percentages of Variance, and Redundancies between Teacher's Readiness for Change and Perceived Faculty Trust Variables

| | First Canonical Variate | |
	Correlations	Coefficients
Perceived Faculty Trust		
Faculty Trust in Colleagues	-.96	-.74
Faculty Trust in Principal	-.83	-.39
Faculty Trust in Clients	-.50	.05
Percentage of Variance	.61	
Redundancy	.11	
Readiness for Change		
Cognitive Readiness	-.87	-.10
Emotional Readiness	-.66	-.04
Intentional Readiness	-.99	-.89
Percentage of Variance	.73	
Redundancy	.13	
Canonical Correlation	.43	

The results of the canonical correlation analysis demonstrated that canonical coefficient for the relationship between perceived faculty trust and readiness for change is .43 which contributing 18% of the variance overlap between canonical variates in a pair. As the criterion canonical correlation coefficient was taken into consideration (.30) (Hair et al., 2010), the results indicated that the first canonical variate accounted for the significant relationships between the two sets of variables.

The first canonical variate showed that readiness for change variables were significantly correlated with the perceived faculty trust variables (χ^2 (9) = 124.76, p=.00). When the proposed criterion value for the canonical correlation is considered (.30), the first set of variables comprises of faculty trust in colleagues (-.96), faculty trust in principal (-.83) and faculty trust in clients (-.50) were associated with the second set of variables involving cognitive readiness for change (-.87), emotional readiness for change (-.66) and intentional readiness for change (-.99), as presented in Figure 4.5.

In addition, when the relationship between the first variate and its canonical variables were examined, it was concluded that the first canonical variate explained the 61% of the variance from perceived faculty trust variables. Moreover, the relationship between the second canonical variate and its variables indicated that it is accounted for the 73% of the variance from readiness for change variables (Figure 4.5).

Conversely, when the relationship between the first variate and the canonical variables of the second variate were checked, it was concluded that 11% of the total variance of readiness for change variables is explained by the faculty trust variables. Likewise, 13% of the total variance of faculty trust variables is accounted for by the readiness for change variables.
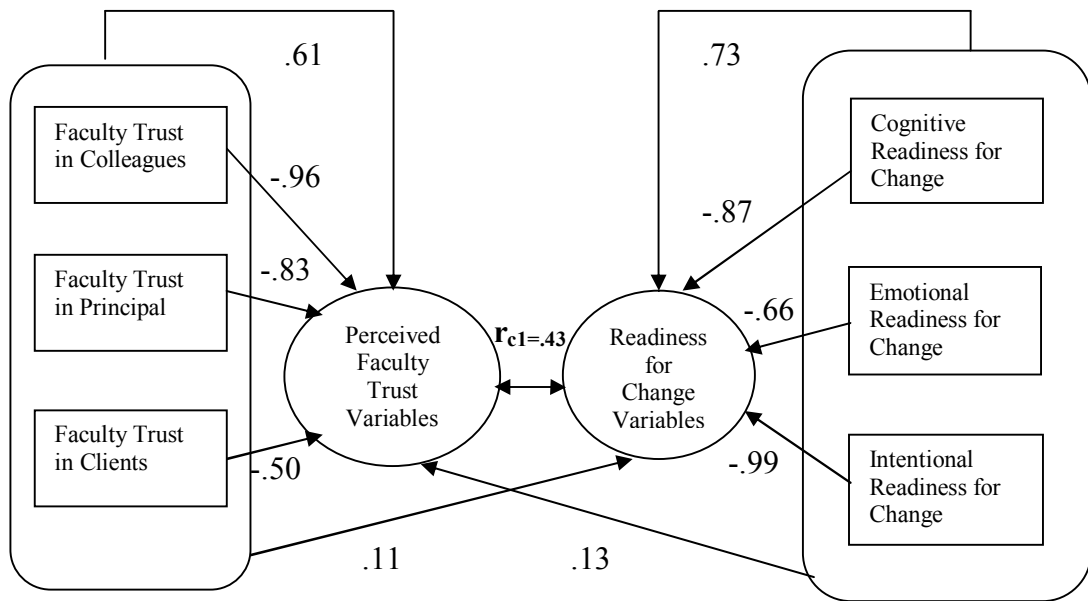
Figure 4.5 Summary of the Canonical Correlation Analysis

These results suggest that the two variables sets are fairly correlated with each other. In the next section, these results are interpreted and their possible implications for theory, research, and practice are discussed.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the results of the study are discussed with the findings of the relevant literature. Next, implications for practice and recommendations for further studies are presented by considering the results and limitations of the study.

5.1. Discussion of the Study Results

This study was an associational research and designed as a correlational study. The major purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between teachers' intentional, emotional, and cognitive readiness for change and perceived faculty trust in principal, in colleagues and in clients (students and parents). Of the study, the participants comprised of 603 teachers working at primary and secondary level public schools in the four school districts in Ankara.

To achieve the goal of the study, newly developed Readiness for Change Scale and Omnibus T-Scale were utilized. The results of this study also provided evidence for the validation of the Readiness for Change Scale. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) results ensured three-factor structure of this scale as intentional readiness for change, emotional readiness for change and cognitive readiness for change. This finding is consistent with the studies investigating general attitudes and readiness for change under the same three dimensions as intentional, emotional, and cognitive (Bouckenooghe et al., 2009; Piderit, 2000).

In relation to readiness for change, descriptive statistics results revealed that teachers expressed themselves as ready for change intentionally, emotionally, and,

cognitively. When the descriptive results were evaluated on the bases of the items of each sub-scale, teachers declared that they are ready for change generally except for the item asking them whether to devote themselves to change process or not. The lower teacher scores in this item imply their indecisiveness with this action. Although rest of the items in intentional readiness for change dimension ask teachers' willingness to invest effort for the success of change process, this item asks for their dedication. This finding of the study can be associated with the centralized structure of Turkish Educational System.

When the centralized structure of Turkish Education System is considered, changes are designed and imposed by MONE. Therefore, the teachers' indecisiveness in devoting themselves to the change process may stem from not becoming a member of the ones who design and decide on the changes for the educational organizations. As the effective and successful change process requires participatory decision-making (Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005) and creating the sense of need for change and clear justification (Armenakis et al., 1993; Bernerth, 2004), employees are argued to exhibit unsupportive behaviors. Therefore, if teachers do not believe in the need for change and benefits for themselves and if they do not feel ownership in the proposed changes, they may not want to devote themselves into this process. On the contrary, if teachers were to participate in decision-making process, they might be more willing to devote themselves into this change process. In this manner, if teachers' ideas, desires, and wishes in the change projects are taking into consideration while developing and administering changes in the educational organizations, teachers might be more willing to embrace the proposed changes which, in turn, affect the success of the change efforts. Furthermore, "devoting" is a very strong action to take, hence, people may not be that strongly into a thing if they were not get a reward (financial, positional etc.) in exchange for it. Therefore, if teachers are not going to get a reward for devoting themselves to a change mainly proposed by higher authorities, they probably do not want to invest time and effort that they can use for themselves.

In relation to perceived faculty trust, descriptive statistics results indicated teachers' agreement with the items asking their perceived trust in their principal and their indecisiveness with the items asking their perceived trust in their colleagues and clienst. When the items were checked to see problematic parts, the results revealed that teachers were nearly indecisive with the items asking whether their colleagues are open to or looking for each other. Therefore, teachers also reported themselves nearly undecided with whether they trust their colleagues or not. This finding supported the previous studies on trust in a way that developing trust requires openness and benevolence of both parties in the relationship (Hoy & Kupersmith, 1985; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). As a result, although teachers believe in the competence, integrity, and reliability of their colleagues, if they do not believe in their colleagues' openness and benevolence, the major precondition of building trust is not met. The relevant literature also revealed that work relationships are generally based on calculus-based trust, which involves both parties' calculation of their self-interests (Lewicki & Wiethoff, 2000; Nooteboom & Six, 2003). Therefore, the reason of low levels of trust among teachers can be the lack of reward for sustaining relationship between teachers. Alternatively, the reason of low levels of faculty trust in colleagues can be associated with just teachers' disposition to trust in a way that if teachers are more prone to distrust, low levels of trust is likely to emerge (Kramer, 1999; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000).

Descriptive statistics also revealed that teachers agree with the items asking for the school principals' honesty, benevolence, reliability, and competency. Hence, participant teachers reported that they trust in their principal. On the contrary, the teachers declared that they neither agree nor disagree with the items asking for their trust in students and parents since they generally disagree with the items indicating parents' benevolence, reliability, and honesty. Moreover, teachers also did not agree with the items asking for students' competency, benevolence, and openness. These findings are also consistent with the majority of the trust definitions, which emphasize openness, reliability, honesty, competency, and

benevolence as the foremost important characteristics of the trusted person and they are all required to build trust-based relationships (Cantrell, 1984; Mishra, 1996; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1999).

The results of canonical correlation analysis indicated that teachers' readiness for change variable set and perceived faculty trust varieble set are correlated with each other. When the relationships were examined on the bases of the dimensions of the main variables, it was concluded that cognitive readiness for change, emotional readiness for change, and intentional readiness for change are all associated with teachers' readiness for change and they are also related with the three faculty trust variables as trust in principal, trust in colleagues, and trust in clients (students and parents). Equally, the results of the study also brings about expected outcomes for the perceived faculty trust variables in a way that faculty trust in colleagues, in principal and in clients are all associated with perceived organizational trust by teachers and strongly contribute in teachers' intentional, emotional, and cognitive readiness for change. However, among the perceived faculty trust variables associated with teachers' perceived organizational trust, faculty trust in clients factor is not highly correlated like the other two factors. As a support to the descriptive statistics results, this finding can be associated with the low levels of communication and interaction between teachers and students and parents.

The findings of the study reaffirmed the previous findings, which revealed a relationship between positive employee attitudes towards change and organizational trust (Devos et al., 2007; Eby et al., 2000; Özmen& Sönmez, 2007). Moreover, the findings of this study are also consistent with the studies that proposed that trust-based relationship in the organization reduces negative employee behaviors (Saylı & Tüfekçi, 2008; Van Dam et al., 2008). Besides, the results of the study can also be concluded to support the previous studies that suggested a mediating role of trust on the relationship between managerial communication and positive employee attitudes (Ertürk, 2009). These studies

suggested that trust empowers open communication in the organization, thereby; employees can get necessary and useful information about the proposed changes. Therefore, trust indirectly decreases uncertainty and ambiguity accompanied by the change interventions in the organizations, thus, reduces the change-related resistance. As a result, the presence of organizational trust fosters employee readiness for change.

This study also provides empirical evidence that organizational trust in the school setting is related with teachers' readiness for change. Although the findings of the study do not propose a causal relationship between trust and readiness for change, it implies a significant influence of trust on readiness for change. In the school change context, this might be associated with the enhanced communication between teachers and principals through trust-based relationship. Faculty trust in principal fosters open communication; thus, teachers are likely to believe in their principals' promises and deeds to be for their own good. As the primary mechanism of creating employee readiness involves communicating the change message which clarifies the need for change and favorable outcomes for the employees (Armenakis et al., 1993), employees tend to embrace the change efforts and implement them by this way. Alternatively, faculty trust in principal is likely to increase teachers' vulnerability and fosters their beliefs in their principals' honesty, openness, reliability, benevolence, and competence to manage the change process effectively. For this reason, their level of resistance decrease which, in turn, results in higher readiness for change as a catalyst of successful change processes.

The reciprocal relationship between readiness for change and perceived organizational trust can also be associated with trust in colleagues. The relevant literature revealed that faculty trust in colleagues leads to more adaptive and productive atmosphere in the school since high levels of trust among teachers foster cooperation, collaboration and decreased level of competition (Tschannen-Moran, 2001; 2004; 2009). The increase in teachers' coherence to work together

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in a harmony is likely to result in teachers' beliefs with regard to their colleagues' capabilities, skills, and knowledge to handle the change effectively. As proposed by Self (2007), uncertainty caused by the proposed changes can be overcome by taking the respected co-workers as a reference point. In other words, if the respected co-workers resist the proposed changes, other teachers tend to resist the changes also. However, trust-based atmosphere among teachers are likely to make teachers believe in their potential as a whole to handle the change interventions and this is expected to result in an increase in both self-efficacy and collective-efficacy among teachers. The findings of the study are also consistent with many other studies in the relevant literature which put emphasis on the presence of employee self-efficacy in creating readiness (Armenakis et al., 1993; Armenakis & Harris, 2002; Bernerth, 2004). As a result, faculty trust in colleagues and teachers' confidence to deal with the change interventions are likely to results in higher readiness for change.

Alternatively, faculty trust in students and parents might be another factor accounted for the significant relationship between perceived faculty trust and teachers' readiness for change. Due to being one of the most important stakeholders of the educational organizations, students and parents are also affected by the initiated change efforts like teachers and principals. To achieve the desired goals of the change efforts and to help the students to adopt the requirements of the change interventions, there needs to be continuous interaction between teachers and parents. Trust-based relationship between teachers and parents is likely to result in parental support for the launched change interventions at school because parents believe in the need and appropriateness for the proposed changes as providing quality education and higher achievement standards for student and competency of teachers to implement those changes effectively. Therefore, in accordance with the study of Goddard et al. (2001), it can be concluded that teacher-parent trust leads to higher academic achievement of students. In this case, it can also be concluded that the reason of higher teacher readiness can be the high parental support arising from trust-base relationship

between parents and teachers. Likewise, teacher-student trust can also be associated with higher teacher readiness since teachers believe students' potential to adopt the new practices brought by the change projects. Since high levels of teacher-student trust is associated with increased academic achievement of students (Goddard et al., 2001; Hoy, 2008; Lee, 2007), it may also indicate higher levels of teacher readiness for change.

In sum, this study provides clear evidence on the relationship between teachers' readiness for change and perceived organizational trust in a way that trusting atmosphere in schools are likely to results in the driving force for effective change processes, readiness for change. In accordance with the studies underlining the essence of organizational trust as speeding up the change interventions (Bocchino, 1993; Martin, 1998; Moos & Kofod, 2007), organizational trust acts like a catalyst during the change interventions by reducing resisting behaviors and empowering enacting ones. Additionally, although the relevant literature indicated that most of the work relationships are based on calculus-based trust (Lewicki & Wiethoff, 2000), high levels of faculty trust in different reference groups may stimulate the formation of identification-based trust at schools. If such a highly trusting atmosphere pervades at schools, the desired outcomes of the school change interventions are likely to be accomplished since this type of trust involves mutual understanding and considering other's feelings, wants and priorities as their own (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996).

Consequently, the results of this study can contribute to the change literature in a way that trust is an essential internal context variable for teachers to feel themselves ready for the change interventions and to embrace them. The results of the study may also provide guiding information for policy-makers and school administrators to aid in the interpretation of the lacking parts of the change processes, which brings about failure.

5.2. Implications for Practice

Due to being a constant challenge for all educational organizations, organizational change needs to be managed effectively. However, the lacking parts of the change process results in disappointing outcomes for both business and educational organizations. Therefore, these deficiencies bringing about failure need to be detected and handled as soon as they emerge for successful and productive change interventions. As the major causes of the failure of change interventions result from negative employee attitutudes and neglecting the human side of the change, readiness for change needs to be handled carefully as it decreases the resisting behaviors and empower supporting ones. In this respect, teachers' readiness for change needs to be evaluated for the desired outcomes of the change interventions at school and the ways to nurture this attitude needs to be investigated. This study provides empirical evidence on the relationship between teachers' readiness for change and organizational trust. Therefore, organizational trust should be one of the major concerns of educational administrators to empower readiness for change.

Theoretically, this study provides a broad understanding with regard to the readiness for change at school organizations and supports the three-factor structure of attitudes. Moreover, this study contributes to the literature by investigating the relationship between two essential constructs for the successful change processes and brings about significant relationship between them. In this respect, although schools have some distinctive characteristics from business organizations, the findings of the study provide empirical evidence about the importance of readiness for change and organizational trust in educational setting. As there is a scarcity of research investigating these construct at school organizations, this study calls attention of both school administrators and higher authorities to foster readiness for change through organizational trust.

Corresponding to the research, this study contributed in the validation of the newly developed Turkish version of Readiness for Change Scale with a large sample size. For this purpose, the data of the study were utilized for the confirmatory factor analysis of the scale, which ensured three-dimensional framework as proposed in the literature. Therefore, Turkish Readiness for Change Scale was confirmed and presented for the use of the researchers interested in this field.

With regard to practice, as schools are exposed to change intervention constantly, this study aimed to provide useful and guiding information for higher authorities to perform more successful change processes. As the results of the study revealed, teachers' level of trust in their principal and in colleagues is higher than that of in clients. Moreover, the results also implied that there is a lack of communication between teachers and clients. Therefore, it is an urgent need for schools to foster teacher-parents and teacher-student trust in order to reach the desired outcomes of the change efforts. As well as empowering teacher-parent trust through social interactions and meetings, which may involve parents' participation in the school-level changes, teachers should convince parents that their all efforts are for the welfare of the student's both academic and personal development. Besides, teachers' actions should strongly be consistent with their expressions. If parents believe that their child is what the teacher cares about, they may even ignore some of the mistakes during the education process. This, in turn, brings about higher teacher-student trust in a way that students also believe in teachers' actions are in the favor of their development. However, if distrust emerges among parents and teachers, parents may have a tendency to criticize the teachers instantly.

Moreover, although this study did not result in a causal relationship between readiness for change and organizational trust, the findings implied such a relationship. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that empowering trusting atmosphere at school is likely to foster teachers' readiness for change. In this respect, educational administrators and higher authorities should undertake

necessary precautions to empower teachers' intentional, emotional, and cognitive readiness for change by fostering faculty trust in principal, in colleagues, and in clients. In particular, fostering open and wide communication and collaborating atmosphere, increasing teachers' confidence in their skills, capabilities and knowledge and empowering collective efficacy are likely to result in higher organizational trust. By this way, teachers' emotional readiness for change can be strengthened by fostering their sense of competency in handling the change efforts. Moreover, teachers' cognitive readiness for change can be nurtured by communicating the change related information and supporting the beliefs of employees with regard to the need for change and favorable outcomes for themselves. As a result, teachers' intentional readiness for change can be fostered to give rise to enacting and supportive behaviors for the proposed changes.

5.3. Recommendations for Further Research

Based on the shortcomings of this study, some recommendations for further studies can be suggested as follows:

Firstly, due to centralized structure of Turkish educational system, teachers and principals have no authority to participate in the decision-making processes. Therefore, more than faculty trust in principal, in colleagues and in clients, investigating faculty trust in MONE might be more relevant to interpret teachers' readiness for change. Hence, faculty trust in MONE can be investigated as one of the most important trust dimensions in relation with the teachers' readiness for change in future studies.

Moreover, in this study, the relationship between readiness for change and organizational trust was investigated; however, readiness for change is argued as an attitude affected by many other internal context, process, and content factors simultaneously (Holt et al., 2007a). Trust is only one of them. Therefore, further studies can investigate readiness for change in relation with many other factors to

provide broader perspective for effective change management in educational setting.

Furthermore, in this study, only the teachers working at public schools constituted the sample. However, further researchers can involve teachers working at private schools in order to increase the generalizability of the findings. Moreover, by this way, public and private schools can be compared with regard to the level of organizational trust and teachers' readiness for change.

Besides, in this study, the data collection was performed in four school districts in Ankara due to time constrains. Further studies can collect data from all districts in Ankara, which brings about broader picture about the school organizational change.

In addition to all these, although this study was designed as a quantitative research, qualitative research designs can also be utilized in order to gather deeper information with regard to problematic parts of organizational trust and organizational change processes at school from the teachers' point of view.

Additionally, as the relevant literature revealed, some social and individual factors affect individuals' level of readiness for change (e.g., past change experiences and self-efficacy) and organizational trust (e.g., disposition to trust, trustee's membership). Hence, more background information can be gathered in order to avoid the confounding effects of these variables in further studies.

Subsequently, in order to ensure the validity of the newly developed Readiness for Change Scale, more studies are needed with the data collected from different populations.

Furthermore, readiness for change needs to be studied in educational organizations more with different variables in order to provide information that is

more useful for policy-makers and administrators to increase teachers' readiness for change.

Finally, due to the research design and statistical analysis employed in this study, no causal relationship was obtained at the end of the study. However, a significant relationship was found between readiness for change and organizational trust. Therefore, further studies can utilize a research design, which brings about causal relationship between readiness for change and organizational trust.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Gönüllü Katılım Formu

Bu çalışma, ODTÜ Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü yüksek lisans öğrencisi Merve ZAYİM tarafından yüksek lisans tez çalışması kapsamında, Yrd. Doç. Dr. Yaşar KONDAKÇI'nın danışmanlığında yürütülen bir çalışmadır. Ankara ilini kapsayan bu çalışmada amaç öğretmenlerin okul yöneticilerine, meslektaşlarına, öğrencilerine ve velilere duydukları güven ile örgütsel değişime hazır olma durumları arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir. Bu çalışmanın sonucunda elde edilecek bilgiler okullardaki değişim yönetiminin daha etkin yapılmasına katkı sağlayacaktır.

Çalışmaya katılım tamamıyla gönüllülük temelinde olmalıdır. Ankette, sizden kimlik belirleyici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplarınız tamamıyla gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir. Elde edilecek bilgiler sadece bilimsel amaçlarla kullanılacaktır.

Aşağıda örgütsel güven ve değişime hazır olma durumuna yönelik toplam 33 ifade bulunmaktadır. Lütfen her bir maddeyi okuyarak size en uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Anket, genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek soruları içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz cevaplama işini yarıda bırakıp çıkmakta serbestsiniz. Böyle bir durumda anketi uygulayan kişiye, anketi tamamlamadığınızı söylemeniz yeterli olacaktır. Anket sonunda, bu çalışmayla ilgili sorularınız cevaplanacaktır. Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Merve Zayim (E-posta: mzayim@metu.edu.tr) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum. (Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri veriniz).

İsim Soyad   Tarih   İmza

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APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHIC FORM

Kısım I. Bu kısımda sizinle ilgili genel bilgiler sorulmaktadır. Lütfen her bir maddeyi okuyup durumunuzu en iyi yansıtan seçeneği (X) ile işaretleyiniz.

Cinsiyet	❑ Kadın	❑ Erkek
Yaş	…………	
Medeni hali	❑ Evli	❑ Bekar
Çocuğunuz var mı?	❑ Evet	❑ Hayır
Eşinizin iş durumu	❑ Çalışıyor	❑ Çalışmıyor
Okulunuzun hizmet verdiği öğretim düzeyi	❑İlköğretim	❑ Lise
Meslekteki yılınız	……………	
Mesleki durumunuz	❑ Kadrolu öğretmen ❑ Sözleşmeli öğretmen ❑ Vekil öğretmen ❑ diğer ………………………………	
Branşınız	……………	
Şimdiye kadar herhangi idari görev yürüttünüz mü?	❑ Evet	❑ Hayır
Yürüttüğünüz idari görevler	❑ Müdür ❑ Müdür yardımcısı ❑ Müdür muavini ❑ Diğer (yazınız) ………………………………	
Okulunuzdaki yaklaşık öğrenci sayısı	………….	
Şu ana kadar herhangi bir hizmet içi eğitim aldınız mı?	❑ Evet	❑ Hayır
Şu ana kadar herhangi bir kurumsal değişim projesinde görev aldınız mı?	❑ Evet	❑ Hayır

APPENDIX C

READINESS FOR CHANGE SCALE

Kısım II. Bu kısımda sizlerin değişime hazır olma durumunuza yönelik 13 ifade bulunmaktadır. Değişim, Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı'nın tasarlayıp uyguladığı ve okulunuzun yapısal ve işlevsel özelliklerini etkileyen yapılandırmacı yaklaşıma geçişi ve yine okulunuzdaki bazı idari süreçlerin elektronik ortama (bilgisayar ortamına) aktarılmasını ifade etmektedir. Bu değişimler, eğitim sistemimizin bazı düzeylerinde gerçekleştirilmiş, diğer düzeylerde ise gerçekleştirilme aşamasındadır. Yapılandırmacı yaklaşımla beraber hem ders türlerinin hem de ders içeriklerinin değişmesi öngörülmektedir. Aynı şekilde okullardaki bazı idari süreçlerin (örnek, öğrenci kayıt sisteminde değişim, not giriş sisteminde yapılan değişim, müfredatın içeriğinde yapılan değişim) elektronik ortama aktarılması da öngörülmektedir. Lütfen anketteki ifadeleri değerlendirirken bu iki alandaki değişimi göz önüne alınız ve her bir ifadeyi okuyarak, (**1 tamamen katılmıyorum**) ve (**5 tamamen katılıyorum**) olmak üzere 1'den 5'e kadar size en uygun seçeneği (X) ile işaretleyiniz.

	Tamamen Katılmıyorum				Tamamen Katılıyorum
Değişimi yenileyici bulurum	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Değişim, işimi daha iyi yapmama yardımcı olacaktır	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Değişim genellikle hoşuma gitmez	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Okulumda değişim faaliyetlerini görmeyi arzu ederim	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Önerilen değişimler genellikle kurumda daha iyiyi yakalamak içindir	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Çoğu değişimin hizmet verdiğimiz kişiler (öğrenci, toplum, veliler) üzerinde olumsuz bir etki yaratacağını düşünüyorum	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Kendimi değişim sürecine adamak isterim	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Değişim, çalışma şevkimi kırar	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Değişim işimde daha fazla gayret etmem yönünde teşvik edicidir	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Değişim sürecinin başarısı için elimden geleni yapmak isterim	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Değişim genellikle bana huzursuzluk verir	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Yapılan değişimleri uygulamaya çalışırım	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Değişim okulumdaki eksikliklerin giderilmesine yardımcı olur	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑

Kısım III. Bu kısımda sizlerin okul müdürü, diğer öğretmenler, okulunuzdaki öğrenci ve velilerine yönelik algıladığınız güven duygusunu ölçmeye yönelik 20 ifade bulunmaktadır. Lütfen her bir ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyarak , (**1 tamamen katılmıyorum**) ve (**5 tamamen katılıyorum**) anlamına gelecek şekilde 1'den 5'e kadar size en uygun seçeneği (X) ile işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

	Tamamen Katılmıyorum				Tamamen Katılıyorum
Çalıştığım okulda öğretmenler birbirlerine güvenirler	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Çalıştığım okulda öğrenciler birbirlerini önemserler	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Bu okuldaki öğretmenler, okul müdürüne güvenirler	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Çalıştığım okulda öğrencilerin üzerlerine düşen görevleri yapacaklarına inanılır	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Bu okuldaki öğretmenler, okul müdürüne itimat edebilirler	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Çalıştığım okulda öğretmenler birbirlerine karşı açıktırlar	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Bu okuldaki öğretmenler, öğrenci velilerinin iyi birer veli olduklarını düşünürler	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Çalıştığım okuldaki öğretmenler, genellikle birbirlerini gözetirler	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Çalıştığım okuldaki öğrenci velilerinin sözlerine güvenilir	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Çalıştığım okulda öğretmenler işlerini iyi yaparlar	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Bu okuldaki öğretmenler, okul müdürünün dürüstlüğüne inanırlar	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Bu okuldaki öğretmenler, öğrencilerin öğrenme konusunda yetenekli olduklarına inanırlar	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Bu okuldaki öğretmenlerin söylediklerine inanabilirsiniz.	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Bu okuldaki öğretmenler, velilerin söylediklerine inanabilirler	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Okul müdürümüz bu okulu yönetecek kabiliyetlere sahiptir	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Çalıştığım okulda, zor bir durumda olsalar bile öğretmenler birbirlerine destek olurlar	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Çalıştığım okuldaki öğretmenler, öğrenci velilerinin desteklerini her zaman arkalarında hissederler	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Okul müdürümüz, öğretmenlerin çıkarlarını gözetecek biçimde davranır	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Çalıştığım okulda öğretmenler, meslektaşlarının dürüstlüğüne inanırlar	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑
Bu okuldaki öğrenciler gerçek duygu ve düşüncelerini saklarlar	1❑	2❑	3❑	4❑	5❑

APPENDIX E

CONSENT LETTER OF HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITEE

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Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi
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Sayı: B.30.2.ODT.0.AH.00.00/126/78 - 974

24 Ağustos 2010

Gönderilen: Yrd.Doç.Dr. Yaşar Kondakçı

Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü

Gönderen : Prof. Dr. Canan Özgen

IAK Başkan Yardımcısı

İlgi : Etik Onayı

"Öğretmenlerin örgütsel güven algıları ile değişime hazır oluşları arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi" başlığı ile yürüttüğünüz çalışmanız "İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Komitesi" tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Etik Komite Onayı

Uygundur

24/08/2010

Prof.Dr. Canan ÖZGEN
Uygulamalı Etik Araştırma Merkezi
(UEAM) Başkanı
ODTÜ 06531 ANKARA

137

APPENDIX F

CONSENT LETTER OF THE INSTITUTION

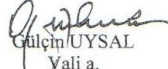T.C.
ANKARA VALİLİĞİ
Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü

BÖLÜM : İstatistik Bölümü
SAYI : B.B.08.4.MEM.4.06.00.06–312/ 40478   06./05/2010
KONU : Araştırma izni
Merve ZAİM

.... KAYMAKAMLIĞINA
(İlçe Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü)

İlgi: a) M.E.B. Bağlı Okul ve Kurumlarda Yapılacak Araştırma ve Araştırma Desteğine
Yönelik İzin ve Uygulama Yönergesi.
b) MEB EARGED' in araştırma izinlerine ilişkin 11/04/2007 tarih ve 1950 sayılı yazısı.
c) 02/09/2009 tarih ve 74835 sayılı Valilik Onayı.
d) 05/11/2009 tarih ve 98610 sayılı Valilik Onayı.
e) Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesinin 28/04/2010 tarih ve 2758 sayılı yazısı.

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Anabilim Dalı Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi
Merve ZAİM'in **"Öğretmenlerin örgütsel güven algıları ve değişme hazır olma durumları
arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi."** konulu tez ile ilgili anketi, ek listedeki ilçeniz okullarında
uygulama yapılması isteği Müdürlüğümüz Değerlendirme Komisyonunca uygun görülmüştür.

Mühürlü anket örnekleri (4 sayfa) araştırmacıya ulaştırılmış olup, uygulama yapılacak
sayıda araştırmacı tarafından çoğaltılarak, araştırmanın ilgi (a) yönerge çerçevesinde **gönüllülük
esasına** göre uygulanmasını rica ederim.

Gülçin UYSAL
Vali a.
Müdür Yardımcısı

EKLER :
1-Okul Listesi (2. Sayfa)

DAĞITIM :
Altındağ-Çankaya-Keçiören
Yenimahalle Kaymakamlığı

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