

MODELING PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHERS' CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION
BEHAVIORS: INTERRELATIONS AMONG CHANGE ANTECEDENTS,
CHANGE-RELATED AFFECT, COMMITMENT TO CHANGE, AND JOB
SATISFACTION

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Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

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ABSTRACT

MODELING PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHERS' CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION BEHAVIORS: INTERRELATIONS AMONG CHANGE ANTECEDENTS, CHANGE-RELATED AFFECT, COMMITMENT TO CHANGE, AND JOB SATISFACTION

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The purpose of this study was to test a model exploring the nature of the relationship between change antecedents (trust in principal and in MONE, change history beliefs, and perceived social support), change related positive and negative affect, commitment to change (affective and continuance commitment), job satisfaction, and change implementation behavior in the midst of a large-scale 4+4+4 change. For this end, the data were collected from randomly selected 85 public schools in Ankara. The sample involved 663 primary, secondary, and high school teachers. To assess the hypothesized relationships, the scales of Trust in Principal and in MONE, Poor Change Management History Beliefs, Perceived Organizational Support, PANAS, Commitment to Change, Job Satisfaction, and Innovation Implementation Behavior were used.

SEM results revealed that trust in MONE was the variable that was most strongly related with change-related affect and attitudes; while trust in principal was the

variable only associated with job satisfaction. Positive and negative change-related affect also contributed to the prediction of positive attitudinal variables, while negative affect played a predictive role in continuance commitment to change as well. Furthermore, affective and continuance commitment to change and job satisfaction were related with change implementation behavior positively. Overall, the model supported Affective Events Theory in school context in Turkey and substantiated superior role of trust in MONE for change outcomes compared with trust in principal. These results suggested that teachers' change related reactions matter in the time of change and should be addressed to increase change-supportive behaviors.

Keywords: Educational Change, Commitment to Change, Change-Related Affect, Job Satisfaction, Trust

ÖZ

DEVLET OKULU ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN DEĞİŞİM UYGULAMA DAVRANIŞLARININ MODELLENMESİ: ÖNCÜL DEĞİŞKENLER, DEĞİŞİME BAĞLI DUYGULAR, DEĞİŞİME BAĞLILIK VE İŞ DOYUMU ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı, Türk okul ortamında öncül değişkenler (müdüre ve MEB'e güven, değişim geçmişi hakkında inanç ve algılanan örgütsel destek), değişime bağlı pozitif ve negatif duygular, değişime bağlılık tutumu (duygusal bağlılık ve devam bağlılığı), iş doyumunu ve değişim uygulama davranışı arasındaki ilişkinin doğasını büyük ölçekli bir değişim olan 4+4+4 değişim sürecinde inceleyen bir model test etmektir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda çalışmanın verileri seçkisiz örnekleme yöntemi ile Ankara'dan seçilmiş 85 devlet okulundan toplanmıştır. Çalışmanın örnekleme 663 ilkokul, ortaokul ve lise öğretmeninden oluşmuştur. Hipotez kurulan ilişkileri değerlendirmek için, Müdüre ve MEB'e yönelik Güven, Zayıf Değişim Geçmişine İlişkin İnanç, Algılanan Sosyal Destek, Pozitif-Negatif Duygu, Değişime Bağlılık, İş Doyumu ve Yenilik Uygulama Davranışı Ölçekleri kullanılmıştır.

YEM analizi sonuçları, öğretmenler tarafından MEB'e duyulan güvenin değişime bağlı duygular ve tutumlar ile en güçlü ilişkiyi kuran değişken olduğunu göstermekle birlikte müdüre duyulan güvenin yalnızca iş doyumunu ile ilişkili olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Değişime bağlı pozitif ve negatif duyguların ise pozitif tutum değişkenlerinin yordanmasına anlamlı katkısının yanında değişime bağlı negatif duyguların değişime yönelik devam bağlılığını da yordayan bir değişken olduğu bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, değişime yönelik duygusal bağlılık ve devam bağlılığı ve iş doyumunu tutumlarının da öğretmenlerin değişim uygulama davranışlarıyla pozitif yönde ilişkili olduğu ortaya konmuştur. Genel olarak değerlendirildiğinde, test edilen model Duyuşsal Olaylar Kuramını Türk okul ortamında desteklemiş ve Türk eğitim sisteminde MEB'e duyulan güvenin değişim sonuçları üzerinde müdüre duyulan güvenden daha önemli bir rol oynadığını göstermiştir. Çalışmanın bulguları, değişim sürecinde öğretmenlerin değişime yönelik tepkilerinin fark yarattığını ve değişimi destekleyici davranışların artırılması için ele alınması gerektiğini ortaya koymuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Eğitimde Değişim, Değişime Bağlılık, Değişime Bağlı Duygular, İş Doyumu, Güven

To my new life...

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

TES	Turkish Educational System
MONTE	Ministry of National Education
AET	Affective Events Theory
POS	Perceived Organizational Support
CSB	Change Supportive Behaviors
PCMH	Poor Change Management History
PANAS	Positive and Negative Affect Schedule
M	Mean
SD	Standard Deviation
MCAR	Missing Completely at Random
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
ML	Maximum Likelihood
AMOS	Analysis of Moments Structures
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
RMSEA	Root Mean Square of Error Approximation
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index
NNFI	Non-Normed Fit Index
CI	Confidence Interval
KMO	Kaiser-Mayer Olkin
MVA	Missing Value Analysis
EM	Expectation Maximization
SE	Standard Error

VIF	Variance Inflation Factor
DV	Dependent Variable
IV	Independent Variable
SS	Sum of Squares
MS	Mean Square

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

To provide high-quality education for all, equating opportunities for the disadvantaged ones, keeping up the developments in the turbulent external environment, and raising students with certain skills and abilities to ensure their adaptability to the evolving societal, cultural, economical, and technological conditions, schools today are faced with growing demand of change. Based on these internal and external imperatives, various large and small scale changes have been initiated in Turkish Educational System (TES) at an increased frequency in the last 35 years. Yet, the question of whether these change initiatives are the result of rational consideration or the result of ideological orientations of different governments is still a controversy among Turkish educational change scholars (e.g., Bahtiyar-Karadeniz, 2012; Güven, 2007, 2012; Zayim & Kondakci, 2015). Especially, after the changes initiated by Ministry of National Education (MONE) since 2002, TES has been resembled a jigsaw puzzle because each minister assigned reconfigured the whole system by abolishing the implementations of the previous minister completely (İnal, 2012). Accordingly, Güven (2012) advocated that educational policies made by politicians rather than the experts in the field resulted in problems in TES to be chronic and persistent.

While this discussion was still hot on the part of the change scholars in Turkey, MONE introduced a drastic change, called 4+4+4, in 2012-2013 school year that exacerbated this dispute. This change extended the duration of compulsory schooling from 8 years to 12 years with reconfiguration of educational levels to be 4+4+4 for primary, secondary, and high school levels rather than 8-year

compulsory elementary level followed by non-compulsory 4-year high school education. This change also lowered school starting age from 72 months to 60 months and entailed the physical separation of primary and secondary level schools. Moreover, two religious courses were added to the programs of secondary and high schools, in addition to some other elective courses included in the secondary school program. This change also allowed secondary level religious schools to reopen again (MONE, 2012). With the new amendment made in 2013 (Resmi Gazete, 2013), however, school-starting age was raised to be 66 months or older after one year implementation with 60 months of age.

MONE (2012) described the major forces that drive this change as keeping up with the developments in the world concerning the duration of compulsory education, increasing rate of school enrolment, allowing students to select courses in accordance with their personal interests and abilities starting from the secondary level, ensuring healthy developments of primary and secondary level students, and allowing students to start school earlier following the implementations in the world. However, some scholars challenged the discourses of MONE regarding the driving forces of this change. Specifically, Bahtiyar-Karadeniz (2012) revealed in her study that 4+4+4 was an ill-designed change which did not involve the contributions of the field experts and the implementers and it is an ideological one which was initiated to reciprocate the previous 8-year continuous compulsory schooling reform (Bahtiyar-Karadeniz, 2012). Güven (2012) also raised similar arguments and criticized the MONE to abstain from exerting its power to affect this ill-fated policy. Accordingly, he discussed that this reform effort was ideologically driven that served personal interests of shareholders rather than aiming to spread contemporary modern understanding of education.

Various other studies, on the other hand, revealed that this change has both positive and negative repercussions for TES and the implementers while acknowledging the limitations in the implementation process. For instance,

Akpınar, Dönder, Yıldırım, and Karahan (2012) concluded (through document analysis) that elective courses contributed to the social side of the curriculum. Besides, the authors maintained that this change was an important step in achieving equal opportunity for all students and bringing great importance to technical-vocational education. In other studies, similarly, 4+4+4 change was evaluated as a desirable one by empowering vocational guidance in early years of education, extending the duration of compulsory schooling, physical separation of primary and secondary level schools, increasing diversity of elective courses provided at secondary and high school levels, and branch teachers' to be responsible from the field courses (Cerit, Akgün, Yıldız, & Soysal, 2014; Doğan, Uğurlu, & Demir, 2014; Memişoğlu & İsmetoğlu, 2013; Örs, Erdoğan, & Kirpici, 2013). Although these aspects of the change look appealing on paper, the real implementations were so problematic that these outcomes have not been totally accomplished yet. As shown in these studies, the total separation of the primary and secondary level schools have not been completed which resulted in double-session learning for too many schools, there are not enough teachers to address the need for elective courses introduced in secondary school program, and teachers have still been assigned to other schools in need with a temporary contract or they have forced to change their fields due to the supernumerary of teachers at their respective schools. The finding consistently provided by majority of these studies was that this change has been the source of teacher reactions (e.g., Cerit et al., 2014; Doğan et al., 2014; Örs et al., 2013). Specifically, teachers as the main implementers of the change were reported to suffer from decreased motivation and increased anxiety because of the threat of assigning to another school or field change and being unfamiliar with the new field and classroom implementations due to lack of information and support in the time of this change.

According to Fullan (2009), large-scale change refers to “deliberate policy and strategy attempts to change the system as a whole” (p. 102). The 4+4+4 change, in fact, was described as a paradigm shift by the minister at the top in the designation and initial implementation periods (Gençdal, 2012, as cited in Akpınar et al.,

2012) and affected all aspects of Turkish educational system and all school levels at the same time (İnal, 2012). This, in turn, makes it a large-scale school change considering the definition of Fullan (2009). In accordance with the studies that revealed the problems in the implementation of 4+4+4 change from the viewpoints of implementers (e.g., Cerit et al., 2014; Doğan et al., 2014), Güven (2012) underlined that a radical change in an educational system should entail certain steps to reach desired outcomes. That is, initial designation of the change should be based on the need assessments of most relevant stakeholders and subsequent piloting. After minimizing the problems with pilot implementations, the change can be extended across the country. However, no such procedure was followed in the implementation of 4+4+4 change; thus, it is discussed to be doomed to failure. Referring to the past changes (e.g., changes in university entrance examinations and high-school entrance examinations, adopting constructivist curriculum, etc.), İnal (2012) also underlined that 4+4+4 change was poorly framed and initiated with lack of piloting and infrastructure; therefore, like the previously initiated changes, it would be another source of problem rather than solving the basic problems of TES.

Indeed, the literature revealed that change failures were very common in the world and equally valid for business and educational organizations (Beer & Nohria, 2000a; Fullan, 2001; George, White, & Schlaffer, 2007). The underlying reason for majority of the change failures in business organizations was associated with over concentration on the technical and financial sides of the change and bypassing the human side (Beer & Nohria, 2000b; Clegg & Walsh, 2004; Mohrman, Tenkasi, & Mohrman, 2003). Prioritizing macro level; however, is criticized as it leads change agents to underestimate the role of individuals in organizational change process (George & Jones, 2001). Bouckenooghe (2009), similarly, emphasized negative employee attitudes as one of the major reasons of change failures. Accordingly, majority of change scholars compromised on the merit of individual reactions to reach desired change outcomes (e.g., Armenakis, Harris, & Mossholder, 1993; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Wanberg & Banas,

2000; Wanous, Reichers, & Austin, 2000). Educational change scholars also put forward similar reasons for the failure of educational change interventions as well. Hargreaves (2005a), for instance, articulated that lack of attention on emotional, political, and moral aspects of change and invalid assumption that change is still a linear process as it was once were the main reasons behind high change failures at schools. According to Akşit (2007), the same situation might potentially be valid for TES as well. He speculated that excessive focus on the content and process of change may cause practitioners' efforts to be neglected at schools. In times of change, although schools seem to adopt new implementations, it may not be a reliable indication of whether implementers also adopt and embrace these changes individually. That is, as well as being resistant (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012), implementers might be "change survivors" as referred by Duck (1993, p. 111) who do not indeed change their attitudes and behaviors in ways demanded by the change but seem to do so. Therefore, it is the individuals in the organization who determine the extent to which a new change is accomplished (e.g., Fullan, 2009; George & Jones, 2001; Porras & Robertson, 1992).

Organizational change, indeed, resembles a journey into the darkness, meaning that the process and outcomes of change may lead to a situation where the organizational members feel estranged from their organizational context, work relationships, and work duties. Therefore, organizational change is a shift from known, tried, and certain to unknown, untested, and uncertain for the ones on the target (Burke, 2008). The dilemma between the known and unknown in times of change produce conflicting responses as maintaining the situated order of the past or disregarding the grieving process and adopting the new alterations rapidly (Bolman & Deal, 2003). Indeed, change is closely coupled with loss and resulting grieving which is the process of relieving from the pain of loss (Bolman & Deal, 2003; Fineman, 2003). However, managerial time with eagerness to reach the goals in a short time and grieving time of employees with unpredictable duration for recovery are generally incompatible and the rush for the new alternations may potentially create emotional turmoil experienced by employees (Eriksson, 2004;

Fineman, 2003). Indeed, Kiefer (2005) provided empirical evidence on the thus far not substantiated assumption of scholars that change is an emotion-provoking event and creates negative reactions. She further elaborated that the more change experience means the more negative daily-basis emotions on the part of employees; however, change was articulated not to be the sole reason of negative emotions but the appraisal of change-related events to be potentially risky was regarded as the major cause of negative emotions.

Despite the slowly growing scholarly support on the importance of micro level and employee affect and attitude for the betterment of change outcomes, there is still scarcity of research that provides deep insight on the causal mechanisms and outcomes of individual reactions to change. Specifically, the literature disappointingly indicated dominance of studies exploring the direct association between antecedents and the emergent change-related reactions (van Dam, Oreg, & Schyns, 2008). Similarly, paucity of research incorporating emotional dimension of change is highly visible to the eyes of most scholars in their search for organizational change in both business (e.g., Brief & Weiss, 2002; Fugate, Harrison, & Kinicki, 2011) and educational organizations (e.g., Hargreaves, 2005b; Leithwood, 2007; Van Veen & Slegers, 2006). Indeed, Brief and Weiss (2002) criticized the field due to confining its boundaries with job satisfaction and ignoring the dispositional and extra-work factors as the sources and underlined limitations of studies on affect in the field of organization in terms of research, problem, and quantity. Similarly, cognitive assumption in organizational change studies results in emotions to be overlooked in the organization field (Fugate et al., 2011). Parallel criticisms were raised for educational change field as well. Leithwood (2007) suggested that the primary purpose of educational reforms is to advance students' learning which can best be accomplished with teachers' practices; however, change in teachers' practices cannot be divorced from their mind change which is a cognitive and affective process. Accordingly, Hargreaves (2005b) noted that teachers make sense of the effect of self-developed and externally mandated educational changes on the emotional relationship they

establish with their students and their educational goals which put students at the heart of the discussion. Therefore, the focus of educational change cannot be divorced from the emotional dimension of teaching and learning.

Being a recent concern, there has been growing interest in the human side of change in Turkish school context as well. Studies conducted so far in Turkey utilized different theoretical perspectives, conceptualized change in different ways, explored different change-related variables, and investigated different aspects of change (e.g., Aksu, 2003; Grossman, Onkol, & Sands, 2007; Helvacı, 2009; Kondakçı, Zayim, & Çalışkan, 2010). Although various large and small-scale changes are underway in Turkish educational system currently, studies exploring change recipients' reactions are still limited in number and have some constraints both theoretically and methodologically. Readiness for change (e.g., Akbulut, Kuzu, Latchem, & Odabaşı, 2007; Aksu, 2003; Aydoğan, 2007; Çalışkan, 2011; Helvacı & Kıcıroğlu, 2010; Kondakçı et al., 2010; Zayim, 2010) and resistance to change (e.g., Bacanlı-Kurt, 2010; Genç, 2006; Göksoy, 2010; Gürses, 2010; Gürses & Helvacı, 2011; Özençel, 2007; Şentürk & Köklü, 2011) were amongst the two attitudes mostly investigated in the field. Openness to change, on the other hand, is investigated both as an individual level reaction (Aslan, Beycioğlu, & Konan, 2008; Ocaklı, 2006; Şentürk & Köklü, 2011) and organizational level variable (Demirtaş, 2012; Yılmaz, 2010). The rest of the studies majorly explored general attitudes towards change with no specific focus on any of the aforementioned reactions (Altınkurt, 2010; Artun, 2008; Aslaner, 2010; Grossman et al., 2007; Kurşunoğlu & Tanrıöğren, 2006; Ocaklı, 2006). When the variables explored in relation to individuals' reactions in Turkish literature, the field in Turkey clearly revealed that individual characteristics (e.g., age, gender, experience, etc.) were predominantly investigated in relation to individual reactions towards change more than the internal context and process variables (e.g., Akpınar & Aydın, 2007; Aksu, 2003; Bacanlı-Kurt, 2011; Demirtaş, 2012; Genç, 2006; Gürses, 2010; Helvacı & Kıcıroğlu, 2011; Kurşunoğlu & Tanrıöğren, 2006; Şentürk & Köklü, 2011; Yılmaz, 2010).

Regarding the internal context variables, only limited number of studies explored the relationship between individuals' reactions and some internal context variables including organizational trust, organizational commitment, and school characteristics (e.g., Artun, 2008; Çağlar, 2013; Zayim & Kondakci, 2015). Change process variables; however, were the most rarely investigated ones in Turkish school literature. Participation was one of the process variables investigated with attitudes towards change in higher education context (Grossman et al., 2007).

Taken together, the literature search in TES revealed that negative attitudes of cynicism and coping with change and positive attitudes including commitment to change and adjustment to change did not receive the attention of researchers in the field. When it comes to the antecedents, the literature search indicated that studies seeking the relationship between participants' demographics and their attitudes outnumbered the studies exploring attitudes in relation to other change antecedent variables. Moreover, when compared with the world literature, the need for studies concerning other individual-level characteristics (i.e., dispositional resistance to change, coping styles, locus of control, & personality traits), internal context variables (i.e., organizational and principal support, organizational culture and climate, & job characteristics, trust in top management), and change process variables (i.e., communication & interactional and procedural justice) were visible to the eyes. Regarding the change consequences, the literature search indicated the presence of limited number of studies conducted in Turkey. Change adoption was one of the work-related consequences explored in relation to employee attitudes in Turkish school context (Kurt, 2011); however, other possible personal and work-related consequences have not been explored in Turkey yet.

Indeed, Turkish educational system is reported to have one of the most centralized structures among OECD countries (Şişman & Taşdemir, 2008). Therefore, designed changes are generally applied in a top-down manner, without school organizational members' active participation in this process. Given that 4+4+4

change has been mandated on teachers and implemented with a fast pace with inadequate infrastructure and information concerning the content and school-level implementations, it was accompanied with excessive teacher reactions (e.g., Cerit et al., 2014; Doğan et al., 2014; Örs et al., 2013). Therefore, major aim of this study was to make sense of the repercussions of 4+4+4 change have on teachers' reactions and the mechanism that created these reactions. Based on the arguments of Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) and Whelan-Berry, Gordon, and Hinings (2003), successive change initiations of MONE is likely to engender teacher emotions and attitudes, which have the highest potential to influence their change supportive behaviors. Given the gaps in Turkish and world change literatures, the two unexplored human aspects of change, emotions and commitment to change, were included in this study as the change related teacher reactions and job satisfaction as the work-related attitude. To make sense of the contextual variables that make the process smoother for the teachers on the target, change history belief, perceived organizational support, trust in MONE, and trust in principal were explored in the same mechanism as well. Finally, to provide a holistic picture for the bases and outcomes of teachers' emotions and attitudes, change implementation behavior (as a form of change supportive behaviors) was utilized as the outcome variable.

1.2. Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

Drawing on this stream of research, the major purpose of this study was to test a model exploring the nature of the relationship between change antecedents, positive and negative change-related affect, commitment to change, and job satisfaction in predicting the ultimate outcome of change implementation behavior in Turkish public schools within 4+4+4 change context. More specifically, this study tested the mediating roles of positive and negative change-related affect on the relationship between change antecedents and attitudinal variables of commitment to change (i.e., affective, normative, and continuance commitment)

and job satisfaction and explored the predictive roles of these variables in teachers' change implementation behaviors.

Therefore, the major and minor research questions that guide this study were:

How did change antecedents, change-related affect, commitment to change, and job satisfaction relate with teachers' change implementation behaviors?

a) How did change antecedents (i.e., change history beliefs, perceived organizational support, trust in principal, and trust in MONE) relate with teachers' positive and negative change-related affect?

b) How did change antecedents (i.e., change history beliefs, perceived organizational support, trust in principal, and trust in MONE) relate with teachers' affective, normative, and continuance commitment to change?

c) How did change antecedents (i.e., change history beliefs, perceived organizational support, trust in principal, and trust in MONE) relate with teachers' job satisfaction in the time of change?

d) How did teachers' positive and negative change related affect relate with their affective, normative, and continuance commitment to change?

e) How did teachers' positive and negative change related affect relate with their job satisfaction in the time of change?

f) How did teachers' affective, normative, and continuance commitment to change relate with their change implementation behaviors?

g) How did teachers' job satisfaction relate with their change implementation behaviors?

1.3. Significance of the Study

This study went beyond the previous work on change-related attitudes and emotions in some respects.

In terms theory, this study responded to the research needs concerning the role of emotions in the formation of change-related attitudes based on the arguments of Rafferty, Jimmieson, and Armenakis (2013). While studying change recipients' emotions in relation to commitment to change, this study also extended the three dimensional change related reactions model of Oreg, Vakola, and Armenakis (2011) by integrating emotions as a mediator variable between change antecedents and attitudes based on the premises of Affective Events Theory (AET) of Weiss and Cropanzano (1996). Thus, this study provided deeper insight on the mechanism that creates change-related attitudes and responded to calls for more studies on emotional dimensions of change.

Second, this study explored joint effect of various different variables simultaneously so that comparisons can be made on their relative contributions in creating emotions, attitudes, and outcome variables. More importantly, this study provided empirical evidence on the relative contribution of trust in principal and trust in MONE in predicting change-related emotions and attitudes for the highly centralized Turkish educational system.

Third, this study responded to the call of Oreg et al. (2011) on reducing the confounding effects of change content and type of organization by collecting data from comparable organizations undergoing the same change. Specifically, the data collected from primary, secondary, and high schools that experienced the same change at the same time were utilized to test the hypothesized relationships.

Subsequently, to the best of our knowledge, this study is a pioneering one in exploring emotion within change context in TES and contributed in producing knowledge useful for policy-makers and change-agents in TES in terms of the factors empowering positive and negative emotions and the likely outcomes of change from the perspectives of school practitioners (i.e., teachers).

Moreover, this study is one of the first waves of model testing studies that explored change related antecedents, emotions, attitudes, and behavioral outcome

at the same time in Turkish school context; thus, provided a detailed and holistic picture on the antecedents and outcomes of teachers' change related reactions.

Furthermore, Michaelis, Stegmaier, and Sonntag (2009) underlined a theoretical gap on the mechanism exploring the link between trust in top management and the outcomes like innovation implementation behavior. This study responded to this need in such a way that trust in management was included as an antecedent variable in the tested model. Specifically, in this study, the relationships between trust in management, change-related affect, and attitudes were tested and all these relationships were used to predict the ultimate outcome variable of change implementation behavior. This study, however, went beyond what was suggested by Michaelis et al. (2009) and explored the role of trust in different level management (i.e., school principal & MONE) in this mechanism. Therefore, this study addressed the gap on studies that discriminating the foci of trust and their implications within the change context (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Yang & Mossholder, 2010). More importantly, this study was the first one that tested the relative contribution of trust in MONE and principal in highly centralized TES and provided empirical evidence on the thus far not substantiated role trust in MONE played in empowering change-related affect and attitudes in Turkey. Therefore, this study questioned the relevance of broadly accepted three-layered faculty trust definition of Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) for centralized school systems and added trust in MONE (the decision-making body) as one of the most vital forth reference group in centralized school systems like that of in Turkey.

In terms of research, within the scope of this study two new scales were developed and two previously developed scales were adapted to Turkish. Specifically, context specific trust in principal and trust in MONE scales were developed and they underwent initial validation processes. In addition, Poor Change Management History Beliefs and Innovation implementation Behavior

scales were adapted for Turkish school change context and initial construct validity evidences were presented for the current sample.

In terms of practice, the findings of this study, at least partly, shed light on the mechanism that created change-related teacher reactions and subsequent behaviors and provided detailed information concerning the importance of contextual factors in this process. Therefore, this study put forward some practical information for school principals and policy-makers about the ways of increasing positive reactions and supportive behaviors for the changes designed at the top. This, in turn, was expected to contribute in developing effective change management strategies at both school and system levels.

Moreover, the findings of the present study provided valuable information on the relative contribution of the factors predicting teachers' change implementation behaviors; thus, it provided useful knowledge for immediate and upper level managements regarding the deficient areas they should invest in times of change to ensure change supportive teacher reactions as well.

1.4. Definitions of Terms

The definitions of the terms utilized in this study were presented below.

Emotions were defined as short-lived intense psychological reactions and subsequent actions evoked due to a specific cause and result in a shift in individuals' attention from the non-pressing concerns to the recently pressing one (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Lazarus, 1991).

Attitude towards change was defined as individuals' tendency for feeling, thinking, and behaving for or against the change (Arnold, Cooper, & Robertson, 1995)

Commitment to change was defined as "a force (mind-set) that binds an individual to a course of action deemed necessary for the successful implementation of a change initiative" (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002, p. 475).

Affective commitment to change was defined as individuals' desire to exhibit supportive behaviors for the change efforts because of the accompanied benefits of change (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

Normative commitment to change was defined as individuals' perceived self-obligation to exhibit supportive behaviors for the change efforts (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

Continuance commitment to change was defined as perceived cost associated with failing to exhibit supportive behaviors (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

Job satisfaction was defined as the positive or negative evaluative judgments of an individual about his/her job (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Change history was defined as the accumulation of organizational events in a chronological order and an alive factor that have the potential to shape the future (Pettigrew, Woodman, & Cameron, 2001).

Perceived organizational support (POS) was defined as employees' "general beliefs concerning how much the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001, p. 825).

Trust was defined as "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other party will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the other party" (Mayer, Davis, & Shoorman, 1995, p. 712).

Trust in management was defined as an individual's willingness to be vulnerable to the undesirable outcomes of the decisions or actions of the top management (Stanley, Meyer, & Topolnytsky, 2005).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Though they are generally marginalized, emotions constitute the dark side of today's organizations, particularly the ones under an intense pressure of organizational change. In this part of the study, the two theoretical frameworks that constituted the bases of the hypothesized model, detailed background on the issue of affect within change context and the broader organizational context were presented. Subsequently, change related attitudes with specific focus on commitment to change (affective, normative, and continuous commitment to change) and job-related attitude of job satisfaction were explained within change context in details and emotion and attitude relationship were described. Moreover, the antecedent variables of employees' affective and attitudinal reactions toward organizational change and job satisfaction were introduced and under each section related hypotheses were generated. Furthermore, the outcome variable of change implementation behavior was described in detail and its potential relationships with commitment to change variables and job satisfaction were presented. After presenting the entire antecedent, mediator, and outcome variables of the study, hypothesized model were depicted which showed each separate hypothesized relationships in this study. Finally, an overview of the literature was presented.

2.1. Theoretical Framework of the Study

In this study, to better understand the role of emotions within change context in Turkish schools, Affective Events Theory (AET) of Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) was partly incorporated in the general model of change recipients' reactions of Oreg et al. (2011). In this section, the details of the model and AET were presented.

2.1.1. The model of change recipients' reactions

The model of Oreg et al. (2011) is a broad model aimed to explain the complex relationship between antecedents, individual reactions, and outcomes of organizational change. In this path model, pre-change antecedents (i.e., change recipients' characteristics and internal context) and change antecedents (i.e., change process, perceived benefit/harm, and change content) are counted under the antecedent category. Below is the figure depicting the model of Oreg et al. (2011).

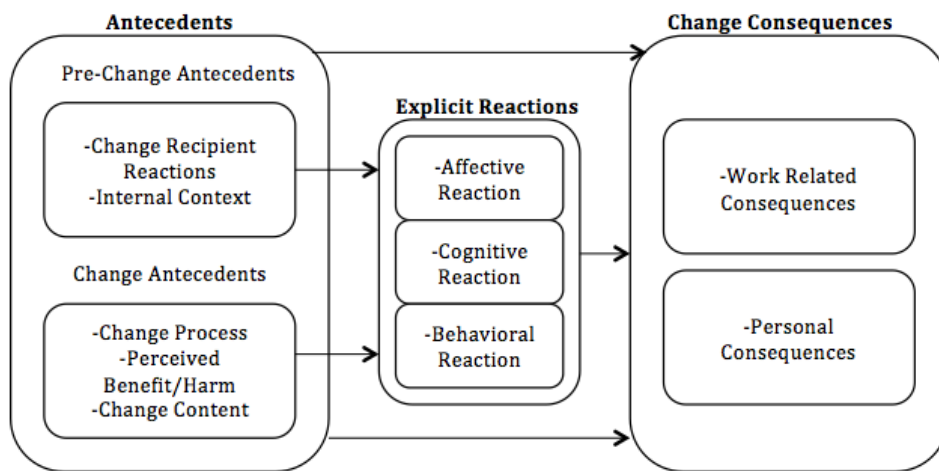


Figure 1. The model of change recipients' reactions. Reprinted from "Change Recipients' Reactions to Organizational Change: A 60-Year Review of Quantitative Studies," by S. Oreg, M. Vakola, and A. Armenakis, 2011, *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Sciences*, 47, p. 466.

As shown in Figure 1, what the antecedent category variables are linked is the explicit reactions and explored under affective, cognitive, and behavioral components. Moreover, explicit reactions are directly linked with individual and organizational outcomes (i.e., work-related consequences and personal consequences) of change, which is the category considered as the indirect and

longer-term outcomes of change. Therefore, the antecedent variables indirectly influence the long-term individual and organizational change outcomes.

In this model, *antecedents* were defined as the reasons of experienced reactions by change recipients and classified into two major categories of pre-change and change antecedents. *Pre-change antecedents* indicate the conditions that are not affected by and remain the same after the change (i.e., change recipients' characteristics and internal context) while *change antecedents* indicate the conditions that are change-specific (i.e., change process, perceived benefit/harm, and change content). As pre-change antecedents, *change recipient characteristics* were defined as the ones that make an individual to be predisposed to exhibit certain reactions toward different changes and *internal context* was defined as the environment in the organization that remained intact after the change implementation. On the other hand, as change antecedents, *process* variables were considered as the ones that focus on the manner the change was implemented; *perceived benefit/harm* variables were defined as the ones about the extent to which recipients assess the proposed change to be personally beneficial or harmful, and *change content* was defined as the type of change the organization is undergoing.

Following Piderit's (2000) tripartite structure for change-related attitudes, the model explored reactions under three broad categories of affect, cognition, and intention. *Affective reactions* are concerned with how individuals feel about the proposed change; *cognitive reactions* are concerned with the perceived benefit and value of the proposed changes for themselves and the organization; and *behavioral reactions* are concerned with individuals' behavioral intentions as response to the proposed changes. While forming the model, the authors cautioned the readers that some other attitudes do not fit any of these three components and called confounded reactions.

In the model, *change consequences*, finally, addressed the post-change attitudes and behaviors of change recipients. *Work-related consequences* focus on

individuals' attitudes and behaviors towards his job and organization following a particular change and *personal consequences* of change focus on the psychological and physiological effects of change on change recipients.

Although the model is useful to understand the complex relationship between antecedents and outcomes of explicit reactions, it can be extended with the inclusion of affective responses towards change which is generally the ignored aspect of organizational change studies (e.g., Brief & Weiss, 2002; Liu & Perrewé, 2005). AET constitutes the theoretical rationale of studying change related affect in between antecedents and attitudes variable sets in this study.

2.1.2. Affective Events Theory (AET)

AET broadly posits that the organizational environment leads affect provoking events, which, in turn, result in subsequent attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (Figure 2). Specifically, the theory proposes that moods and emotions of organizational members stem from work events that have affective significance by the organizational members. What the authors meant with work events is “a change in circumstances, a change in what one is currently experiencing” (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996, p. 31) and these events were referred as hassles and uplifts. *Hassles* are defined as negative-emotion provoking work events, while the *uplifts* are the positive emotion provoking ones (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002). These hassles and uplifts are suggested to mediate the mechanism in which affective work events leads to work attitudes and subsequent behaviors.

Indeed, these hassles and uplifts do not directly lead to emotions. There is a cognitive appraisal process that leads to emotion. Cognitive appraisal theories assert that when an event occurs in the organization that may potentially have some repercussions on individuals' well being, it is firstly evaluated as either positive or negative. This is the first appraisal tied to individuals' goal relevance and goal congruence. However, it is the second appraisal that causes individuals' to feel discrete emotions (that all theories agreed on). Secondary appraisal is the

phase of meaning analysis as it was referred by Smith and Pope (1992) (as cited in Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Here, the authors highlighted that negatively appraised events lead to stronger emotional reactions than the positively appraised ones.

Indeed, the theory posits that affects through the mediating effect of work attitudes, composed of affective and judgmental components, result in judgment-driven behaviors (e.g., turnover). However, affect-driven behaviors are the direct byproducts of experienced emotions (e.g., helping behaviors). *Judgment driven behaviors* were defined as the outcomes of the individual's decision process about their job, which is a longer and rational process (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1999). In other words, judgment driven behaviors are affected by the overall evaluation of one's job; therefore, the relationship between affective reactions and behaviors are mediated by work attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction). On the other hand, *affect driven behaviors* are considered as the ones that are direct byproduct of the affective reactions and have shorter duration with higher variability. In this process, personal dispositions take part as a factor influencing experienced emotions of individuals. All in all, AET is a theory that provides deep insight on how emotions take part in the attitude and behavior formation and highlights the merit of emotions within work context (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002).

According to Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), AET departs from other theories of job satisfaction such that;

1. It concentrates on the structures, reasons, and outcomes of the affective experiences at work environment.
2. It considers work events as the direct causes of the affective responses at work.
3. Time is considered as an important factor in studying affect and satisfaction.

4. It considers the structure of affect since it is a multidimensional construct each of which has different repercussions on individual behaviors.

In this theory, emotion is broadly defined as the “reaction to an event” (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996, p. 18). It is not a trait but shows variations with regard to trait differences and they arise from specific objects. Moods are different from emotions in terms of durability, intensity, being directed at a specific object. But the last is discussed to be the real feature used to distinguish between them. Since emotions are object specific, it is regarded to be more important than moods to study the object, causes and the specific emotional responses to understand the outcomes.

The visual depiction of the AET was presented below.

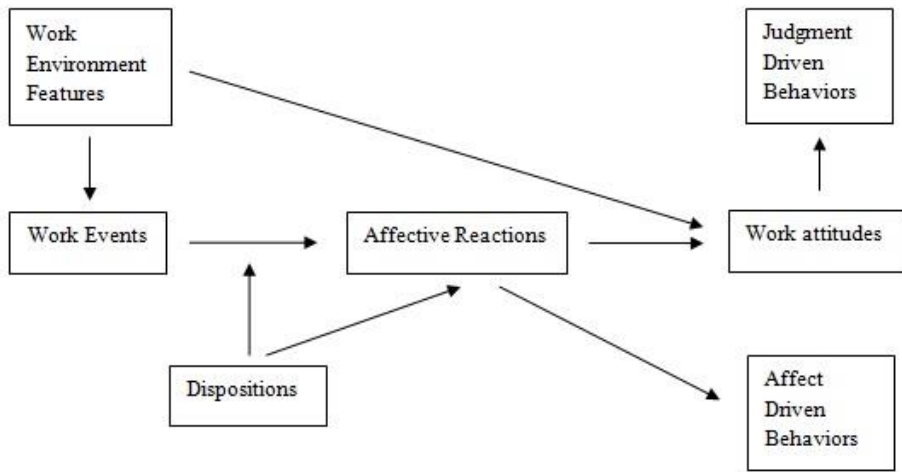


Figure 2. Affective Events Theory: Macro Structure. Reprinted from *Research in Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 18 (p. 12), by B. M. Staw and L. L. Cummings (Eds.), 1996, Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Although job satisfaction was the major attitudinal variable explored with AET, later studies enriched the literature by studying some other attitudinal constructs other than job satisfaction in relation to affect. As well as the progress in the

construct used, later studies guided by AET enriched the field by studying affect in different organizational contexts. Indeed, the theory was particularly designed for intra-organizational events (e.g., stress-related workplace events, physical setting, leader-member relationships etc.) that help or hinder employees to reach organizational goals but it was later adapted to extra-organizational events (e.g., organizational change & economic, legal, and political events) as indicated by Ashton-James and Ashkanasy (2008). Therefore, various other studies utilized AET as their driving theory in their search for the relationship between emotions, attitudes, and behaviors within the change context.

To illustrate, Paterson and Cary (2002) tested a model on the relationship between justice perceptions, emotions, and work attitudes of employees of an organization that underwent downsizing. AET was the guiding theory of the model. The results revealed that change anxiety played a mediating role between the variables of change management procedures and trust in top management, acceptance of change, and employee morale. Moreover, interactional justice perception was found to mediate the relationship between quality of change communication and trust in management. Furthermore, procedural justice was found to mediate the relationship between change management procedures and acceptance of change.

In another study, Mignonac and Herrbach (2004) tested AET with the managers of fourteen private sector organizations and explored the mediating roles of positive and negative affects in the relationship between organizational events and work attitudes of job satisfaction, affective commitment, and continuance commitment. The results clearly revealed that positive and negative organizational events and their impact on employees predicted positive and negative affect states (i.e., pleasure, comfort, anxiety, anger, & tiredness) and some of these affect states predicted their intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, affective commitment, and continuance commitment. However, the mediating role of affect states between organizational events and continuance commitment was not confirmed but other hypothesized relationships were confirmed partially after controlling for the

confounding effects of age, gender, marital status, and number of children. These results provided empirical evidence on the role of affect within organizational context.

By utilizing AET as a theoretical framework, Kiefer (2005) explored the antecedents and outcomes of negative change related employee emotions of an organization that underwent a merger. In this study, number of changes and negative emotions were confirmed to be mediated by working conditions, organizational treatment, and perceived future and personal status variables. Negative emotions, similarly, were found to be the predictors of trust in organization and withdrawal, which were regarded as attitudinal variable and affect-driven behavior respectively in the model.

Similarly, Wegge, van Dick, Fisher, West, and Dawson (2006) conducted a large scale, cross-sectional study to assess the basic assumptions of AET in call-centers in UK. They explored whether work features (i.e., autonomy, participation, supervisory support, employee welfare, & work overload) were significantly related with positive and negative emotions and job satisfaction; whether positive and negative emotions predicted job satisfaction, whether continuance commitment and affective commitment were predicted by job satisfaction and emotions; and whether health complaints were predicted by positive and negative emotions after controlling for the effect of job satisfaction. Almost all results were in the expected direction in such a way that significant relationships were acquired between emotions and job satisfaction and job satisfaction predicted continuance commitment better than emotions. Moreover, emotions and job satisfaction predicted affective commitment almost equally and health complaints were predicted by negative and positive emotions.

In another study, AET was used to explore the relationship between leader behaviors, accompanied emotional reactions, and subsequent attitudes towards the leader and organizational behaviors of employees and immediate supervisors (Dasborough, 2006). The results showed that leader behaviors had repercussions

on employee emotions and transformational leadership resulted in more positive emotions. The results also revealed that positive emotion provoking events also result in more positive attitudes and behaviors like increased motivation and citizenship behavior. On the other hand, some leader behaviors (e.g., low respect & low support) was found to result in increased negative emotions and decreased organizational commitment, and even quitting the job.

Taken together, all these studies clearly suggested that the borders of AET were extended to broader context of organizational change and attitudinal constructs other than job satisfaction were explored in relation to positive and negative emotions (e.g., affective commitment, continuance commitment, trust in management, & withdrawal). Therefore, this theory, at least partly, is expected to contribute in understanding on the mechanism of the mediating role of affect in the relationship between change antecedents, change related and job related attitudes (i.e., affective commitment, continuance commitment, & job satisfaction) and subsequent work-related outcome of change implementation behavior in Turkish school context.

2.2. Change-Related Reactions

In this section, emotions and job-related and change-related attitudes were presented within the context of organizational change.

2.2.1. Change-related emotions

There is a growing body of literature which majorly converge on the point that organizational change is an event that creates emotions on the part of the implementers both in the profit organizations and non-profit organizations and it is these emotions that played a vital role in creation of change related attitudes and resulting behaviors (e.g., Hargreaves, 2004; Kiefer, 2005; Schmidt & Datnow, 2005). Therefore, in this section more detailed information regarding the definition and structure of emotions and their merit in the organizational and change contexts were presented.

2.2.1.1. Definition of emotion

Emotions are basically defined as “reactions to specific, individually meaningful events” (Fineman, 2003, p. 191). More thoroughly, emotions are delineated as short-lived intense psychological reactions and subsequent actions evoked due to a specific cause and result in a shift in individuals’ attention from the non-pressing concerns to the recently pressing one (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Lazarus, 1991).

To better comprehend the meaning of emotion, scholars in the field made some distinctions between often confused terms of affect, discrete emotions, and moods. Affect is referred as the umbrella term, which covers both feeling states (i.e., mood and discrete emotions) and feeling trait (i.e., dispositional affect) (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). However, Lazarus (1991) made a broader discussion on the basis of distinction between mood and acute emotions in his seminal book. The longer time duration that moods endure and the moods being traits rather than states were argued to be misleading in making distinction between moods and acute emotions. Therefore, he recommended distinguishing moods from acute emotions on the basis of the presence of a cause or an emotion-provoking object. That is, both mood and acute emotions are caused by individuals’ appraisals of their connection with the environment but moods relate to the more enduring and existential issues of individual’s life and how it proceeds while acute emotions are more short-lived and immediate and evokes in the “adaptational encounter with the environment” (p. 48). Fisher (2002) provided an example to make the distinction between moods and acute emotions clear as “an individual may describe himself as feeling depressed for no particular reason (mood), or feeling depressed about his financial future upon hearing of a plunge in the stock market (emotion)” (p. 5).

Although the controversy over the definition of emotion continues, scholars have already agreed upon cognitive, motivational, communicative, neurophysiological, and social components of emotions in the work setting (Kiefer & Briener, 2006).

While the cognitive component of emotions entails cognitive appraisals of individuals as the source of emotions, motivational component suggests that different emotions result in different action tendencies. The communicative component of emotions, on the other hand, is the expressive one and speaks of emotions as the way of individual communication of their feelings through the words, gestures, postures, etc. Moreover, the neurophysiological component covers physiological changes accompanied with certain emotions (e.g., heart rate, red-faced, etc.) and subsequent effect of these changes on the way of thinking. Finally, the social component underlines the culturally and socially shaped process of emotions and suggests that individuals learn how to respond through observing others responding in similar situations. Given these components, the authors concluded that different emotions have different causes and different outcomes; thus, they provide much about how organizational members will anticipate and react to the organizational events.

2.2.1.2. Emotions within organizational context

The orthodoxy that organizations are driven by pure rationality has started to fade away with the arousal of emotion research within organizational context. The traditional approach assumes that emotions are illogical and loosely coupled with cognitions; hence, negative emotions have detrimental repercussions on organizations (Kiefer, 2002). Professionalism is even equated with being non-emotional and emotions are not given credence in making important decisions in the work setting (Kiefer & Briner, 2006). Ashforth and Humphrey (1995) presented the ways how rationality (referred as administrative paradigm) differs from emotionality with respect to the orientation to organization (e.g., rationality as technical and objective; emotionality as social and subjective), orientation to means/ends (e.g., outcomes, predictability, and control for rationality; process, spontaneity, and exploration for emotionality), intrapersonal orientation (e.g., cognition, belief, and compliance for rationality; affect, values, and commitment

for emotionality), and interpersonal orientation (e.g., hierarchies and direction for rationality; networks and support for emotionality).

In educational setting, two common misconceptions about emotions are again the clear distinction between emotions and reasoning and ignoring teacher emotions unless they are helpful for accomplishing strategic goals and overcoming resistance to change (Hargreaves, 2005c). Zemblyas (2009) criticized this illogical dichotomy created between the rational and emotional from the feminist theory perspective. The patriarchal thought and power relations were held accountable for the puzzle between rational (equated with masculine) and emotional (equated with feminine). Although emotionality and rationality penetrate each other, these distinctions, partly, explained the reason of why rationality precedes the emotions within organizational context (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995).

Despite this marginalized perspective of past, recent studies conducted in organizational setting emphasized the merit of emotions in the work life. Ashton-James and Ashkanasy (2008) confirmed the significant influence of affect and moods on strategic decision-making and subsequent organizational outcomes. Positive emotions and moods were also found to be supportive of organizational citizenship (e.g., Avey, Wernsing, & Luthans, 2008). Moreover, emotions were substantiated to be positively related with organizational commitment (e.g., Tenhiälä & Lount Jr, 2013) and have repercussions on the judgment driven organizational behaviors like withdrawal or turnover indirectly through attitudinal reactions (e.g., Fugate et al., 2011; Tenhiälä & Lount Jr, 2013). A longitudinal study conducted by Staw, Sutton, and Pelled (1994) also provided support on the long term influences of positive employee emotions on receiving more favorable outcomes and higher pay and more social support from the coworkers and supervisors. Given these study results, overlooking emotions means ignoring an important aspect of employees' experiences with organizational events and result in misleading and inadequate understanding of their responses, particularly in times of organizational change.

2.2.1.3. Emotions and organizational change

Given the emotion provoking nature of change, various research studies confirmed the emotion elicitation of various different organizational change processes including educational changes through different research paradigms. Kiefer (2005) explored emotions caused by a merger through in depth interviews and reported work tasks (e.g., workload, autonomy), personal situation (e.g., job security, status), social relationships (e.g., trust, fairness, and equal treatment), and relationship with organization (e.g., trust in organization, belonging to organization) as the dimensions of employees' emotional experience with the merger. Tenhiälä and Lount Jr (2013) investigated affective reactions towards pay system reform with two sets of quantitative data gathered within two years period and concluded that positive affective reactions towards change predicted voice and through the mediation of commitment predicted lower levels of turnover. On the contrary, negative affective reactions predicted voice and helping behaviors better than the positive ones. In a hospital undergoing shared governance as a change effort, the contributing factors and outcomes of change receivers' emotions and sensemaking were explored with the data collected with different alternative methods (i.e., archival data, expert rating, structured and open-ended surveys) (Bartunek, Rousseau, Rudolph, & DePalma, 2006). The results of the study revealed that perceived gains from the change have the potential to create pleasant feelings. Another longitudinal study conducted in a public organization undergoing restructuring by Fugate et al. (2011) gathered two sets of data at the outset and twelve months after the change was initiated and tested the path of reciprocal influence of negative appraisals and negative emotions on control coping, subsequently intentions to quit, and voluntary turnover at last. The result supported the hypothesized negative relationship between the first two construct sets and the expected positive relationship with voluntary turnover. Though most of the studies were conducted in a certain change context, some studies on emotions were conducted to provide information for the smooth progression of future changes and lacked a certain change focus. Avey et al. (2008), for instance,

tested a model to assess the influence of psychological capital, mindfulness, and positive emotions on employee attitudes and behaviors to reach change facilitating results with a cross-sectional data. The findings supported the mediating role of positive emotions between psychological capital and employee attitudes of engagement and behaviors of organizational citizenship and deviance, but not between psychological capital and cynicism.

In accordance with developments in the issue of affect within organizational change context, this infant field has started to attract the attention of educational change scholars as well. The focal point of this emerging area is majorly on teachers' emotional experiences with mandated changes and the findings mainly converge on the negative emotions expressed related with different aspects of the forced and recurrent changes. Specifically, the study conducted by Hargreaves (2004) through in-depth interviews with elementary and secondary teachers provided insight on teachers' negative emotional reactions towards mandated changes while more positive responses were reported towards self-initiated changes although the origin of these changes were again the management. The sources of these negative emotions were associated with lack of participation and clear information and excessive pressure on teachers to adopt within a short time period without adequate support and resources. A qualitative study by Schmidt and Datnow (2005) revealed interesting findings on the repercussions of comprehensive school reform on schools and classrooms and on personal outcomes of teachers' sense making and emotional reactions. The results indicated that less structured and specified reforms at school setting creates wide range of teacher emotions when compared with the more structured reforms that gives not much room for the change receivers to infer personal meanings. Moreover, when the reform is ill defined and ambiguous, it evokes more negative emotional teacher reactions like the reform efforts at classroom level rather than the school level leading the expression of more emotions (both positive and negative) on the part of the teachers. A recent case study by James and Jones (2008) explored how emotions shape the progress of teacher monitoring system

change in a UK school with the data gathered with different alternative qualitative data collection methods (i.e., observation, interviews, 1-year observation record of change-related events) and questionnaire from teachers and school leadership team. Consistent findings were acquired with other emotion studies within the change context and indicated that the increase in the gap between the espoused and in-use theories in terms of policy development, implementation, and outcomes become the major source of negative emotions and resistance. Another qualitative study by Hargreaves (2005b) sought how teachers' emotional change experiences differ with regard to their age and career stages and found out teachers in their early career seem to be more adaptive and responsive to the new changes and it is discussed that their lack of past change experiences to compare with the new ones might potentially result in inadequate confidence and competence in the implementation and anticipation. Given the consistent findings from different organizational settings, it is reasonable to conclude that change recipients' emotions shed light on the underlying reasons that create change related responses.

Although there is an increasing focus on the issue of affect within organizational context, the dominant approach in research on emotional reactions towards change have some fallacies reported by Kiefer (2002). More specifically, the dominant approach in the literature sticks to the assumption that emotions are pathological to the organizational change and needed to be managed. Moreover, over focus on negative emotions and disregard of the potential positive emotions and their positive outcomes are argued to be the second fallacy in the field. Despite these criticisms, the asymmetry effect of emotions as referred by (Peeters, 2002) suggested that organizational members have the tendency to report negative emotions toward the implemented changes (Kiefer, 2005). The asymmetry effect, more specifically, endeavors to clarify the reason of why individuals pay more attention on negative stimuli than a positive one and individuals concern more about negative events while they are trying to avoid its negative outcomes. Cameron and McNaughtan (2014) raised similar arguments about the dominance

of studies in the literature that overly used negative and problem-focused view toward the changes in the organization. However, it was highlighted that convincing evidence is present to indicate that positive dynamics of organizational change produce desired organizational outcomes (Cameron & McNaughtan, 2014). Taken together, in this study both positive and negative change-related affect was explored in relation to antecedent and outcome variables.

2.2.2. Change-related attitudes

It is discussed by many change scholars that majority of the change efforts fail (Beer & Nohria, 2000a) and this is the case valid for both profit (Burke & Biggart, 1997) and non-profit organizations including schools (George et al., 2007). Then, exploring the reasons that bring about unsuccessful change outcomes is one of the major questions change scholars sought to response. Majority of responses intersects in the common point that the reactions of individuals matter in times of change. Indeed, change efforts imposed on employees create too much change survivors (Duck, 1993; Gravells, 2006) and resistant ones (Burke, 2008). Therefore, it is the individuals in the organization that drive the change to the end of success or failure. Porras and Robertson (1992) underlined merit of individual reactions for the desired change outcomes in their seminal work in such a way that “any successful change will persist over the long term only if, in response to changes in organizational characteristics, members alter their on-the-job behavior in appropriate ways” (p. 724). Woodman and Dewett (2004), similarly, addressed the issue of change failure and noted that desired change outcomes can be achieved by individuals’ on the target of change responding to the demands of the new changes and altering their cognitions, attitudes, and acts accordingly. Therefore, underestimating the micro level of organizational change and individuals’ change-related reactions was criticized as one of the major source of failure of change interventions (George & Jones, 2001).

Attitude towards change was defined as individuals’ tendency for feeling, thinking, and behaving for or against the change (Arnold, Cooper, & Robertson,

1995). Following the nested organizational and group level processes, it is the extent to which all level employees' adopt, support, and be willing to implement the requirements of the change that determine the success of the organizational change (Whelan-Berry et al., 2003). Once formed, attitudes towards change are hard to modify because individuals are selective in their perceptions in such a way that they tend to search for and store information consistent with their attitudes and produce opposing arguments when they get information inconsistent with their attitudes which cause their attitude to get tougher and more extreme (Lines, 2005). That is, attitudes can be managed more effectively at the outset of the change rather than the time they are already formed. For this, information should be shared with the change recipients in order to help them to believe in their ability to implement the requirements of the change (i.e., self-efficacy), feel the superiors' support for the change (i.e., principal support), identify the need for change in the organization (i.e., discrepancy), believe that this specific change is the correct one to fill the identified gap (i.e., appropriateness), and trust the personal and professional benefits of change (i.e., personal valence) (Bernerth, 2004). These aspects are suggested as the pivotal components of change related information transferred to the employees and more importantly, it is this communication that determines individuals' beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors to be for or against the change (Armenakis, Bernerth, Pitts, & Walker, 2007; Bernerth, 2004).

According to Lines (2005), the literature on attitudes towards change could be grouped under four main research streams. The first stream concentrated on the type of change; the second stream concentrated on the process factors; the third stream concentrated on the mediating factors between change and attitudes, and the final stream concentrated on certain change related reactions. However, the major purpose of all these studies was to make sense of the human factor and indicate its significance for the accomplishment of the change efforts.

Bouckenooghe (2009) made a distinction between individuals' positive and negative attitudes towards change. Based on this perspective, resistance to change, cynicism, and coping with change were counted under negative attitudes, while, readiness for change, openness to change, adjustment to change, and commitment to change were referred as positive attitudes towards change.

In terms of negative attitudes, resistance to change is regarded as one of the major causes of change failures (Bolman & Deal, 2003) and stem from insecurity and perceived threat to situated practices in the organization (Zimmerman, 2006).

Cynicism, on the other hand, is referred as negative employee attitude that involves pessimistic opinions regarding the potential positive outcomes brought by the new changes (Wanous et al., 2000); hence, it enhances resisting reactions (Stanley et al., 2005).

Finally, coping with change stands for individuals' cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage the internal and external demands of the change (Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen, & DeLongis, 1986) and the ones who can successfully cope with the change are discussed to be more ready to exhibit supportive behaviors for the change efforts (Cunningham et al., 2002).

When it comes to positive attitudes, openness to change is defined as individuals' eagerness to embrace the change efforts (Wanberg & Banas, 2000) and associated with the supportive behaviors for the sake of the proposed changes (Miller, Johnson, & Grau, 1994).

Subsequent positive attitude of adjustment to change is regarded as a factor that fosters individuals' eagerness to change in the future by supporting learning and development (Martin, Jones, & Callan, 2005); however, poor adjustment is associated with negative feelings including insecurity, anxiety, and stress (Ashford, 1988).

Similarly, readiness for change suggests positive employee beliefs in their potential and efficacy for the successful change interventions (Weiner, 2009) and defined as the cognitive state to either resist or support for a change effort (Armenakis et al., 1993).

Finally, commitment to change is the other positive employee attitude that is suggested to be one of the best predictors of supportive behaviors for the change efforts (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Since commitment to change is the major attitudinal construct explored in this study, it was explained in a more detailed way in the subsequent section.

2.2.2.1. Commitment to change

Following the definition of organizational commitment, *commitment to change* was defined as “a force (mind-set) that binds an individual to a course of action deemed necessary for the successful implementation of a change initiative” (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002, p. 475). Indeed, change commitment means more than showing desired propensity for the proposed changes like openness or acceptance, it rather “represents a psychological alignment with, or attachment to the change” (Herold, Fedor, Caldwell, & Liu, 2008, p. 347). This attitude manifests itself in three forms (a) affective commitment to change; (b) normative commitment to change; (c) continuance commitment change (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Accordingly, the authors explained these three forms of commitment as individuals’ desire to exhibit supportive behaviors for the change efforts because of the accompanied benefits of change (*affective commitment to change*), individuals’ perceived self obligation to exhibit supportive behaviors for the change efforts (*normative commitment to change*), and perceived cost associated with failing to exhibit supportive behaviors (*continuance commitment to change*) (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). In short, these three forms of change commitment indicate that individuals comply with the change “because they want to, have to, and/or ought to” (p. 475). Although all these three forms of commitment make employees to execute the basic requirements of the change, it

was concluded that affective and normative commitment to change make employees to go beyond and exhibit cooperative and championship behaviors, which are the two forms of discretionary support behaviors for the change (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). In addition, although continuance commitment is a factor that increases change compliance, it was also found to be a factor reducing discretionary change supportive behaviors (Meyer, Srinivas, Lal, & Topolnytsky, 2007).

Given the arguments of Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) that the origin and outcomes of three forms of organizational commitment are different, Parish, Cadwallader, and Busch (2008) explored strategy and role factors as the predictors of three commitment types and substantiated that different commitment types have different antecedents. More specifically, they explored fit of the organizational change with strategic vision, quality of relationship with the manager, motivation, and role autonomy as the predictors of three types of commitment to change in a transportation department of a university undergoing various managerially designed changes, including service process redesign and technology implementation. It was hypothesized that affective and normative change commitment are positively and continuance change commitment is negatively related with these variables. Their hypotheses were partly supported in such a way that affective commitment were related with all predictors, normative commitment was related with fit with vision and relationship quality, and continuance commitment was related with relationship quality and role autonomy negatively and fit with vision positively. Also, organizational learning, success, and performance were studied as the outcome variables and results revealed that affective and normative commitment both led to learning, success, and performance.

Similarly, Cunningham (2006) explored the mediating role of coping with change in the relationship between three change commitment types and turnover intentions of employees of 10 different organizations undergoing large-scale

change. The results showed that change coping mediates the relationship between affective and continuance commitment variables and turnover intentions in the expected way. More specifically, employees who reported to have higher affective commitment and lower continuance commitment also reported to higher coping and lower turnover. Moreover, normative commitment and continuance commitment were found to have direct repercussions on turnover in opposite directions; that is, higher normative commitment and lower continuance commitment directly predicted lower turnover on the part of the employees.

In another study conducted by Neves and Caetano (2009), affective and continuance change commitment were explored as the antecedents of perceived performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover intentions through the mediating role of trust in supervisor of employees working at 19 different organizations undergoing significant change. The results revealed that trust in supervisor mediates the relationship between affective commitment and three work-related outcome variables in such a way that increase in affective change commitment was related with increase in trust in supervisor, which in turn, results in an increment in performance and organizational citizenship behavior but decrement in turnover intentions. However, continuance change commitment was found to be unrelated with trust in supervisor measured after the change implementation.

In another study, however, a personality variable of locus of control was studied in relation to three forms of commitment to change in an organization undergoing a change in the performance appraisal system (Chen & Wang, 2007). The results supported all three hypotheses proposed that the ones who have internal locus of control also reported to have higher affective and normative commitment to change while the ones who have external locus of control also reported to have higher continuance change commitment. Therefore, to accomplish change, managers were concluded to develop different methods to foster employees' affective, normative, and continuance change commitments.

Given that affective commitment to change is a factor more effective in fostering change supportive behaviors than the other two forms of commitment, some studies explored affective commitment to change as their major variable in their study. To illustrate, a qualitative study through semi-structured interviews was conducted with bank managers and employees to investigate the importance of affective change commitment and the factors that support it during customer relationship management change (Shum, Bove, & Auh, 2008). Some of the factors that foster affective commitment were concluded to be an organizational culture that support teamwork and create supportive environment, sufficient and regular training, and open communication of change-related information. The participants of the study also underlined the vital role of affective change commitment for desired change outcomes.

Accordingly, with the same rationale, another study investigates how well organizational justice perceptions of employees of an organization undergoing spin-off predict affective commitment to change and organizational cynicism and the moderating role of organizational cynicism between justice perceptions and affective change commitment after controlling for the age and years in the organization (Bernerth, Armenakis, Feild, & Walker, 2007). The results revealed that distributive justice contributes in the prediction of affective change commitment. Besides, organizational cynicism was found to play a moderating role between justice perceptions and affective commitment in such a way that for the ones reported to have high cynical attitudes toward their organization, the increase in positive justice perception causes not a dramatic increase in affective change commitment; however, for the ones with low organizational cynicism, interactional, procedural, and distributive justice perceptions are associated with greatly higher affective change commitment.

Subsequently, another study explored how well transformational leadership, change-specific leadership, impact of change on job variables predict affective change commitment after controlling for affective organizational commitment of

employees of thirty different organizations undergoing organizational change (Herold et al., 2008). The multilevel analysis results showed that although transformational leadership was a significant predictor of affective change commitment, change-specific leadership was not. Moreover, the moderating roles of the change impact and specific change leadership variables were assessed in the relationship between transformational leadership and affective change commitment. The results revealed that when the impact was high, regardless of the change leadership, the more transformational leadership was reported; the more affective change commitment was concluded. However, when the impact was low, positive relationship was concluded between affective commitment and transformational leadership only in the condition of low change leadership. All these findings suggested that transformational leadership is vital in fostering affective change commitment, which is particularly valid for the cases when change impacts employees' jobs to a great extent and when the leader does appropriately lead the change. In such cases, how the leader behaves on a regular basis and the trust built between two parties come into play.

In addition to the private sector, public sector, particularly schools, encountered the challenge of organizational change and teacher commitment has been considered as the essential element of school capacity for the changes (Geijsel, Slegers, Leitwood, & Tantzi, 2003). In this study, based on the study of Ford (1992) on motivational processes, the authors proposed that commitment is a vital element of teacher motivation and it is this motivational process that based on the evaluations on the fit between personal goals and the environmental circumstances, beliefs about the personal capacity to accomplish the goals, beliefs about the internal context (e.g., support, prior change experiences, leadership), and emotional arousal. The degree of fit was suggested as the source of the necessary moving force for continuous change-supportive behaviors. In this study, Canadian and Dutch teachers' commitment to change measured in terms of the aforementioned dimensions and its relationship were explored in relation to transformational leadership and two outcome variables (i.e., participation in

decision making and professional development activities) in two separate models. Overall, the results revealed that transformational leadership in times of change is a significant predictor of teacher commitment and to make extra effort for the change at both classroom and school level in both cultures. However, commitment was also found to mediate the positive relationship between transformational leadership and outcome variables.

Another study conducted in a non-western culture also explored the relationship between transformational leadership and teachers' change commitment with the mediator variables of culture, structure, and environment of school and change strategies (Yu, Leithwood, & Jantzi, 2002). In this study, the aforementioned motivation-based framework of change commitment was used in Chinese school context. In accordance with the previous studies, it was found that transformational leadership and school conditions predicted teacher commitment. In this study, school conditions were operationalized as collaborative and supportive school culture; change strategies which allow teachers to have the initiative to develop plans for classroom and school improvement; school structure which utilized distributed leadership and participatory decision making; and school environment in which change efforts are supported. The study results also revealed that school conditions also empower teachers' change commitment. A striking finding of the study was that school conditions had dramatically higher influence on teachers' change commitment than the influence of transformational leadership but transformational leadership had greater influence on teachers' beliefs on school conditions.

Taken together, the literature signifies that affective commitment to change is a topic that received more scholarly interest than the other two commitment forms (i.e., normative commitment and continuance commitment). However, the literature also indicated that each form of change commitment have different bases and repercussions for both employee and organization. Moreover, it is logical to reach the conclusion that transformational leadership, supportive and

collaborative school culture, and just change implementations are the major variables that have great influence on individuals' change commitment. Indeed, building trust-based and communication-based relationships can take longer time than that managers have during the change process; therefore, lack of support, trust and justice may potentially result in employees not to go beyond the basic requirements of change and not to develop affective and normative commitment (Meyer et al., 2007). According to Parish et al. (2008), continuance commitment stems from external pressure to comply with the change since employees perceive that they have no choice but supporting the proposed change and recognize the cost caused by exhibiting non-supportive behavior. Therefore, it is a form of commitment developed not with inner motivation but with external pressure. Cunningham (2006), similarly, discussed that continuance change commitment have the potential to be a source of stress on the part of the employees and this, in turn, may result in an increase in negative change outcome expectancies. Given that continuance commitment has different antecedents and different implications, there is still a need for empirical studies to substantiate its role for the desired change outcomes (Parish et al., 2008). The gap for the continuance change commitment was also stressed for the whole model of change commitment in the literature.

Although commitment to change is regarded as an integral part of organizational change efforts that better predict employees' change supportive behaviors than organizational commitment, the literature signifies dearth of empirical studies substantiated these arguments (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Meyer et al., 2007). Besides, scholars also reported paucity of research concerning the mechanism that forms commitment to change attitude although some speculations made regarding the factors that cause its arousal and its potential outcomes (Cunningham, 2006; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Meyer et al., 2007). In order to respond to these needs in the literature, in this study, antecedents of affective, normative, and continuance commitment to change were explored and the relative importance of

three commitment to change forms on change implementation behavior were presented.

2.2.2.1.2. Affect and commitment to change relationship

Based on the basic premises of AET, one of the major purposes of this study was to explore the nature of the relationship between change-related positive and negative affect and three forms of commitment to change. Indeed, the theory clearly posited that affect is the antecedent of work attitudes. However, the literature which explored the affect and change commitment is still infant; therefore, this part of the literature partly concentrated on studies that explored affect in relation to organizational commitment.

Ashkanasy and Daus (2002) underlined that AET is a theory that shows the mechanism of which attitudes and behaviors formed and vital role of affect in creating such reactions. However, they extended the model by adding commitment as a work attitude directly affected by the experienced emotions. Therefore, various other scholars explored the direct relationship between organizational and change related commitment and experienced emotions. To illustrate, Fisher (2002) tested the mechanism proposed by AET by incorporating all variable sets predicting affect, attitudes, and behaviors. In this model, the hypothesis that positive work-related affect experienced by employees of 65 different organizations predict affective organizational commitment was supported. Although the role of negative affect was not tested in the hypothesized model, she tested the relationship between experienced negative emotions and affective organizational commitment in an alternative model and found out non-significant relationship. Therefore, she substantiated that positive attitudes are the by-products of positive evaluations, which were operationalized as the experienced emotions in this study.

In another study, on the other hand, both positive and negative affect experienced due to the hassles and uplifts in the organization were explored in relation to

affective and continuance organizational commitment after controlling for the age, gender, marital status, and number of children (Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004). The participant employees were selected from 14 different organizations. As presented before, affect state experiences were hypothesized to significantly contribute in the prediction of affective and continuance commitment to organization. The results indicated that hassles and uplifts; in other words, negative and positive organizational events, were found to predict both positive and negative affect states respectively but negative events were found to have greater impact on experienced emotions than the positive ones. Moreover, the results indicated that pleasure felt due to organizational events was found to be related with affective organizational commitment while anxiety felt was found to be related with continuance commitment. However, the impact was larger for the affective commitment; which suggested that continuance organizational commitment is an attitude more related with the cognitive evaluations rather than the affect states.

Another study conducted in a call center with the participation of 85 call-center employees provided contradictory findings with the ones presented above (Wegge et al., 2006). In this study, the basic premises of AET was tested in such a way that work features of autonomy, opportunities for participation, supervisory support, and welfare were assessed as the predictors of positive and negative emotions at work. Moreover, job satisfaction, affective and continuance commitment, and health complaints were assessed in relation to work features and emotional variables. The authors provided empirical evidence on the relationship between emotion and organizational commitment in such a way that both affective and continuance commitment were found to be correlated with positive work related emotions and only affective commitment was found to correlate with negative emotions with opposing signs. However, the correlation between job satisfaction and continuance commitment to be higher than that between positive emotions and continuance commitment suggested that continuance commitment is rather a cognitively driven construct than being affectively driven.

A recent study conducted by Shepherd, Patzelt, and Wolfe (2011) also explored negative emotions accompanied with the project failure in relation to affective organizational commitment of scientists selected from twelve research institutes. Broadly the purpose of the study was to investigate whether the time passed after the project failure, coping orientation of organizational members, and failure normalizing organizational atmosphere were related with experienced negative emotions, which in turn, was expected to have repercussions on affective organizational commitment and whether coping orientations and perceived normalizing environment of the organization were related with learning from project failure. Results revealed that individuals' negative emotions stemming from project failure was negatively related with affective organizational commitment. Also, individuals were concluded to experience less negative emotions in the organizations of which project failure is considered normal. Moreover, the ones with more restoration orientation as a coping strategy was also reported have lower negative emotions.

In addition to the studies based on AET that explored the relationship between work-related emotions and organizational commitment, limited number of studies also explored the same relationships within change context.

To illustrate, based on AET, a longitudinal study was conducted with the participation of employees working in the headquarters of an organization undergoing a major structural change and accompanied procedural changes (Seo et al., 2012). In this study, the initial data collection took place immediately after the change implementation and second phase took place twelve months later. It was hypothesized that employees' positive and negative change-related affect were related with their affective and normative change commitment in Time 1 and these commitments in Time 1 were related with their behavioral responses and change commitment in Time 2 (i.e., supportive, resistance, & creative). Moreover, in addition to the mediating role of change commitment in Time 1, it was also hypothesized that positive and negative affect in Time 1 was also directly related

with behavioral responses in Time 2. The final hypothesis was that transformational leadership of manager in Time 1 was also related with positive affect, negative affect, and change commitments (i.e., affective and normative) in Time 1. After controlling for the tenure, perceived impact of change, and organizational commitment, multilevel analysis was run and results indicated that positive affect in Time 1 positively predicted affective and normative commitment to change but negative affect predicted affective and normative change commitment in Time 2. As expected, normative commitment in Time 1 predicted all three behavioral change outcomes while affective commitment only predicted creative behavior for the change measured in Time 2. An interesting finding of the study was that both positive and negative affect in Time 1 predicted behavioral support for the change in Time 2 directly. Transformational leadership, similarly, predicted two affect states in opposing directions and change related commitments in Time 1 positively. The results suggested that positive affect have direct repercussions on change related attitudes and through the mediating role of these attitudes they affected behavioral outcomes in the long run. However, negative change-related affects influence affective and normative commitments negatively in the long run.

Another longitudinal study also investigated the role of affect in predicting change commitment and subsequent behavioral change outcomes in a non-western Korean culture with the participation of employees and managers of an organization undergoing restructuring (Shin, Taylor, & Seo, 2012). The model partly hypothesized that organizational inducements and psychological resilience measured in Time 1 (three weeks before the change implementation and after employees were informed about it) are factors that directly and positively influence state positive change-related affect, which in turn result in significant and positive improvement in normative and continuance commitment to change measured in Time 2 (five months later). Moreover, these two attitudes were hypothesized to demonstrate positive relationship with behavioral and creative support for the change measured in Time 2 and negative relationship with

turnover in Time 3 (twenty two months later). As expected, the results revealed that organizational inducements and psychological resilience predicted state positive affect positively and positive affect played mediating role in predicting affective and normative change commitment. Two change commitments predicted behavioral and creative support for the change but only normative commitment was found to predict turnover in the organization.

Taken together, all these studies substantiated potential relationship between affect and commitment attitude. In change context, this relationship was empirically presented as well. Since studies conducted did not provide consistent results for the effects of positive and negative emotions on affective, normative, and continuance change commitments, in this study all paths were explored to provide empirical evidence for Turkish school change context. Based on the premises of AET, in this study it was hypothesized that;

Hypothesis 1a: Change-related positive affect experienced by teachers was related with affective and normative commitment to change positively and continuance commitment to change negatively; however, the relationships were expected to be stronger for affective and normative commitment than that for continuance commitment.

Hypothesis 1b: Change-related negative affect experienced by teachers was related with affective and normative commitment to change negatively and continuance commitment to change positively; however, the relationships were expected to be stronger for affective and normative commitment than that for continuance commitment.

2.2.3. Job-related attitudes/Job satisfaction

Job-related attitudes are of great importance since “they are the vehicles by which individuals demonstrate their value to the organization and develop self-referent estimates of esteem and efficacy” (Mossholder, Settoon, Armenakis, & Harris, 2000, p. 125). Although employees develop attitudes towards various different

aspects of their jobs, job satisfaction is the one that most attracted the attention of scholars (Saari & Judge, 2004). In this study, job satisfaction was the job-related attitude explored in relation to antecedents, positive and negative affect, and implementation behavior within the change context in TES.

2.2.3.1. Definition of job satisfaction

Locke (1969) defined *job satisfaction* as “the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one’s job values” (p. 316); thus, job satisfaction was considered as the function of what one expect from his job and his perceptions about what the job offers him. Job satisfaction, therefore, was associated with both the individual himself and the job itself. Locke (1970) also described *job satisfaction* as the degree of fit between individual appraisal of his work and his standards and values of good or bad. Indeed, the value appraisal process was suggested to entail two estimates; one of which was the fit between the desired and obtained values and the other was the position of that value in the hierarchy of one’s values.

Besides the position that views job satisfaction as an affective reaction towards one’s job, some other scholars defined it as an attitudinal construct. Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) criticized the inappropriate definitions of job satisfaction since these definitions treated affect and attitude equally and they defined *job satisfaction* as the positive or negative evaluative judgments of an individual about his/her job. Therefore, it was regarded as the combination of individual emotions experienced at work and the beliefs about his job. Moreover, Weiss (2002) also highlighted the need to make a clear distinction between affect and attitude since both have different antecedents and outcomes and reached the conclusion that job satisfaction as an evaluative judgment has the potential to have belief and affect bases. Mignonac and Herrbach (2004) supported the affective and cognitive bases of attitudes by highlighting that “attitudes are influenced both by cognitive appraisals of the work environment features and by affective states at work” (p. 225). Unlike the accepted tripartite structure of attitudes, behavioral

dimension does not manifest itself in job satisfaction attitude because it is generally considered as the reason or the outcome of this attitude itself (Niklas & Dormann, 2005). Similar arguments were raised by Fisher (2000) as well. She indicated that although it is generally treated equally with affect, job satisfaction is an attitudinal construct that has affective and cognitive bases. In addition, she also criticized the literature in that although job satisfaction has affective bases, it is generally measured as largely a cognitive construct. She went one step further and empirically substantiated the distinction between real time affect and job satisfaction with a sample of 124 employees from 65 different organizations. She utilized experience sampling methodology and measured real time affect of participants for two weeks period. In this study, the results of multilevel analyses revealed that distinct positive and negative emotions and aggregated positive and negative emotions are uniquely and with opposing signs contributed in the prediction of job satisfaction. In this study, job satisfaction was measured as an attitudinal construct and its change-related affect and cognitive bases were explored and empirical findings were presented for the distinction between affect and job satisfaction.

Since this study explored job satisfaction within change context, in the subsequent section the correlates of job satisfaction within change context and its relationship with change related attitudes were described in a detailed way.

2.2.3.2. Job satisfaction in the organizational change context

Job satisfaction is a variable that received much scholarly concern within change context since it is considered as highly relevant variable that indicates employee adjustment within unstable organizational context like organizational change (Rafferty & Griffin, 2006). Indeed, organizational change is generally considered as one of the most visible reasons of emotional exhaustion and lowered job satisfaction on the part of the change implementers (e.g., Miller, Ellis, Zook, & Lyles, 1990; Schweiger & Denisi, 1991). One of the latest reviews of change-related reactions clearly indicated that job satisfaction is a variable majorly

studied as an outcome of change-related reactions (Oreg et al., 2011). However, AET went one step further and posited that job satisfaction is a priori step before judgment driven behaviors. In this study, job satisfaction was also studied as the outcome of change-related affect but predictor of implementation behavior. Therefore, it acted as both the outcome and the predictor in this study.

Within change context, majority of studies utilized job satisfaction as an outcome variable, as stated before. To illustrate, Begley and Czajka (1993) investigated the moderating role of organizational commitment in the relationship between change-related stress and job displeasure of employees of a hospital undertaking consolidation and accompanied layoffs and tightened budget. Job displeasure was operationalized as the combination of job satisfaction, intention to quit, and health variables. The data were collected before the change was initiated and three months later from the first wave (after 2 weeks of change initiation). The findings of the study indicated that organizational commitment buffered the effect of change on employees in such a way that for the ones with low commitment, increase in stress level was associated with increased job displeasure; however, for the ones with high commitment stress didn't have significant effect on job displeasure.

In another study conducted by Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, and Welbourne (1999), a dispositional perspective was utilized and positive self-concept and risk tolerance were explored in relation to coping with change of managers of 6 different sector organizations undergoing various large-scale changes. Two groups of variables were explored as the outcomes of this relationship; extrinsic outcomes (i.e., salary, job level, plateauing, & job performance) and intrinsic outcomes (i.e., organizational commitment & job satisfaction). The results showed that coping partially mediates the hypothesized relationships in such a way that managers better oriented with the change also showed better coping skills, which in turn resulted in at least partly higher job satisfaction.

Similarly, Wanberg and Banas (2000) explored openness to change as the mediator of the relationship between personal resilience (i.e., self-esteem, optimism, & perceived control) and context-specific variables (i.e., information, participation, change-self efficacy, social support, & personal impact) and four outcome variables (i.e., job satisfaction, work-related irritation, intention to quit, & actual turnover) after controlling for the effect of age and education of 133 employees of an organization that undertook major restructuring. Results revealed that although contextual variables did not predict job satisfaction, change acceptance (a sub-dimension of openness to change) was a significant mediator; but openness to change was not. The authors, then, tested the moderating role of participation between resilience and job satisfaction and found out that for the ones reported high participation in the change process, increase in resilience was associated with increase in job satisfaction. That is, participation creates variation in the relationship between resilience and job satisfaction.

Another longitudinal study conducted by Axtell et al. (2002) also explored job satisfaction as an outcome variable. In this study, how well exposure to change, time, occupational group, and job complexity predicted the outcome variables of openness to change, job satisfaction, depression, and anxiety was explored. The sample of the study composed of employees of an organization that started to implement new technology. The initial findings indicated that exposure to change was a significant predictor of job satisfaction of organizational members; however, when job complexity was added in the analyses as control variable, the results suggested that it is the job complexity that accounted for by the variation in job satisfaction, not exposure to change. Therefore, it was concluded that enriched and more complex job is needed after the change process for increased employee satisfaction.

Besides, Bordia, Hunt, Paulsen, Tourish, and DiFonzo (2004) tested a model with a sample of 222 employees of a hospital that undertook major restructuring. In this model, job satisfaction was tested as an outcome of quality of change

communication and psychological strain and the precursor of turnover intentions. The results empirically substantiated the hypothesized relationships in such a way that quality of change communication with and psychological strain (i.e., emotional exhaustion) experienced by the employees were found to be directly related with job satisfaction positively and negatively respectively. As expected, negative direct relationship was found between job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Therefore, when employees are more informed about and feel more familiar with the change, they feel more satisfied with and intent to retain their job.

In addition, Martin et al. (2005) tested a model in a public organization that undertook a large-scale change including downsizing and new team implementations. The model, which aimed to present the direct and indirect relationship (via change appraisal variables of change stress, change self-efficacy, & change control) between psychological climate (i.e., patient care, employee relationships, & supervisor support) and outcome variables of change adjustment (i.e., job satisfaction & psychological well-being), was tested with 779 employees from the same organization. The results showed that psychological climate variables have direct repercussions on job satisfaction of employees while employees' change-related self-efficacy also mediated this direct relationship. Thus, the ones who perceived positive change climate also felt higher change-related confidence to deal with the demands of the new change, which in turn was associated with higher job satisfaction.

A longitudinal study was conducted by Paulsen et al. (2005) to develop a model on the direct and indirect relationships between job uncertainty, personal control, and employee adjustment, which was operationalized as job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion. Moreover, the change in these variables were measured in three time points; that is, in the pre-implementation, implementation, and post-implementation phases of change. Data were collected from the employees of a hospital that undertook restructuring and subsequent downsizing and

decentralization following the changes initiated by the government. After controlling for the effects of age, gender, tenure, employment status, and work unit, the results showed that job uncertainty is significantly but negatively related with job satisfaction in all change phases. Moreover, in the anticipation and implementation phases (for the survivors group only) personal control fully mediated the relationship between job uncertainty and job satisfaction but partially mediating role was concluded for the final phase of the change. The results also substantially indicated that job satisfaction of employees in the pre-change period was significantly lower than that in the subsequent two change stages. To sum up, in the anticipation and implementation phases, when employees feel to be more informed about the change also reported higher personal control over the change, which in turn was associated with higher job satisfaction but the effect of personal control was less visible in the post-implementation phase of change.

Another longitudinal study that included job satisfaction as both the control variable and outcome variable and explored the predictive role of event characteristics (i.e., participation, leadership effectiveness, & change communication), appraisal variables (i.e., self-efficacy & stress), coping strategies (i.e., problem-focused and avoidance coping) and the outcome variables of identification with the new merged organization and job satisfaction (Amiot, Terry, Jimmieson, & Callan, 2006). The Time 1 data was collected three months after the merger of two airline companies and Time 2 data was collected 2 years later. Outcome variables and coping strategies were the variables measured in Time 2. A sample made up of 220 employees was utilized to test the hypothesized relationships. The results showed that problem-focused coping mediated the relationship between change appraisal and job satisfaction of employees. That is, the ones who perceived higher confidence in dealing with the demands of the change and experienced lower stress reported higher engagement in proactive coping strategies with the problems about the change, which in turn was associated with higher job satisfaction.

Similarly, following the same theoretical base, Rafferty and Griffin (2006) conducted a longitudinal study in which they investigated the direct and indirect relationships between change characteristics (i.e., frequency, effect, & planning), uncertainty, and the outcome variables of job satisfaction and turnover intentions in a public organization that changed its popular and supported Direct-General. The Time 1 data was collected one-month prior the change and Time 2 data was collected one year after. Outcome variables were measured in the second wave of data collection. After controlling for the effect of coping mechanisms (i.e., neuroticism, leader support, & conscientiousness) and individual characteristics (i.e., age & seniority), the study results indicated that uncertainty mediated the relationships between change characteristics of frequency and planning and job satisfaction. That is, increase in the number of changes in the organization and lack of adequate priori planning were associated with higher uncertainty which, in turn, was associated with lower job satisfaction. However, change frequency and effect were concluded to have no direct repercussions on job satisfaction.

Another study conducted by Oreg (2006) treated job satisfaction as an affect based reaction and tested a path model in which he explored the mediating role of affective, cognitive, and behavioral dimension of resistance to change in the relationship between personality (i.e., dispositional resistance) and contextual variables (change outcome variables of power and prestige, job security, & intrinsic rewards and change process variables of trust in management, information, & social influence) and outcome variables (job satisfaction, intention to quit, & continuance commitment to organization). The data was collected from 177 managers and employees of an organization that experienced merger followed by a change in organizational structure to be a matrix design. It was concluded that affective resistance was positively related with dispositional resistance and social influence and negatively related with job security, intrinsic reward, and trust in management and it is this affective reaction that was found to be negatively related with job satisfaction after controlling for the effect of age and managerial position held. As hypothesized, the other two resistance

dimensions were concluded to be non-related with job satisfaction in this study which supporter the author's argument about job satisfaction to be affect based.

Contrary to the studies that explored job satisfaction as an outcome variable, a study conducted by Yousef (2000) treated it as a predictor variable of change-related attitudes. Moreover, in this study no specific change context was utilized and employees' general change-related attitudes were queried. Also, instead of general job satisfaction, satisfaction with some job facets was measured. The participants of the study comprised of 550 organizational members of 30 different organizations from United Arab Emirates. The results showed that affective and continuance commitment majorly mediated the relationship between job satisfaction facets and attitudes towards change in three dimensions; however, normative commitment was not found to mediate these relationships. Furthermore, satisfaction in the facets of pay and promotion were found to be related with cognitive and affective attitudes towards change respectively.

Taken together, change literature clearly revealed that majority of studies utilized job satisfaction as an outcome variable and it was majorly studied in relation to attitudes of coping, openness, and resistance to change. Within the change context, it was concluded to be a variable influenced by participation, communication, support, unknown caused by the change, and positive climate in the organization. Moreover, it was clear from the literature search that job satisfaction is an attitude positively related with positive change-related attitudes and negatively related with change-related attitudes with negative connotation. Moreover, although some studies explored direct relationship between change-related attitudes and job satisfaction, some studies treated change-related attitudes and job satisfaction as independent constructs and explored their relationships with some other antecedent variables independently.

In this study, job satisfaction and commitment to change were also treated as independent but correlated constructs based on the still unresolved discussion in the literature (Fisher, 2002). That is, the findings on the relationship between job

satisfaction and commitment are still inconsistent in such a way that three groups of findings emerged when the literature was searched for the outcome variable of withdrawal (Tett & Meyer, 1993). The first group indicated no causal relationship between the two constructs (e.g., Curry, Wakefield, Price, & Mueller, 1986) but Mathieu and Zajac (1990) highlighted the correlation between affective commitment and job satisfaction; the second group indicated that job satisfaction is the precursor of commitment (e.g., Williams & Hazer, 1986), and the final group asserted that commitment is the precursor of job satisfaction (e.g., Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Vandenberg & Lance, 1992). Martin and Bennett (1996) also added reciprocal relationship between job satisfaction and commitment as the fourth group of research in this classification. This fourth view was supported by Farkas and Tetrick (1989) who discussed that the relationship between commitment and job satisfaction can be cyclical; that is, they may influence each other reciprocally.

Considering the premises of AET and inconsistent findings in the literature, both constructs were treated independently and equally in this study in such a way that antecedents and outcomes of the study were explored in relation to each one independently and no causal path was inserted between them. However, based on the study of Fisher (2002) and the review of Mathieu and Zajac (1990), affective commitment to change and job satisfaction were allowed to covary in the model tested in this study.

2.2.3.2.1. Affect and job satisfaction relationship

AET clearly posits that job satisfaction is an attitudinal construct that is directly tied to the experienced emotions by the organizational members (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Moreover, one of the latest meta-analysis conducted about the relationship between affectivity and job satisfaction showed that both positive and negative affectivity have influence on job satisfaction with the superior influence of positive affectivity (Conolly & Viswesvaran, 2000). Accordingly, the literature

empirically substantiated the relationship between trait and state affect and job satisfaction within the change context and the broader organizational context.

To illustrate, the study conducted by a small sample of 24 middle level managers working in the same organization investigated the predictive roles of moods and beliefs about the job in job satisfaction of employees (Weiss, Nicholas, & Daus, 1999). The data was collected four times a day for a period of 16 days, which gave out 64 measurements of mood states. The results indicated that pleasantness dimension of moods is the significant predictor of overall job satisfaction of employees. Moreover, the results showed that both moods and beliefs about the job (operationalized as valence-instrumentality-expectancy) independently contributed in the prediction of job satisfaction. The findings also revealed that daily moods also played a mediating role between dispositional happiness and job satisfaction in such a way that it has no direct effect on job satisfaction. Although the study had limited power due to small sample size, the significance and effect sizes were high to draw a preliminary understanding on the value of affective reactions on job satisfaction.

Similarly, Mignonac and Herrbach (2004) tested AET with the managers of 14 private sector organizations and explored the mediating roles of positive and negative affects in the relationship between organizational events and work attitudes of job satisfaction, affective commitment, and continuance commitment. The results clearly revealed that positive and negative organizational events and their impact on employees predicted their positive and negative affect states (i.e., pleasure, comfort, anxiety, anger, & tiredness) and some of these affect states predicted their intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction, affective commitment, and continuance commitment.

Judge and Illies (2004) also confirmed affect-satisfaction relationship in their study. They investigated whether positive and negative moods mediated the relationship between trait positive and negative affect and job satisfaction and whether the relationship between positive and negative mood with job satisfaction

were in the expected direction to be positive and negative respectively. Through experience sampling methodology, the researchers collected data 3 times a day for a duration of 2 weeks. The findings of the study signified that positive and negative mood predicted job satisfaction in the expected direction with the relatively greater contribution of positive mood and moods were also partially mediated the relationship between trait positive affect and job satisfaction.

Similarly, a cross-sectional study conducted by Wegge et al. (2006) assessed the basic assumptions of AET in call-centers in UK. In this study positive and negative emotions were explored as the mediator in the relationship between work features (i.e., autonomy, participation, supervisory support, & employee welfare) and job satisfaction. The findings of the study showed that positive emotions, negative emotions, and job satisfaction are meaningfully related but distinguishable constructs; however, only positive emotions partially mediated the hypothesized relationships. However, negative emotions were found to have no mediating role in these relationships.

Based on the discussion that job satisfaction is partly a dispositional trait that caused it to be relatively stable, a study conducted by Niklas and Dormann (2005) utilized both state and trait affectivity and investigate their influence on the state and trait job satisfaction. A diary study was designed and data were collected for two weeks period and four-time measurement was made in this period. After controlling for the effects of trait positive and negative affectivity and generalized job satisfaction, the results of multilevel analyses revealed that both state positive and negative affect predicted state job satisfaction which was operationalized as the satisfaction in the time of data collection. Therefore, it was concluded in the study that the alteration in the job satisfaction is more relied on the state affect rather than the dispositional characteristics and thus it is the emotion provoking events in the organization that may potentially create variation in the job satisfaction.

On the other hand, using AET, another study conducted by Fisher (2002) gave out contrasting results with the premises of the theory and the findings in the literature. More specifically, Fisher (2002) tested a model in which positive and negative affective reactions were included as the mediators of the relationship between job characteristics, positive and negative affectivity, and role conflict and job satisfaction of employees selected from 65 different organizations. The results indicated that although significant predictive roles of personality and job-level variables were concluded on positive and negative affective reactions, these reactions were not found to predict job satisfaction.

Based on the gap in the literature regarding the studies examined job-related attitudes within an emotion provoking context of organizational change, Mossholder et al. (2000) conducted a study that aimed to investigate the relationship among change-related emotions of 173 top managers, change assessment, and job-related attitudes. The study was conducted in an organization undergoing major restructuring to increase decentralization and subsequent downsizing. In this study emotions were measured through open-ended questions and then the written documents were evaluated in terms of the pleasantness (referred as evaluation in this study) and intensity (referred as activation in this study) and their interaction were explored in relation to job related attitudes of job satisfaction, job involvement, change activities assessment, and turnover intentions. Contrary to the majority of the findings in the literature, two emotional dimensions did not predicted job satisfaction but meaningfully predicted other variables of interest.

Taken together, although majority of the studies provided empirical evidence on the relationship between affect and job satisfaction, Saari and Judge (2004) stressed that the field is still in its infancy with respect to the studies exploring the potential relationship between employee attitudes towards their job and the variables of emotions and environmental impacts. Accordingly, the number of studies exploring the cognition-based antecedents of job satisfaction outnumbered

the studies exploring the impact of affective reactions (Niklas & Dormann, 2005). Therefore more studies on emotion and job-related attitudes are still needed. Moreover, the literature search showed that emotion-satisfaction relationship was examined majorly in organizational context rather than organizational change context. Thus, more studies on this relationship within change context are needed to provide useful information for effective change management. Considering these gaps in the literature and substantive relationship between affect and job satisfaction, in this study it was hypothesized that;

Hypothesis 2: Change-related positive affect and negative affect experienced by teachers were related with job satisfaction in positive and negative signs respectively and the relationship was expected to be stronger for positive affect variable.

2.3. Antecedents of the Study and Hypotheses Development

In this study, four contextual variables of history of change, perceived organizational support, and trust in management and top management were tested in relation to affective and attitudinal variables presented before. The subsequent sections concentrated on each of these predictor variables and detailed literature reviews were presented for each one.

2.3.1. Change history

As underlined by Barsade and Gibson (2007), individuals do not come to the organization as “tabula rasa” (p. 53); meaning that they bring along their personal and professional life experiences with them and it is these experiences which structure their behaviors either consciously or unconsciously. Although it is generally overlooked in change literature, by affecting individual attitudes and behaviors, history of change has the potential to affect the trajectory of prospective changes. Indeed, Pettigrew et al. (2001) underlined that history is not only the accumulation of organizational events in a chronological order but rather an alive factor that have the potential to shape the future. They also highlighted

that it “is carried forward in the human consciousness” (p. 700) and creates difference within the change context. Based on the social learning theory of Bandura’s (1982), Devos, Buelens, and Bouckenooghe (2007) explained that individuals learn from the outcomes of their past change experiences and this stored knowledge creates a feedback loop in such a way that the stored knowledge about the past changes are used to modify the future beliefs and expectations.

The literature converged on the point that organization’s change history is a factor that has direct repercussions on individuals’ change-related reactions. Indeed, it is an internal context variable that was effective in reducing employees’ negative change-related attitudes (Bouckenooghe, 2010). Specifically, the poor evaluation on the organization’s change history by the employees was associated with decreased motivation and increased cynicism (Wanous et al., 2000). In a similar study, openness and cynicism about change were explored with prior change history. In this study, Bordia, Restubog, Jimmieson, and Irmer (2011) also conducted a two-phased study and tested whether the poor change history beliefs of the employees of an organization undergoing merger mediated the relationship between poor change history and outcome variables of trust in organization and cynicism about the change in the first phase. The result supported the hypothesized relationships in such a way that whether or not employees attended any poorly managed change before predicted their history beliefs and these beliefs were acted as an effective factor in determining employee trust in organization and cynicism. The second phase of the study conducted with organizational members of a university. Different from the first phase, they tested job satisfaction, openness, and turnover intentions as the outcomes of the final model. Similar to the findings in the first phase, poorly managed change experienced by the employees was associated with decreased faith in change management which in turn was related with lower trust in the organization and resulting job satisfaction and higher negative change-related attitudes. The ultimate outcome of decreased job satisfaction and trust was found to be increased turnover intention. Therefore, history of change is substantiated to be a contextual factor that directly

and indirectly affects employee attitudes towards change and their jobs, and indirectly their behavioral intentions. In their study, Reichers, Wanous, and Austin (1997) found out that history of failed changes was associated with increased cynicism and they recommended some ways for managers to deal with the past failures and increase their credibility due to failed changes. They are firstly recommended to take the responsibility and admit their mistakes. Then, they should immediately take corrective actions to increase their credibility again. Also, the ones on the target of the change should be well informed about the past changes and its outcomes and managers should be sensitive in the hardship accompanied with the change.

Contrary to the findings revealing meaningful relationship between poor change history and increased negative change-related attitudes, successful change history was associated with increase in positive attitudes as well. Accordingly, Self and Schraeder (2009) argued that successful change history brings about employee beliefs on the potential positive outcomes of the change and results in reduced resistance. In a study, which was designed as an experimental simulation study, the relationship between openness to change and the interaction of trust in management and organization's change history was explored (Devos et al., 2007). The findings indicated higher employee openness in the cases where trust in management is low but history of change is increasing after controlling for the effect of locus of control and personal variables (i.e., gender, age, seniority, educational level, & hierarchical level). Similarly, in the cases of poor change history, trust in management was found to a contributing factor in employee openness. This study clearly indicated that successful change history and trust in management are vital precedents of openness to change (Devos et al., 2007). Bouckennooghe (2009) also tested the mediating role of trust in top management between the change antecedents (i.e., history of change, participatory management, and quality of change communication) and three dimensions of readiness for change. Although trust was not found to mediate the hypothesized relationships, he found out that successful change history and quality of change

communication are contributing factors in employees' emotional and cognitive readiness for change. Accordingly, the longitudinal study conducted by Rafferty and Restubog (2010) also supported these findings in way that change history was found to be factor negatively related with affective commitment to change in an organization underwent a merger. In the same study, although positive relationship was hypothesized between poor change history and change anxiety, no relationship was found.

Based on these findings, history of change is expected to correlate positively with change-related attitudes with positive connotation and negatively with the ones with negative connotation. Given the change recipients' reactions model of Oreg et al. (2011), history of change is the antecedent of change-related reactions, which was the case in this study. Therefore, in this study it was hypothesized that;

Hypothesis 3a: Poor change management history beliefs were significantly and positively associated with continuance commitment to change and significantly and negatively associated with affective and normative commitment to change.

Based on the discussion of Shepherd et al. (2011) on learning from the failures, beliefs about the poor change history may potentially provides negative feedback to change recipients about the managements' past change practices, which, in turn is expected to have repercussions on their work related efforts. Therefore, Bordia et al. (2011) discussed that history beliefs affect individuals' work related attitudes of trust, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. Given this discussion, they tested the mediating role of trust in the relationship between poor change management history and job satisfaction. Similarly, Rafferty and Restubog (2010) also tested the mediating role of affective change commitment in the same relationship. Both studies empirically substantiated these hypothesized relationships but did not tested the direct relationship between change history beliefs and job satisfaction although job satisfaction is a construct with cognitive bases and direct by product of beliefs as well as the affect (e.g., Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004; Niklas & Dormann, 2005). Weiss et al. (1999) raised similar

arguments. He stressed that job satisfaction is an attitude with a cognitive base, in addition to its affect base. Therefore, job satisfaction partly relied up on the beliefs hold by one about his job besides the affective reactions. However, the literature indicates scarcity of research that explored belief and affect at the same time in predicting job satisfaction within organizational context (Weiss et al., 1999).

Since in this study no causal paths were included between any of the commitment dimensions and job satisfaction and it was not the aim to explore the causal link between any change antecedents, direct relationship between job satisfaction and history beliefs was tested. However, considering that poor change management history beliefs may constitute a cognitive base of job satisfaction in times of change, the following hypothesis was generated;

Hypothesis 3b: There was a significant negative relationship between poor change management history beliefs and job satisfaction in the time of change.

Considering the discussion that successful adjustment with the current changes becomes a significant precursor for employee enthusiasm for the future changes (Martin et al., 2005), their beliefs regarding the previous changes may potentially be the source of emotional and attitudinal reactions for the current changes. Therefore, history of change was not only associated with resulting attitudes but also emerged affective reactions. Locke (1970) discussed that the degree of attaining individual aims and goals cause individuals to experience pleasure or displeasure; thus, it is the emotional reactions that show individual's evaluations about the past events and its accompanied outcomes and the same emotional reactions constitute the base for future behavioral outcomes. Accordingly, Eriksson (2004) discussed the underlying mechanism of how the poor history of prior changes results in decreased employee motivation to mobilize and act for the sake of the change in a collaborative manner. That is, employees form a repertoire of prior change experiences and subsequent emotions experienced. When they face a challenge of an organizational change, they use their stored information to

decide to act for or against the change. This is the emotional routine that allows or precludes them to support or resist the change. History of change and the emotions tied with these change efforts, thus, are regarded as the one other sources of resistance and recommended to be explored in future change studies. Rafferty and Restubog (2010) also supported the same argument that history beliefs of individuals may potentially be the source of affect on the part of the employees and tested whether change history was associated with change anxiety. However, he did not come up with meaningful relationship.

In short, the assessment of employee beliefs concerning the history of prior changes is suggested to be the indication of their future expectations for the pending changes to be successful and managed in an efficient way (Rafferty & Restubog, 2010). Therefore, Kiefer (2005) stressed the need of assessing history of prior changes as context variable in future change-related emotion investigations. Considering this gap in the literature, the direct relationship between change-related affect and history beliefs were tested in this study. Also, considering the basic premises of AET that attitudes are direct by products of affective responses, the mediating roles of affective responses in the relationship between history beliefs and change-related and job-related attitudes were tested as well. It is, thus, hypothesized in this study that;

Hypothesis 3c: Poor change management history beliefs were significantly and positively associated with negative change-related affect and negatively with positive change-related affect.

Hypothesis 3d: Positive and negative change-related affect partially mediated the relationship between poor change management history beliefs and continuance, normative, and affective commitment to change.

Hypothesis 3e: Positive and negative change-related affect partially mediated the relationship between poor change management history beliefs and job satisfaction.

2.3.2. Perceived organizational support

Perceived organizational support (POS) was defined as employees' "general beliefs concerning how much the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Rhoades et al., 2001, p. 825). POS is generally used as the criteria to judge the degree of potential material and symbolic gains from the organization in return for the favorable acts of employees (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990). In the same study, POS was shown to be positively related with affective organizational attachment; thus, it was concluded that when employees felt to be cared and valued more, higher loyalty and discretionary support in the organization was expected.

Based on the social exchange theory, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) highlighted the norm of reciprocity in the employer and supervisor relationships and discussed that the more employees feel to be valued and cared can yield more desired organizational outcomes like higher performance and organizational commitment and lower absenteeism. It was; however, noted that the reciprocation should be based on voluntary act of both parties, not on the external imperatives to contribute more in POS. This meta-review, which was conducted with more than 70 studies, showed that the critical antecedents of POS are three types of organizational treatment as fairness, supervisor support, and rewards and favorable job conditions with descending strength of correlation. On the other hand, two of the most basic outcomes of POS were found to be organizational commitment and job-related affect. More specifically, affective commitment and continuance commitment were found to be variables with a strong positive relationship and small negative relationship respectively. Moreover, job-related affect was concluded to be the byproduct of POS in such a way that strong positive relationship was found with POS and outcome variables of job satisfaction and positive employee mood. Therefore, POS showed strong relationship with both individual reactions that have repercussions on both the individual itself and the organization.

A study conducted by the victims of a layoff also showed the merit of POS in creating commitment to change (Stefanie, Nathan, Robert, & Christopher, 1998). The results revealed that higher POS was associated with higher organizational commitment and it played a mediating role (at least partially) in the relationship between interactional justice and organizational commitment. In another study, Rhoades et al. (2001) reached empirical results that suggested that POS is the antecedent of affective commitment to the organization. In the same study, the more organizational rewards, procedural justice, and supervisor support was associated with the more POS of employees, which, in turn, was related with higher affective commitment.

Although it is referred as an internal context variable when used to represent the organizational atmosphere, support was also utilized as a change process variable which indicates the manner change is executed (Oreg et al., 2011) and generally measured as principal and organizational support in times of change. Indeed, there is a growing body of research on the essential role organizational support played within the change context. In these studies, organizational support was utilized as the internal context variable that fosters positive change related reactions. To illustrate, Eby, Adams, Russell, and Gaby, (2000) found out meaningful relationship between perceived organizational support and readiness for change; thus, higher POS was associated with higher readiness for change on the part of the employees. Similarly, Armstrong-Stassen (2004) tested affective and normative commitments, and POS as the antecedents of the relationship between control and escape coping and the outcomes of job satisfaction, intent to remain, job insecurity, and burnout during the downsizing process. They concluded that POS is directly related with all outcome variables with opposing signs but positively with job satisfaction and also control coping was concluded to play mediating role between POS and the outcome of job insecurity. Lee and Peccei (2006) reached supportive results that the relationship between POS and affective commitment is mediated by organization-based self-esteem. Leadership support, on the other hand, is concluded to be more essential for radical changes when

compared with the incremental ones (Lok, Hung, Walsh, Wang, & Crawford, 2005).

In another study that did not focus on the employees' change related reactions but job-related attitudes, POS was tested as the mediator of the relationship between antecedents of change-related uncertainty and individual adaptability and outcomes of job satisfaction and performance in an organization undergoing technological change and some other minor changes (Cullen, Edwards, Casper, & Gue, 2014). The same model was tested in another organization but performance data were not collected. The results revealed that POS played hypothesized mediating role in two samples; in such a way that, higher individual adaptability with the changes and lower uncertainty were associated with higher POS and resulting higher job satisfaction and performance (in the first model only).

Indeed, the unknown and insecurity accompanied with the change requires knowledge transfer and learning within the organization and it is this two-way communication which makes organizational members to take into account the information and act for the sake of a large-scale change (Tenkasi & Chesmore, 2003). However, it is underlined that strong ties with unit leader is not a sole meaningful predictor of recipients' change implementation since change use requires more within network sharing as each individual being a part of a complex puzzle. This finding brings us to the discussion that assessing only the managerial support during change masks the more complex networking in the organization. Therefore, organizational support is worthy of exploration within the change context and in relation to change recipients' reactions in this study which involves key stakeholders' support in times of change.

According to Lynch, Eisenberger, and Armeli (1999), the tradeoff relationship between two parties can be damaged when the investments of one part is not reciprocated by the recipient; then, his willingness to reciprocate is generally questioned and responded with decreased investment. Considering the same reciprocation norm of social exchange theory within change context, it is possible

to infer that employees who perceive to be individually valued, cared, and treated fairly and whose contributions are also welcomed and cared have higher potential to exhibit more positive change related attitudes; thus higher affective and normative commitment to change and higher job satisfaction. That is, the individuals who feel supported are expected to support the change due its inherent benefits for themselves and they feel more loyalty for their organization and job. On the contrary, the ones who do not perceive high organizational support generally are not expected to exhibit discretionary support for the change; therefore, the external imperatives and potential costs associated with unsupportive behaviors may increase continuance commitment to change. Therefore, the following hypotheses were developed;

Hypothesis 4a: POS was significantly and positively associated with affective and normative commitment to change and significantly and negatively associated with continuance commitment to change.

Hypothesis 4b: POS was significantly and positively associated with job satisfaction in the time of change.

Given the related research findings, however, POS and affective change-related reactions were not explored much in the literature. Kiefer (2005) underlined this gap in the literature and noted that there is a lack of studies concerning organizational support and change-related emotions but stated that the emphasis is on the relationship between support and affective change-related outcomes. Indeed, in the same study, findings that supported the potential relationship between POS and negative emotions were acquired. Specifically, organizational treatment, which involved support as a domain, was found to be the predictor of negative change-related emotions. Similarly, Kiefer (2002) previously reached some results that revealed that the presence of principal and colleague support in the time of merger make individuals report more positive emotions. Based on the studies that showed meaningful relationship between POS and affect-based attitudes like affective commitment and job satisfaction (e.g., Armstrong-Stressen,

2004; Cullen et al., 2014; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Rhoades et al., 2001) also suggested potential relationship between POS and positive and negative change-related affect in such a way that employees who perceived to be cared by the organization can experience change in a more positive atmosphere due to the support provided and vice versa. Therefore, to compensate the need in the field concerning the studies on POS and change-related affect and provide empirical evidence on this relationship, it was hypothesized in the study that;

Hypothesis 4c: POS was significantly and positively associated with positive change-related affect and negatively with negative change-related affect.

Also, considering the basic premises of AET that attitudes are direct by products of affective responses, the mediating roles of affective responses in the relationship between POS and change-related and job-related attitudes were tested as well. Therefore, the following two hypotheses were also tested in this study.

Hypothesis 4d: Positive and negative change-related affect partially mediated the relationship between POS and continuance, normative, and affective commitment to change.

Hypothesis 4e: Positive and negative change-related affect partially mediated the positive relationship between POS and job satisfaction.

2.3.3. Trust in management

Trust is defined as “the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other party will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the other party” (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 712). In another definition, trust was described as “to place oneself in a position of personal risk based on expectations that the trustee will not behave in such a way that that results in harm to the trustor” (Atkinson & Butcher, 2003; p. 289). An alternative definition was proposed by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) which highlighted the

trustworthiness characteristics of the trusted one in such a way that “an individual’s or group’s willingness be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest, and open” (p. 189). Despite the fact that various different attempts were made to define trust, all scholars intersect on the point that trust is a vital precedence of social interactions (Petersen, 2008). Trust is regarded as the lubricant of well-functioning organizations; thus, growing number of studies concentrated on the issue of trust within organizational context (e.g., Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998; Perry & Mankin, 2004). This is particularly valid for the change context as well because trusting atmosphere in times of change was generally regarded as the source of positive attitudes on the part of the change implementers. Indeed, it is the trust in leader, which was found to be most effective in supporting employees’ change acceptance (Reinke, 2003). Oreg (2006), similarly, found out similar results in such a way that trust in management is the only variable that was effective in reducing all dimensions of resistance to change (i.e., affective, cognitive, and intentional dimensions). Indeed, trust-based communication between manager and employees in times of change was discussed to be a factor reducing uncertainty and fear experienced by the ones on the target of the change and speculations in the organization (Weber & Weber, 2001). Klein and Knight (2005) even underlined that management matters in times of change by stating that “top management cannot close the book on an innovation after they have decided to adopt it” (p. 246).

Based on the general trust definition of Stanley et al. (2005), *trust in management* can be defined as an individual’s willingness to be vulnerable to the undesirable outcomes of the decisions or actions of the top management. Although different scholars proposed various trust definitions and trust models, there are some points that they all agreed on which are (a) importance of the characteristics of the one who is trusted and the one who trust, (b) presence of behavioral, affective, and cognitive bases of trust, (c) contextual factors that affect trust in leadership, (d) behavioral and attitude-related outcomes of trust in leadership (Burke, Sims,

Lazzara, & Salas, 2007). Therefore, being a construct reconciled to be vital for all organizational process, it was also agreed by scholars that trust has different bases and outcomes and it acted as a contextual and an outcome variable. This is the case for change context as well.

Though trust in management was predominantly treated as an internal context variable that support the task of successful change (e.g., Eby et al., 2000; Oreg, 2006; Stanley et al., 2005), ascending number of studies recently focused on trust as the change outcome variable. The assumption underlying this new view is that poorly managed change efforts erode change recipients' trust in the top managers and decision-makers following the execution of a new change. This argument is supported by the study of Zalesny and Farace (1987) which explored employees' (in the managerial, professional, and clerical positions) trust in management after a change in their offices to be open ones. For all positions, there was a decrement in the trust level of employees when compared with the pre-change period; however, the decrement was larger for the ones in the clerical position.

In another study, trust in management was again explored as the outcome of a divestiture and the predictive role of procedural justice regarding the divestiture and layoffs were examined in predicting trust in new owners after the sell of the organization (Gopinath & Becker, 2000). The results showed that procedural justice perceived regarding the divestiture and the layoffs were significant predictors of trust in top management but the prediction is stronger for procedural justice regarding the divestiture (associated with the previous owners of the company).

In another study, Weber and Weber (2001) investigated trust in management following a CEO change and subsequent quality management activities in the organization. In this study, readiness for change and trust in management were found to be correlated positively and goal clarity, employee participation, and autonomy were found to be the moderators of the level of trust in management measured after six-months later the quality management activities were started to

be executed (Weber & Weber, 2001). Surprisingly, negative moderating role of autonomy was concluded for trust in management and this finding suggested further studies.

Paterson and Cary (2002), similarly, examined trust in management as the outcome of the change process and tested its relationship with independent variables of change characteristics and change communication. Justice perceptions and change anxiety were tested as the mediators on this relationship in a public organization undergoing restructuring and downsizing. They concluded that employee perceptions of high quality change communication was related with perceived fairness of the managerial treatment and these perceptions with the meaningful contribution of low change anxiety contributed in increased trust in top management.

Despite an increasing number of studies exploring trust as the outcome of change process, trust in management was predominantly used as an internal context variable, that existed before the initiation of the change process and acted as a factor that fosters positive employee reactions toward the change and reduces the negative ones. Indeed, the studies that used trust as the precedent of positive employee reactions outnumbered the studies that explored its relationship with negative reactions. To illustrate, Eby et al. (2000), tested whether individual attitudes and preferences (i.e., self-efficacy for change, preference for working in teams, & organizational support), work group and job attitudes (trust in peers, skill variety, & participation), and context variables (i.e., flexible policies and procedures, logistics and systems support, & trust in management) were related with organizational readiness for change. The divisions were selected from an organization because they were selected as the ones to have a large-scale change of team-based selling. They did not come up with a significant relationship between trust in management and readiness for change but found out significant contribution of preference for working in teams, trust in peers, and flexibility in policies and procedures in organizational readiness for change.

In another study, Spreitzer and Mishra (2002) examined whether the independent variables of employee evaluation of trustworthiness of the management, empowerment, and justice regarding the initiated downsizing were related with affective commitment (referred as survivor attachment to the organization) and the outcome variable of voluntary turnover. The results clearly showed that the higher trustworthiness of the management, perception that the downsizing was just distributively and procedurally, and the feelings to be more empowered with the change were all associated with higher affective organizational commitment. However, affective commitment did not mediate the relationship between these variables and voluntary turnover but affective commitment was found to have unique and negative contribution in the prediction of employees to leave or stay the organization. Spreitzer and Mishra (2002) even concluded in their study that the merit of trust in management is greater than the presented rationale of the change.

Similarly, Devos et al. (2007) investigated the relationship between openness to change and the interaction of trust in management and organization's change history in an experimental simulation study. The findings indicated higher employee openness in the cases where trust in management is low but history of change is high after controlling for the effect of locus of control and personal variables (i.e., gender, age, seniority, educational level, & hierarchical level). Similarly, in the cases of poor change history, trust in management was found to a contributing factor in employee openness.

Moreover, a study conducted by Michaelis, Stegmaier, and Sonntag (2009) tested the mediating role of affective commitment to change in the relationship between the independent variables of trust in management and charismatic leadership and the outcome variable of innovation implementation behavior in an organization that started to use new software. After controlling for the individual-level variables (i.e., age, gender, hierarchical level, and affiliation), it was concluded that increment in trust in management and charismatic leadership was also

associated with increment in affective change commitment, which in turn, was related with higher innovation implementation behavior.

In Turkish school change context, Zayim and Kondakci (2015) explored the predictive role of faculty trust in three reference groups (i.e., colleague, principal, & clients) on teachers' readiness for change in emotion, cognition, and intention dimensions. After controlling for the effects of school level, gender, experience, and attending in-service training and change project, the results showed that trust in principal is the significant predictor of readiness for change in the intention and cognition dimensions; however, trust in colleagues was found to be a better predictor of all readiness dimensions than trust in principal.

Contrary to the studies substantiated the empowering role of trust in management played in positive employee reactions towards change, another study conducted by Oreg (2006) showed its buffering role by reducing negative attitudes towards change. In his path model, trust in management was treated as an internal context variable and its direct relationship with three dimensions of resistance to change was tested. The results were striking in such a way that, contrary to the other independent variables of the study; trust in management was the only variable effective in reducing resistance in emotion, behavior, and cognition dimensions.

Within the school context, trust in school organization, trust in colleagues, and trust in principal were initially regarded as the three vital elements of trust (Hoy, Smith, Sweetland, 2002). Later, increased attention in trust in students and parents also led trust in clients to be the forth element of healthy school organizations (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). However, for centralized educational systems, like TES, school principals have no active role in designing the prospective changes but their role is to ensure healthy functioning of these changes and make it to proceed smoother for the implementers and students by providing necessary resources and guidance at school level and acting the mediating role between change implementers and higher authorities in the change process. Therefore, as recommended by Zayim (2010), for such centralized

systems exploring trust in top management (decision making body) is more relevant to make sense of teachers' change related attitudes. Indeed, distinguishing between the foci of employee trust was recommended in the literature since trust in direct supervisor (school principal in Turkish school context) and the top management (MONE in Turkish school context) has different bases and implications (Yang & Mossholder, 2010). Indeed, Dirks and Ferrin (2002) underlined the need of the studies concerning the individuals' trust in different leadership referents and the implications of this distinction. The reason of this need was that individuals want to reciprocate toward the ones in the trusting relationships and considering the roles of these two-level leaders, trust-based relationships with the direct supervisor have the potential to give out more job-related outcomes; however, the relationship with the top-management have the potential to have the outcomes affecting whole organization. Similarly, relations with the upper level management have implications on employees' internalization and support of managerial interventions and organizational goals in the long run but relations with the direct supervisor have greater effect on employees' daily work routines (Yang & Mossholder, 2010). Therefore, trust in management was added as another trust element in this study and to respond to the need of foci discrimination in trust studies, individuals' trust in school principal and trust in top-management were explored in the mechanism to give out innovation implementation behavior.

Considering all empirical results mentioned above, trust in management can be concluded to be a vital factor in reducing negative change-related attitudes and empowering the positive ones; however, the outcome of these trust-based relationships to be different for two reference groups in such a way that trust in principal has the potential to be related with more job-related outcomes and trust in top-management to be more related with organizational-level outcomes. Therefore, the following hypotheses were generated for two referent groups;

Hypothesis 5a: Trust in principal and trust in MONE were directly and positively associated with affective and normative commitment to change and directly and negatively associated with continuance commitment to change; however, the strength of the relationships was expected to be stronger for the trust in MONE variable.

Similarly, the literature consistently substantiated meaningful relationship between trust and employee satisfaction within organizational context (e.g., Ellis & Shockley-Zalabak, 2001; Matzler & Renzle, 2007; Rich, 1997). Ellis and Shockley-Zalabak (2001) even went beyond and added empirical evidence on the relationship between satisfaction with the organizational outcomes and trust in two different level supervisors (i.e., trust in immediate supervisor and top management). They found out that the relationship between trust in top management and satisfaction was stronger than that between trust in immediate supervisor and satisfaction. Similarly, within the change context, the role trust played in employee job satisfaction was also empirically tested and trust in management showed positive relationship with job satisfaction (Bordia et al., 2011). Therefore, job satisfaction in times of change was expected to be related with both trust in principal and trust in MONE in TES. Therefore, the following hypothesis was generated;

Hypothesis 5b: Trust in principal and trusts in MONE were directly and positively associated with job satisfaction in the time of change however, the strength of the relationships was expected to be stronger for the trust in principal variable.

The study by Kiefer (2005) revealed an expected negative relationship between trust in organization (operationalized as trust in top management, the company, and line management) and employees' negative emotions immediately after the merger and subsequent small-scale changes and one-month later after controlling for the effect of gender, age, and tenure. Organizational treatment was also found to be a variable that was directly and indirectly (through negative emotions) related with trust in organizations. Therefore, organizational change is found to be

a negative-emotion provoking event; which has direct and indirect repercussion on trust. Contrary to the finding of Kiefer (2005), Devos et al. (2007) speculated that lack of trust-based relationship between the superiors and employees was associated with emotional reactions on the part of the employees like anger, frustration, and anxiety about the change in action. This argument was based on the study of Oreg (2006) in such a way that trust in management was a significant predictor of employees' affective resistance to change. In this study trust was measured as an internal context variable which was suggested to influence change recipients' change related reactions in affect dimension (Oreg et al., 2011); thus, in this study trust in principal and MONE were tested as the precursors of change related teacher affect. Also, considering the basic premises of AET that attitudes are direct by products of affective responses, the mediating roles of affective responses in the relationship between trust in two-reference groups and change-related and job-related attitudes were tested as well. It is, thus, hypothesized in this study that;

Hypothesis 5c: Trust in principal and MONE were positively associated with positive change-related affect and negatively with negative change-related affect.

Hypothesis 5d: Positive and negative change-related affect partially mediated the relationship between trust in principal and MONE and continuance, normative, and affective commitment to change.

Hypothesis 5e: Positive and negative change-related affect partially mediated the relationship between trust in principal and MONE and job satisfaction.

2.4. Change Implementation Behavior

Change supportive behaviors (CSB) are delineated as the facilitative, participative, and contributive actions of individuals to a planned change designed by management (Kim, Hornung, & Rousseau, 2011). The authors elaborated on the content of this definition in order to make the distinction clear between CSB (as being actual behaviors) and other change-related attitudes and behavioral

intentions. Specifically, CSB focuses on active contributions of organizational members and applicable for the planned changes, not individual level improvements. Moreover, it is also underlined that CSB represents desirable change-related outcomes for the organization to reach its intended end-state; meaning that it is generally studied as a dependent variable.

Though CSB is an important prerequisite for desired change outcomes, there is a gap in the literature concerning the change supportive behaviors of employees (Kim et al., 2011). Studies focusing on the antecedents of change supportive behaviors reached consistent results in such a way that employees' change related commitment predict their change supportive behaviors and this prediction is stronger for employees' organizational commitment (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Meyer et al., 2007). Furthermore, these two studies pointed out that employees' affective commitment and normative commitment to change are associated positively with non-discretionary support behavior of compliance and discretionary support behaviors of cooperation and championing; however, continuance commitment was found to be positively related with non-discretionary support behavior and negatively with discretionary support behaviors. Moreover, Jimmieson, Peach, and White (2008) also reached similar results from the perspective of Theory of Planned Behavior. That is, individuals having favorable attitudes towards the execution of the behavior, feeling the pressure of significant others, and having control over the behavior that will be performed were found to be more willing to engage in change supportive behaviors and it is these intentions expected to have repercussions on actual behaviors. In accordance with these findings, Rafferty et al. (2013) speculated that change supportive behaviors are the potential outcomes of change readiness at individual, group, and organizational level. Therefore, the literature showed that change-related attitudes have direct repercussions on employees' change-supportive behaviors in times of change.

In this study, implementation behavior was used as the one form of change supportive behaviors and the ultimate dependent variable of the study. Studying implementation behavior is vital for organizational change interventions since it serves as the indication of the progress and success of the implementation and provides early information about the effectiveness of the intervention (Proctor et al., 2011). In the literature, implementation behavior was generally conceptualized within the context of innovation. *Innovation* was defined as “a product or practice that is new to its developers and /or to its potential users” (Klein & Knight, 2005, p. 243) and *innovation implementation* was defined as “an individual’s consistent and committed use of a particular technology or practice that an organization is using for the first time” (Michaelis et al., 2010, p. 409).

According to Kline and Knight (2005), there are six main reasons of organization to face with innovation implementation failures. The high failure rate was associated with improperly designed innovations, acquiring new knowledge and skills to be stressful and hard for implementers, top-down decision making in adopting an innovation and users’ intention to maintain the status-quo, change in individuals’ roles and routines, requires an excessive investment in time, money, training, and support, and organizational norms and routines that keep the existing state (Kline & Knight, 2005). Based on this argument, in addition to the failure in innovation implementation or the innovation failure itself (Michaelis et al., 2009), organizational context and the reactions of individuals on the target of the innovation can be the other causes of innovation implementation failures.

Given these arguments, Michealis et al. (2009) explored the indirect relationships (via affective commitment to change) between transformational leadership and trust in top management and innovation implementation behavior. The data collected from 194 employees of an organization that started to use new software. After controlling for the individual-level variables (i.e., age, gender, hierarchical level, and affiliation), the results revealed that affective commitment mediated all hypothesized relationships. Therefore, increase in charismatic leadership and

employee trust in top management was associated with higher affective commitment, which in turn was related with higher implementation behavior. The same authors also tested the mediating role of commitment to change and moderating role of climate for initiative in the relationship between transformational leadership and innovation implementation behavior (Michaelis et al., 2010). The data was collected from the employees of an organization that started to use new software. After controlling for the effect of individual level variables (age, gender, education, management level, and resistance levels), the findings of the showed that commitment to change (operationalized as normative commitment) mediated the hypothesized relationship; therefore, it was concluded that the more transformational leadership was associated with higher commitment to change which in turn was related with higher innovation implementation behavior. The moderating role of climate for initiative was also found in the same study. Therefore, in the climate of high initiative, higher transformational leadership was associated with higher innovation implementation behavior.

Given that innovation implementation behavior is tightly coupled with change process (Michaelis et al. 2010), the definition of Kline and Knight (2005) was adapted to the change context in this study and change implementation was used as the dependent variable of this study. Following their definitions, *change implementation* was defined as the process that change implementers undergo in the execution of the demands of the new change skillfully, consistently, and in a committed way. For the school change context, particularly for curricular changes, Kennedy and Kennedy (1996) stressed that teacher beliefs regarding the change itself and its consequences and contextual variables are all factors that influence both teachers' attitudes and subsequent implementation behaviors. However, the authors underlined that attitude measures to be used cautiously in the implementation behavior searches since there can be a gap between the reported attitudes and the real classroom activities. According to Tenkasi and Chesmore (2003), the implementation of a planned-change is not orderly as it is designed since the process involves knowledge transfer and learning problems on

the part of the change implementers and users. In this study, the role of social networks on change implementation and use in an organization undergoing a large-scale change was tested. The results revealed that unit leader is not the only knowledge source of change implementers but on-time change implementation was found to rely more on the network within the unit members. Therefore, trust-based and two-way communication between organizational members was concluded as the factors resolving both knowledge transfer and learning problems in times of a large-scale change.

Taken together, the literature consistently showed that commitment to change is a vital precedent of change supportive behaviors, particularly implementation behavior. These findings were consistent with the basic premises of AET in such a way that attitudes are the precursors of individuals' judgment driven behaviors. In addition to change-related commitment, change scholars also converge on the point that job satisfaction is a work-related attitude affected by change process an organization is undergoing (e.g., Miller et al., 1990; Schweiger & Denisi, 1991). Indeed, the increase in the number of changes an organization initiated was found to have indirect effect on job satisfaction through increasing uncertainty on the part of the change receivers (Rafferty & Griffin, 2006). Therefore, various change scholars explored job satisfaction as an outcome of the mechanisms of change related affect, reactions, and contextual variables (e.g., Amiot et al., 2006; Bordia et al., 2004; Martin et al., 2005; Oreg, 2006). Job satisfaction is consistently regarded as the positive correlate of organizational performance (e.g., Christen, Iyer, & Soberman, 2006; Hochwarter, Perrewé, Ferris, & Brymer, 1999; Wanous, 1974); therefore, it is a factor that ascends when employees work more for the sake of the organization. Within the change context, therefore, it can be concluded as the factor that helps employees to work for the sake of the change as well and to be a contributing factor in change supportive behaviors. Hornung and Rousseau (2007) noted that unsupportive behaviors exhibited for the change were considered as rational decisions made by employees and AET posits that these rational decisions are the direct by product of job-related attitudes. Although there

is no empirical base yet, individuals' negative evaluations of their jobs in times of change have the potential to exhibit less change supportive behaviors. Therefore, this study hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 6: Teachers' affective, normative, and continuance change commitments were positively related with implementation behaviors and the strength of the relationship was expected to be stronger for affective and normative commitment than that for continuance commitment to change.

Hypothesis 7: Teachers' job satisfaction in the time of change was positively related with implementation behavior.

Taken together, the overall hypothesized model was depicted below with the generated hypothesis for each specific relationship.

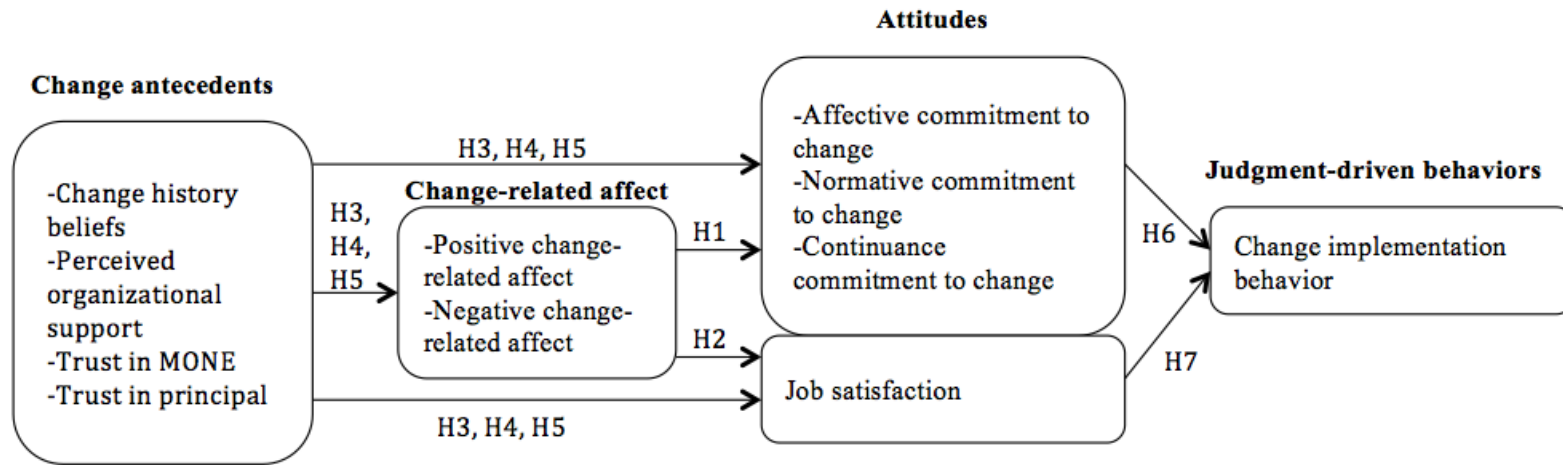


Figure 3. The hypothesized model on the relationships among antecedents, change-related affect, attitudes, and implementation behavior. MONE: Ministry of National Education.

2.5. Summary of the Literature Review

TES has been on the target of the change interventions initiated by MONE over the last 35 years and experienced various structural and procedural changes in return. 4+4+4 change has been one of those changes that affected all school levels at the same time to a large extent and caused a shift in the major paradigm. Conducted studies after the initiation of this change converged on the shortcomings in the implementation phase caused by poor framing, fast pace of transition, inadequate infrastructure, support, and information provided for the implementers. Negative teacher reactions were, therefore, unavoidable side effects of this change. Based on the similar problems experienced in the past changes initiated in TES, 4+4+4 change was regarded as an ill-designed one by the change scholars in Turkey, which doomed to failure and a new source of problem for TES.

Similar to the case in Turkey in the times of 4+4+4 change, the findings in the world literature majorly agreed on the undervalued employee attitudes and emotions and this was considered as one of the basic factor behind high change failures in both business and educational organizations. Despite the presence of excessive theoretical support on this argument, studies conducted signified a huge gap concerning the mechanism that creates employee attitudes and role of change-related emotions in the change process. The literature search in Turkey, similarly, pointed out that demographic variables were majorly explored in relation to change-related teacher attitudes but more empirical studies are needed on the process and internal context variables. Moreover, teacher emotions in times of change were disregarded completely in Turkish school change context. Also, educational change studies in Turkey, similarly, did not concentrated on the outcomes of the change despite the fact that great emphasis has been put on this issue lately in the world literature. These findings all suggested the need for studies conducted on teacher attitudes and emotions and provide a model concerning the mechanism that creates teacher reactions. Based on the gap

concerning the antecedents and outcomes of change-related reactions, in the model tested these two groups of variables were also included in this study and a holistic model was proposed regarding Turkish teachers' reactions in the midst of a large-scale change.

Based on the gaps in the literature and empirical evidences provided for majority of the separate relationships hypothesized, the major purpose of this study was to explore the nature of the relationship between antecedents (i.e., change history beliefs, perceived organizational support, trust in principal, and trust in MONE), change-related affect (i.e., positive and negative affect), and attitudinal variables (commitment to change and job satisfaction) in predicting the ultimate outcome of change implementation behaviors of Turkish public schools in a model and provide a holistic picture from the perspectives of the implementers of 4+4+4 change.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

In this chapter, detailed information regarding the methodology of the study was presented. Firstly, overall design of this study was briefly described. Subsequently, sampling procedure was explained in detail with demographic characteristics of the participants and the characteristics of the schools the data were collected. Thirdly, the instruments utilized were introduced by providing information about their development and adaptation processes and factor analysis and internal consistency results in the current study. Finally, data collection procedure, data analysis used, and potential limitations of the study were presented.

3.1. Research Design

Since this study sought the potential relationship between the variables of change antecedents (i.e., change history beliefs, trust in MONE, trust in principal, and perceived organizational support), change-related affect (i.e., positive and negative affect), change commitment (i.e., affective, continuance, & normative commitment), job satisfaction, and the outcome of change implementation, it was designed as a correlational one, a type of associational research. Correlational research design is appropriate for this study since it allows for the exploration of the relationship between two or more existing quantitative variables when there is no manipulation by the researcher (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Huyn, 2012). Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was selected as a correlational technique because in organizational research, it is suggested as an effective way to work on the relationship between antecedents and outcomes of the constructs simultaneously (e.g., Oreg, 2006).

3.2. Sample Selection Procedure and Participants

The data for the present study were collected in a two-phased process, the former was for the pilot study and the latter was for the main study. Before moving on the data collection, the permission required from the Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Ethics Committee (Appendix A) was received. Subsequently, after the school selection process, the permission from the Provincial Directorate of National Education in Ankara was received to collect data from the public schools (Appendix B). Data collection for pilot study lasted six weeks in the spring semester of 2013-2014 academic year and lasted eight weeks in the fall semester of 2014-2015 academic year. In addition to the researcher, one graduate student was recruited to collaborate during the data collection of the pilot study and two graduate students were recruited during the data collection of the main study.

The participants of this study were primary, secondary, and high-school level public school teachers in the province of Ankara. For the school selection, stratified cluster random sampling technique was used. In this technique, school levels were used as strata (subgroups) and relative proportion of these three levels were retained in the sample, as recommended by Fraenkel et al. (2012). For the sample selection, the steps suggested by the authors were followed. In the first step, the target population was determined. According to the information received from the Ankara Provincial Directorate of National Education website, there were 583 primary schools, 440 secondary schools, and 139 high schools (excluding technical-vocational ones) in 25 school districts in Ankara. Of this large population, 25 percent of each school level was selected as the initial step of sampling procedure. Finally, in SPSS, random selection from each school district was performed. Below is the table indicating the relative proportion of three school levels in each school district with the school numbers selected for this study.

Table 1

School Numbers with regard to School Districts and Selected School Numbers

School districts	Primary school #	Secondary school #	High school #
Akyurt	7	10	1
Altındağ	46	32	10
Ayaş	9	7	1
Bala	20	11	2
Beypazarı	12	7	2
Çamlıdere	3	3	0
Çankaya	66	49	29
Çubuk	18	16	3
Elmadağ	15	10	3
Etimesgut	30	28	7
Evren	1	1	0
Gölbaşı	27	20	4
Güdül	5	3	0
Haymana	17	15	2
Kalecik	11	5	1
Kazan	6	7	2
Keçiören	59	48	15
Kızılcahamam	6	6	2
Mamak	60	42	14
Nallıhan	8	5	2
Polatlı	30	18	4
Pursaklar	12	11	2
Sincan	41	36	7
Şereflikoçhisar	11	9	3
Yenimahalle	63	41	23
TOTAL	583	440	139
%25 (ideal)	146	110	35
SELECTED	162	115	46
% of representation in the sample	50.2	35.6	14.2

For the pilot study, considering the proximity and ease of transportation, 25% of schools from the 8 main school districts (i.e., Altındağ, Çankaya, Gölbaşı, Keçiören, Mamak, Pursaklar, Sincan, & Yenimahalle) were randomly selected from the aforementioned initial school list formed. In this selection, the proportion among different school levels was considered again. From 52 schools selected for pilot study, 46 volunteered to participate. The details of the pilot study sample were presented under the pilot study section.

3.2.1. Participants

Although almost 1200 questionnaires were collected within the scope of the main study, 804 of the cases have responded more than 50% of the scales or responded in an appropriate way, which were the data that could be used in data analysis. After the missing values were handled, which was explained in the results section, the total of 663 cases made up the sample of the main study.

The data for the main study was collected from 13 school districts previously selected (i.e., Polatlı, Pursaklar, Gölbaşı, Akyurt, Çubuk, Elmadağ, Çankaya, Sincan, Keçiören, Etimesgut, Altındağ, Yenimahalle, & Mamak). In these school district, teachers from 85 schools voluntarily participated in this study. Of these schools, 12 were high schools, 40 were primary schools, and 33 were secondary schools. Therefore, the proportion among school levels in the population was almost retained in the sample with the percentages of 47.1, 38.8, and 14.1 for primary, secondary, and high school levels respectively. The number of voluntary teachers participated in this study; however, did not follow the pattern in the school levels. Of the participant teachers, 282 (42.6%) were from primary schools, 286 (43.2%) were from secondary schools, and 94 (14.2%) were from high schools. Table 2 indicates the demographic characteristics of the participants with regard to school levels.

At each school level, majority of the participants were female ($N = 197$ for primary school, $N = 207$ for secondary school, & $N = 64$ for high school). The mean age of participants was almost equal at primary ($M = 40.46$, $SD = 9.27$) and high school levels ($M = 40.48$, $SD = 7.72$) and higher than that for secondary school level ($M = 34.23$, $SD = 8.04$). Teaching experience of the participants in terms of year also showed the same pattern in such a way that primary and high school level teachers' experiences were greater than that for secondary level teachers. When the participant teachers were asked the department they graduated from, majority of them reported that they have teaching background both in primary (74%) and secondary schools (72.5%); however, the number of teachers

graduated from departments other than teaching were higher at high school level. Of the participants, majority of them reported that they did not previously hold an administrative duty at each school level. Surprisingly, when the participant teachers were asked whether they had an in-service training about the 4+4+4 change before, vast majority of them responded as no in primary (70.5%), secondary (82.7%), and high school (92.6%) levels.

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

	Primary school			Secondary school			High school		
	<i>f</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Gender									
Male	85			78			30		
Female	197			207			64		
Age		40.86	9.27		34.23	8.04		40.48	7.72
Department graduated									
Teaching	184			198			27		
Other	63			75			62		
Experience		18.03	9.79		10.95	7.46		17.48	7.17
In-service training									
Yes	82			49			7		
No	196			234			87		
Admin duty									
Principal	39			13			1		
Vice principal	24			26			8		
Both	9			4			6		
None	208			243			79		

Considering the school characteristics, the data collected also showed great variation within the sample. As can be seen in Table 3, majority of the data were collected from the schools that have double session learning, which implied that primary and secondary schools have still been operating under the same roof at the time of data collection. Class student numbers were very close to each other at primary ($M = 28.16$, $SD = 6.68$) and secondary schools ($M = 28.81$, $SD = 5.42$) and lower than those at high schools ($M = 31.33$, $SD = 3.89$). Sizes of the participant schools in terms of school student number and teacher number had

very broad ranges, which suggested that both small and large schools were included in the sample.

Table 3

Characteristics of the Participant Schools

	Primary school			Secondary school			High school		
	<i>f</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Teaching time									
Day long	13			12			11		
Double session	27			21			1		
Class student number		28.16	6.68		28.81	5.42		31.33	3.89
Teacher number		43.04	21.39		64.65	32.25		66.07	22.48
School student number		963.95	552.29		1209.84	642.53		999.26	399.76

3.3. Instruments

To assess the hypothesized relationships, the scales of Trust in Principal and Trust in MONE (developed by the researcher), Poor Change Management History (PCMH) Beliefs Scale (Bordia et al., 2011), Perceived Organizational Support Scale (Eisenberg, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Özdemir, 2010), Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) (Gençöz, 2000; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), Commitment to Change Scale (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Toprak & Aydın, 2013), Job Satisfaction Scale (Tezer, 1991; 2001), and Innovation Implementation Behavior Scale (Choi, 2000) were used.

The demographic form prepared by the researcher was also incorporated to these scales and the combination of these constituted the data collection instrument of this study. In order to provide initial validity and reliability evidences for the scales utilized, pilot study was conducted and the results of the pilot study were presented below.

3.3.1. Pilot study

The sample of the pilot study comprised of 468 public school teachers. The sample was recruited from 46 schools selected randomly from 8 provinces in Ankara. Almost half of the participants were primary school teachers (44.4%) while only 13% of them were high school teachers. Of the sample, the number of females exceeded ($N = 361$) the number of males ($N = 107$) and the mean age was 39.71 ($SD = 8.03$). Of the sample, teaching experience showed great variation with the mean of 16.30 years ($SD = 8.02$) while teachers' experiences in their current schools was within the range of 1 month to 29 years. Majority of the participants reported that they did not hold any administrative duty before (81.2%). Similarly, 56% of the participants reported that they did not have any in-service training with the current and past changes.

Before running the validation and reliability analysis, the recommended assumptions of missing value analysis, univariate outliers, univariate normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity, multivariate outliers, and multivariate normality were checked for each scale one by one (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Although the number of missing cases did not exceed 5% on any of the variables, Little's MCAR test gave out significant results for two scales (i.e., PANAS and Job Satisfaction scale); meaning that missing values did not follow a random fashion. For these scales, one-way ANOVAs and chi-squares were run to understand whether missingness was caused by any of the individual or school level variables explored; that is, whether a certain group refused to respond to some items. Results indicated that missingness on the variable of job satisfaction depended on age in such a way that increase in age resulted in increase in missing responses. However, other individual or school level variables were not found to create variation in the missingness. Moreover, independent samples t-tests were run to check whether missingness on these two variables created significant difference on other critical variables of the study (Hair, Black, Babin, &

Anderson, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Results revealed that there was no significant mean difference on the variables of interests between the ones who responded to all the items on PANAS and Job Satisfaction scales and who had at least one missing score on any of the items. These findings suggested that missingness did not create significant variation on the variables of this study; therefore, they were deleted from the data set on each variable separately. Similarly, for the scales that Little's MCAR test gave out non-significant results, missing cases were also deleted since Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggested that each way of handling missing data gives out similar results when they are not systematic and do not exceed 5%. In the validation process, separate samples were used for each scale in order not to reduce the sample size and lose variation with the deletion of all missing cases on all variables at the same time.

Univariate outliers were detected by computing standardized z-scores. As recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), cases with z-scores exceeding 3.29 ($p < .001$, two-tailed test) were regarded as potential outliers. The results revealed some cases with z-scores exceeding the recommended value on the variables of job satisfaction, emotion, and trust in MONE. Univariate outliers were not deleted before checking the multivariate outliers. Multivariate outliers were detected by computing Mahalanobis distance for each variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Mahalanobis distance was computed for each variable and the ones exceeding the critical chi-square was regarded as multivariate outliers ($p < .001$). The results showed the presence of some multivariate outliers in each of the data sets. Therefore, three alternative data sets were created for each scale utilized in this study. More specifically, deleting all univariate and multivariate outliers at the same time, deleting only the same cases that are both univariate and multivariate outliers, and retaining all of them in the data set were the three ways used to create alternative data sets. The decision regarding whether to delete these cases or not was made by considering the results of factor analyses. All factor analysis results for each variable showed better fits with the data that all univariate and multivariate outliers were deleted. Therefore, factor analysis for

each variable was run with the data that all univariate and multivariate outliers deleted. Regarding the sample size criterion, the data for each variable was adequately high enough to run Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) when the recommendation of Kline (2011) was considered for the sample size to be around 200.

Univariate normality assumption was validated through the inspection of skewness and kurtosis values, tests of normality (Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk), histograms, Q-Q plots, and box-plots (Kline, 2011). The results showed that all items on each variable deviate little from normality although some indications showed reasonably normal distribution for some items. Multivariate normality checks, on the other hand, were made through running Mardia's tests (Kline, 2011). The results revealed that all variables violated multivariate normality assumption. To remedy this violation, principal axis factoring extraction method was selected in Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) since it is robust against non-normality (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). For CFAs, on the other hand, more robust Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation method of Satorra-Bentler scaled χ^2 was recommended for severely non-normal data, which gives out robust standard errors and corrected test statistics when normality assumption is violated (Finney & DiStefano, 2006; Kline, 2011). However, as noted by Finney and DiStefano (2006) for the samples that are moderately non-normal (skewness < 2, kurtosis < 7), ML estimation is fairly robust. Following this recommendation, CFAs for each scale were run twice in this phase of the study; one of which was conducted with Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation and the other one with Satorra-Bentler correction. CFA results acquired with these alternative methods were almost the same for all scales utilized. Therefore, results with ML estimation were presented in the pilot study.

Linearity and homoscedasticity assumptions were checked through the inspection of bivariate scatter plots (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Because of the large number of items, scatter plots of random pairs were inspected. Visual inspection

of scatter plots indicated that bivariate relationships depart little from linearity and homoscedasticity, which suggested the validation of these assumptions. Moreover, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) stated that violation of homoscedasticity assumption do not give out fatal results for ungrouped data, which is the case for this study.

Finally, multicollinearity assumption was checked for each scale one by one. As suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), presence of bivariate correlations exceeding .90 is the indication of multicollinearity. Visual inspection of correlation matrix for the items of each variable separately indicated that majority of the items were significantly and highly correlated but there was no correlation exceeding .90, thus, multicollinearity assumption was validated for each variable.

Following the assumption check, EFAs were run to determine the factor structure of newly developed scales by using IBM SPSS Statistics 22. Moreover, CFAs were run to ensure the factor structures of the newly adapted and pre-developed scales for the current sample by using AMOS 18 Software. As suggested by Byrne (2010), several different criteria should be used to assess model fit in CFA because each has some limitations. Kline (2011) proposed three classes of model fit indexes. In this study, model chi-square (χ^2), χ^2/df value, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) were used to represent absolute fit index class; Root Mean Square of Error Approximation (RMSEA) with 90% confidence interval was used to represent parsimony-adjusted index class, and Bentler Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) were used to represent incremental fit indexes class (Kline, 2011). These fit indexes are described as follows.

Model Chi-Square (χ^2): It is a goodness-of-fit statistics with higher probability values indicating close fit between the hypothesized model and the covariance matrix (Byrne, 2010; Kline, 2011). While using χ^2 test statistics some caveats should be kept in mind that it is highly sensitive to large sample sizes so that it tends to give significant results and it is also sensitive to multivariate normality

since it is based on ML estimation. To compensate these limitations, normed chi-square (χ^2/df) was also reported and the cut-off 3 was used to assess acceptable fit in this study (Kline, 2011).

Mean Square of Error Approximation (RMSEA): It is a badness-of-fit index that is based on the comparison between the hypothesized and independence model and indicates good fit when this value approximates to zero (Kline, 2011). A value lower than .08 is considered as the indication of acceptable fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993), while a value lower than .06 is regarded as the indication of good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The precision of RMSEA value is recommended to be assessed with 90% confidence intervals, in such a way that narrow confidence intervals suggests good precision and vice versa (Byrne, 2010; MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996). In addition, Jöreskog and Sörbom (1996) noted that the closeness of fit to be assessed by PCLOSE value, which is suggested to be non-significant for better model fits.

The Bentler Comparative Fit Index (CFI): It is a fit index that assesses the improvement in the model by comparing the hypothesized and independence model (Kline, 2011). CFI can have the values within the range of 0 and 1 and the values approximate to 1 indicate good fit. Although Bentler (1992) posited that the values higher than .90 indicate acceptable model fit, Hu and Bentler (1999), later, recommended values greater than .95 as the indication of good fit.

Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI): Similar to CFI, TLI have the values within the range of 0 to 1 with higher values indicate better model fit. According to Hu and Bentler (1999), values approximate to .95 indicate good fit with large sample sizes.

Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR): It is “an average discrepancy between the correlations observed in the input matrix and the correlations predicted by the model” (Brown, 2015, p. 70). The value equals or smaller than .8 was considered acceptable by Hu and Bentler (1999). However, SRMR values

equal and below .10 was generally considered acceptable for reasonable model fits (Kline, 2005).

Kline (2011) recommended using item parcels for the scales with more than 5 items while conducting CFA. Item parceling is a method that uses sums or means of two or more items under to the same dimension instead of using individual items in SEM analyses (Bandalos & Finney, 2009). It is a method that reduces the number of parameters appropriate for sample size (Williams & O'Boyle, 2008). Improved fit indices are amongst the other reasons of using item parcels in SEM. Bandalos (2002) supported this argument that parceling items that are uni-dimensional results in reduced non-normality and improved model fits. He also suggested that item parceling reduces the distortion caused by non-normality on the fit indices of RMSEA and CFI as well. Rogers and Schmitt (2004); however, warned the ones in data analysis for the use of item parcels in the validation processes of newly developed instruments and he added that item parceling can “later be considered when the measure has been established and integrated in a larger theoretical model” (p. 380). Based on this notice, item parcels were used for the previously developed and used scales of PANAS, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Support but not for the newly developed trust scales in this study.

Following the factor analyses, internal consistency scores in terms of Cronbach's alpha were computed for each factor of all scales. Cronbach's alpha is a measure indicating the consistency of the given responses across the scale items (Kline, 2011). It is a score increases with the increment in the item number and generally Cronbach's alpha values greater than .70 is considered to be adequate enough, values close to .80 are considered as very good, and values close to .90 are considered as excellent (Field, 2009; Kline, 2011).

3.3.1.1. Trust in Principal and Trust in MONE Scales

The development and validation processes of Trust in Principal and Trust in MONE Scales were described in a detailed way below.

3.3.1.1.1. Instrument development process

A new scale that measures teachers' trust in principal and in MONE was developed within the scope of the present study. In this scale, trust in direct supervisor and top management was assessed with the same items. That is, the generic term of "supervisor" was used in each question and participants were asked to rate each question two times by considering both their school principal and MONE separately. However, each scale's factor structure for each reference group was assessed independently. The scale development process entailed the construction of the relevant dimensions, item generation, expert opinions, cognitive interviews, pilot testing, and validity and reliability analyses for the instruments. Below, detailed description of the scale development process was presented.

3.3.1.1.2. Domains of the instruments and item generation

Following the common themes of trust definitions and the recommendations made on the dimensionality of trust measures in the latest trust measures review article (McEvily & Tortoriello, 2011), two domains of the trust scale were emerged as willingness to be vulnerable and optimistic expectations. However, it was criticized in the same review that majority of the trust measures developed so far (78% of trust measures) utilized a uni-dimensional factor structure. Moreover, noteworthy trust measures in the literature were also criticized in such a way that some of them focused on only the willingness aspect while some of them focused on only the expectation aspect of trust. Therefore, further studies are recommended that combine these two conceptual elements in one study. Based on this gap in the literature, items representing willingness and expectation domains were created. Optimistic expectations in this study was defined as desirable behaviors of the trustee (Ferrin, Bligh, & Kohles, 2008) while willingness to be vulnerable was defined as the desire to take risk in trust-based relationships at the expense of losing valued things (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). Thus, willingness of individuals was concluded to depend

on their expectations (McEvily & Tortoriello, 2011). Moreover, in addition to the trustors' propensity to trust, willingness to be vulnerable is tied to the trusted ones' trustworthiness which is conceptualized with benevolence, integrity, and ability (Mayer & Davis, 1999). Therefore, while developing the items, these three facets of trustworthiness were represented under two dimensions of the scale. Through reviewing the literature and considering the recommended factor structure, the initial item pool that consisted of 34 items was created. Of these items, 11 were designed for the dimension of willingness to be vulnerable and 23 items were written for the dimension of optimistic expectations. Sample item from the willingness to be vulnerable subscale is "if I had an opportunity, I wouldn't let my superiors to make job-related decisions on behalf of me" and from optimistic expectations subscale "my supervisors apply the rules equally for every teachers" (Appendix C).

The items developed were used to assess the participants' level of trust in their immediate supervisor (i.e., school principal) and the top management of our educational system; that is MONE. This type of measurement was recommended in the latest trust literature because trust-based relationships with these two-level managers cause different concerns and outcomes on the part of the employees. That is, relations with the upper level management have implications on employees' internalization and support of managerial interventions and organizational goals in the long run but relations with the direct supervisor have greater effect on employees' daily work routines (Yang & Mossholder, 2010). Therefore, discriminating the foci of trust on the part of the employees in the change context is vital for highly centralized Turkish educational system in order to better understand the relative contribution of these two relationships in the formation of change-related emotions and attitudes.

3.3.1.1.3. Expert opinions and content validation

Three experts in the field of educational administration and planning and one expert in the field of psychology assessed content validity of the developed scales.

Each expert was given a form that queries his evaluation on four different areas. Firstly, the experts assessed item clarity and appropriateness for the target group (i.e., public school teachers working at primary, secondary, and high school levels). Secondly, the experts rated the appropriateness of the items for the designed dimensions. Thirdly, the experts were asked to assess whether the selected variables for the validation process were appropriate or not. Fourthly, the experts assessed the clearness and appropriateness of the directions designed. Moreover, the experts were asked to provide alternative item options for each domain if they needed.

The experts mostly rated the items clear and appropriate for the target group and intended domain but made some suggestions on the sentence structures and wordings to make the unclear items clearer. With the recommendations of the experts, 1 item was dropped from the second dimension and some modifications were made in wordings and sentence structures.

3.3.1.1.4. Cognitive interviews

Four separate cognitive interviews were conducted with two public primary, one public secondary, and one public high school teachers. In addition, three more separate interviews were conducted with two primary and one secondary level vice principals. The participant teachers have at least 7 years of teaching experience and two of them were classroom teachers. The principals, similarly, have at least 8 years of teaching experience and 1 year of administrative experience. In each interview, the participants were asked to evaluate each item for their clarity and appropriateness. Moreover, they assessed the clearness of the directions, adequacy of the rating scale choice, length, and appearance of the scale. They were also asked to add alternative items if they needed.

Cognitive interviews indicated the presence of unclear items and wordings that seem useless in the real educational setting. Moreover, both participant teachers and principals suggested some item alternatives regarding their expectations from

these trust-based relationships. With the feedback received from the participants, some items were revised to be appropriate for the real school setting and 6 new items were generated. However, the participants criticized the length of the scale, which take too much time and effort to fill out and presence of duplicated items. Therefore, 8 items were dropped from the scale to reduce the item number and eliminate the duplicated items. The final scale comprised of 31 items with 10 items designed for willingness to be vulnerable dimension and 21 items for optimistic expectations dimension.

3.3.1.1.5. Exploratory Factor Analysis procedure

Before moving on the EFAs, the sample size adequacy and required assumptions were checked. Hair et al. (2006) proposed that 5 cases for 1 item is an acceptable ratio to run EFA but 10:1 is suggested to be a more ideal ratio. Moreover, presence of bivariate correlations exceeding .30, significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, and Kaiser-Mayer Olkin (KMO) value exceeding .60 are the assumptions indicating the factorability of the data (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2006).

As a factor extraction method, principal axis factoring was used due to its robustness against non-normality (Fabrigar et al., 1999) and as a rotation method, oblique rotation was used because it allows for factor correlation (Preacher & MacCallum, 2003). In factor extraction, in addition to the proposed theory (Hinkin, 1998), several other different criteria were used; that is, eigenvalues greater than 1, scree plot, and explained variance to be greater than 60% (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003) were the considerations used in deciding number of factors.

For the interpretation of the rotated pattern matrix, item loadings within the range of .30 to .40 were recommended to be the minimum acceptable value (Hair et al., 2006). However, for practical significance, .50 was used as the cutoff for item loadings in this study with the recommendations of Hair et al. (2010). While

eliminating the items from the scales, in addition to the factor loadings, content validity of the scale was also taken into consideration.

3.3.1.1.5.1. Validity and reliability of Trust in Principal Scale

After the deletion of univariate and multivariate outliers, a sample made up of 363 cases was acquired. Of the sample, 76.5% was female and 23.5% was male with the mean age of 39.40 ($SD = 7.89$). Teaching experience of the participants showed great variation to have the range from .5 year to 45 years. In addition, majority of the participants reported that they did not attend any in-service training before about the current and the past changes (58.8%).

Before running the analysis, aforementioned assumptions of EFA were validated for the current sample. Firstly, regarding the sample size criterion, 363 cases for 39 items were considered to be high enough to run EFA. Secondly, the correlation matrix revealed the presence of correlations greater than .30 among scale items, which implied the presence of underlying factor structure. Also, Bartlett's test to be significant ($\chi^2 = 13312.70$, $p = .00$) and KMO value to be greater than .60 ($KMO = .98$) ensured the factorability of the data. Due to violation of multivariate normality assumption, EFA was run with principal axis factoring method. Presence of correlated factors also ensured the use of oblique rotation in the analysis.

Based on the criterion of eigenvalues greater than 1, the initial EFA results indicated three-factor solution with some cross-loading items and items with loadings lower than .30. Although 60% of variance accomplished with this three-factor model, the items initially designed for different factors loaded under different dimensions. Scree plot, however, indicated one-factor solution for the model (Appendix K). Moreover, one of the dimensions proposed consisted of three items, which is lower than the recommended value to be 4 or more (Costello & Osborne, 2005). After the elimination of 4 problematic items in subsequent steps, the final EFA indicated one-factor solution that explained 68.25% of total

variance. However, alternative factor structures based on the criteria of scree plot and theory were also tested.

The second trial was made based on the scree plot criterion. The initial model indicated the presence of two items that have loadings lower than .30. After the elimination of these items in subsequent steps, 64.39% of variance was achieved by the one-factor solution. The final model indicated the presence of two items with loadings lower than .50. After these items were eliminated, one-factor model with the loading of 27 items explained 68.25% of variance. The items deleted in the current EFA were the same ones deleted in the previous EFA. This model seemed a reasonable one; however, the final decision was made after the two-factor solution was tested, which based on the proposed theory for the model criterion.

Two-factor solution was forced in the final analysis. Initial model showed the presence of some items with loadings lower than .30 and two items loaded on the second dimension; one of which is a cross-loading one. After the deletion of 3 items in subsequent steps (loadings lower than .30), all items loaded on the same factor, which explained 66.34% of variance. However, there was still an item with an item loading around .35. Considering the cutoff for item loadings determined (.50) this item was also eliminated. The final model consisted of 27 items loaded on the same one factor, which accounted for by 68.32% of variance. Since this model also gave out the same results with the previous ones, one factor model was accepted for this study that was made up of 27 items (Table 4). Therefore, in this study, one-factor solution, as a support to the previous literature, was also verified in Turkish school context as well.

The internal consistency score computed in terms of Cronbach's alpha indicated very good reliability for the scale to be .98. Also, no item was concluded to improve Cronbach's alpha if it was deleted from the scale. Table 4 indicates the factor loadings of the retained items with percentage of variance explained and the Cronbach's alpha value.

Table 4

Factor Loadings, Variance Explained, and Reliability of Trust in Principal Scale

Item	Factor loadings	% of variance	Cronbach's alpha
Item 13	.88		
Item 15	.88		
Item 7	.88		
Item 14	.88		
Item 21	.87		
Item 23	.87		
Item 12	.87		
Item 9	.87		
Item 10	.87		
Item 22	.87		
Item 19	.86		
Item 11	.86		
Item 8	.85		
Item 20	.84	68.25	.98
Item 29	.83		
Item 26	.83		
Item 24	.83		
Item 6	.83		
Item 4	.81		
Item 18	.80		
Item 30	.80		
Item 28	.78		
Item 1	.77		
Item 17	.77		
Item 25	.74		
Item 2	.73		
Item 5	.62		

3.3.1.1.5.2. Validity and reliability of Trust in MONE Scale

After the deletion of univariate and multivariate outliers, a sample made up of 311 cases was acquired. Of the sample, 77.1% was female and 22.9% was male with the mean age of 39.60 ($SD = 7.69$). Teaching experience of the participants showed great variation to have the range of .50 to 41 years. In addition, majority of the participants reported that they did not attend any in-service training before about the current and the past changes (55.4%).

Before running the analysis, aforementioned assumptions of EFA were validated for the current sample. Firstly, regarding the sample size criterion, 311 cases for 39 items were considered to be high enough to run EFA. Secondly, the correlation matrix revealed the presence of correlations greater than .30 among scale items, which implied the presence of underlying factor structure. Also, Bartlett's test to be significant ($\chi^2 = 9767.33$, $p = .00$) and KMO value to be greater than .60 (KMO = .98) ensured the factorability of the data. Due to violation of multivariate normality assumption, EFA was run with principal axis factoring method. Presence of correlated factors also ensured the use of oblique rotation in the analysis.

The initial EFA results based on the criterion of eigenvalues greater than 1 indicated four-factor solution with a few cross-loading items and items with loadings lower than .30. Similarly, two dimensions included three items; lower than the proposed cutoff of 4 (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Although the cumulative variance explained was 67.21%, the items initially designed for different factors loaded under the same dimension. After the elimination of problematic items, the model still had some problems concerning the number of items loaded on one factor and content of the factors were not distinguishable. Scree plot, on the other hand, indicated one-factor solution for the model. Therefore, alternative factor structures were tested for this scale (Appendix L).

The second trial was made based on the scree plot criterion; therefore, one factor solution was forced. The initial model indicated the presence of three items that have loadings lower than .30. After the elimination of these items in subsequent steps, 66.09% of variance was achieved by the solution. The final model indicated the presence of an item with loading lower than .50. After the elimination of this item, one-factor model with the loading of 27 items explained 68.17% of variance. This model seemed a reasonable one; however, the final decision was made after the two-factor solution was tested, which based on the proposed theory for the model criterion.

Two-factor solution was forced in the final analysis. Initial model showed that all items again loaded on one factor and there were four items with factor loadings lower than .30. After the elimination of three of these items in subsequent steps, the results indicated that the item with low loading ($< .30$) loaded on the same factor but with a low factor loading of .31, which was also removed from the scale in subsequent step. After the elimination of this item, this solution achieved 68.29% of variance. Therefore, as the final model, one-factor solution with the loading of 27 items was retained since each EFA results signified the same problematic four items (Table 5).

Table 5

Factor Loadings, Variance Explained, and Reliability of Trust in MONE Scale

Item	Factor loadings	% of variance	Cronbach's alpha
Item 12	.90		
Item 21	.89		
Item 11	.88		
Item 13	.88		
Item 22	.88		
Item 10	.87		
Item 9	.87		
Item 7	.86		
Item 26	.86		
Item 8	.86		
Item 15	.86		
Item 23	.85		
Item 20	.85		
Item 19	.85	68.17	.98
Item 28	.84		
Item 14	.84		
Item 17	.79		
Item 25	.79		
Item 4	.79		
Item 6	.79		
Item 29	.78		
Item 1	.77		
Item 24	.77		
Item 2	.77		
Item 30	.76		
Item 18	.75		
Item 5	.68		

As in the case of Trust in Principal Scale, one-factor solution with completely the same item set was verified for this reference group as well and was parallel with the literature in that optimistic expectations and willingness to be vulnerable dimensions are indistinguishable domains in Turkish school context.

The internal consistency score computed in terms of Cronbach's alpha indicated very good reliability for the scale to be .98. Also, no item was concluded to improve Cronbach's alpha if it was deleted from the scale.

3.3.1.2. Poor Change Management History (PCMH) Beliefs Scale

In order to assess change recipients' experiences with the management of prior changes, PCMH beliefs scale developed by Bordia et al. (2011) was used. The one-dimensional scale includes eight items and asks participants level of agreement through 7-point likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (7). In the development process, CFA was conducted and the data ensured one-dimensional factor structure of the scale. Sample item from the scale is "Past change initiatives have failed to achieve their intended purpose" (Appendix D). The reported reliability coefficients are .86 and .79 for the development phase and the subsequent validation process respectively. As presented by the authors, the higher scores received from the scale means perceived poor change history of the organization. In the present study, the scale was adapted to Turkish school context.

3.3.1.2.1. Translation and adaptation process of the instrument

PCMH beliefs scale was adapted to Turkish context within the scope of this study. After the scale developers' permission was obtained, four academicians expert in the field of education and proficient in English translated each item from English to Turkish. Following the translation process, the items that best represent the meaning of the original items were selected by an expert in the field of Educational Administration and Planning and by the researcher. Selected items were back translated to English by an expert in education and English to ensure

meaning equivalency. After the back translation process, some minor modifications were made. Subsequently, the scale was sent to four experts in the field of educational sciences and their feedback on the sentence structures, clearness and wordings of all items were received. With the given feedback, the items were finalized for pilot testing.

3.3.1.2.2. Validity and reliability of PCMH Beliefs Scale

After the deletion of multivariate outliers, the sample made up of 401 cases was acquired. Of the sample, 77.4% was female and 22.6% was male with the mean age of 39.84 ($SD = 8.14$). Teaching experience of the participants showed great variation to be within the range of .50 to 45 years. In addition, majority of the participants reported that they did not attend any in-service training before about the current and the past changes (57.2%).

To ensure the factor structure of Turkish version of the PCMH Beliefs scale for the current sample, CFA was run. The initial CFA results indicated poorly fitting model with $\chi^2(20) = 562.73$, $p = .00$, $\chi^2/df = 28.14$. Other fit indices also supported the inadequate model fit (RMSEA = .26, CFI = .61, TLI = .45, & SRMR = .14). When modification indices were inspected, however, it was noticed that all negatively worded items were highly correlated with each other and each pair combination required error covariance. After all negative items were allowed to covary with the inclusion of error covariances ($\varepsilon_3-\varepsilon_4$, $\varepsilon_2-\varepsilon_7$, $\varepsilon_2-\varepsilon_3$, $\varepsilon_2-\varepsilon_4$, $\varepsilon_4-\varepsilon_7$, $\varepsilon_3-\varepsilon_7$), CFA results indicated acceptable model fit ($\chi^2(14) = 32.52$, $p = .00$, $\chi^2/df = 2.32$). Other fit indices also indicated good fitting model with RMSEA value of .058 (90% CI = .03 - .08, $p_{close} = .29$), CFI value of .99, TLI value of .97, and SRMR value of .03. Standardized estimates ranged from .32 to .87; however, only one item had .24. This item was decided to be retained in the model and the decision whether to delete it or not was made based on the results of the measurement model.

The reliability of the scale computed in terms of Cronbach's alpha was .83 and all items were found to contribute this reliability. Therefore, no item was concluded to be dropped from the scale but CFA results suggested that negatively worded items should be worded positively to be used in the main study. Therefore, in the main study, all negative items were reworded to be positive due to high error covariances between them.

3.3.1.3. Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS)

In order to measure participants' positive and negative emotions towards change, PANAS scale (Watson et al., 1988) was used. Both negative and positive affect dimensions of the scale comprised of 10 items and ask for participants' rating for the frequency they have experienced emotions listed over a specified time period. The five points of the rating scale range from *very slightly* or *not at all* (1) to *very much* (5). The authors presented factor analysis results and computed the internal consistency scores for five different time frames. The reported reliability scores in terms of Cronbach's alpha were ranging from .84 to .87 for negative affect dimension and .86 to .90 for positive affect dimension for the moment, today, past few days, past few weeks, year, and general time instructions. Test-retest reliability scores were also presented and ensured the level of stability for two dimensions of the scale. Further, concurrent validity evidences were also provided with high correlations with related constructs (e.g., Beck Depression Inventory). Sample item from the positive affect subscale is "enthusiastic"; from the negative affect subscale is "nervous" (Appendix E).

Turkish adaptation of the scale was performed by Gençöz (2000), which was the version used in this study. For the Turkish sample, the same factor structure was retained (EFA) and utilized the same rating scale. The internal consistency score reported for negative affect dimension was .86 and it was .83 for positive affect dimension. Test-retest reliability scores presented for negative and positive affect dimensions were .54 and .40. Moreover, concurrent validity evidences were

provided for each dimension by presenting significant correlations with Beck Depression Inventory and Beck Anxiety Inventory.

In the present study, the scale was used to assess teachers' change-related emotions; thus, participants were asked the frequency they have felt positive and negative emotions in the list when they considered the important events they experienced with the 4+4+4 change TES has been undergoing.

3.3.1.3.1. Validity and reliability of PANAS

After missing values and outliers were handled, the sample made up of 389 cases was acquired. Of the sample, 78.4% was female and 21.6% was male with the mean age of 39.45 ($SD = 7.93$). Teaching experience of the participants showed great variation to be between the range of .25 and 45 years. In addition, majority of the participants reported that they did not attend any in-service training before about the current and the past changes (56%).

In the present study, the scale was subjected to CFA to test whether the original factor structure fits the current data. In the model testing, the dimensions of positive and negative emotions were introduced to be correlated given the findings of Gençöz (2000) that showed moderate correlation between these two factors. For each dimension of the scale three item parcels were created based on the means of the items. Initial two parcels made up of three items and the other parcel made up of four items for each dimension. Therefore, two factorial model with each had 3 indicators was tested in this study.

CFA results showed good fitting model ($\chi^2(8) = 8.95, p = .35$) and $\chi^2/df = 1.12$. Other fit indices also showed good fit with RMSEA value of .02 (90% CI = .00 - .06, $p_{close} = .85$), CFI value of .99, TLI value of .99, and SRMR value of .02. Standardized estimates of the model were within the range of .91 to .94 for positive affect dimension and .82 to .91 for negative affect dimension.

Reliability scores for each dimension were computed and the results indicated that Cronbach's alpha was .95 for positive affect dimension and .89 for negative affect dimension.

3.3.1.4. Perceived Organizational Support Scale

The scale was developed to measure employees' perceptions about the support they received from their organization by Eisenberg et al. (1986). The scale comprised of 36 items, half of which were reversely scored ones. EFA results presented by the scale developers indicated that all items loaded under one dimension. The items query participants' level of agreement on 7-point likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (7). Computed reliability score for the one factor solution was .97.

The short form of the scale was adapted to Turkish by Özdemir (2010) with the data gathered from schools, which includes 15 items. Although 7-point Likert scale was utilized in the original version of the scale, 5-point Likert scale was utilized in Turkish version that ranges from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). Of the items, 6 were reversed coded. Sample item from the scale is "The ones in my school care about my opinions" (Appendix F). EFA results presented by the author showed that all items loaded on one factor and reliability score computed was .89. After the reversed scores items were transformed to be positive, the higher scores received from the scale indicates higher organizational support perceived by the employees.

3.3.1.4.1 Validity and reliability of Perceived Organizational Support Scale

Since the scale was a pre-developed one and used in Turkish context before, CFA was run to test whether the same factor structure fits the current data well. After the data were screened for missing values and univariate and multivariate outliers, the analyses were run with the data that consisted of 391 cases. Of the sample, 77.2% was female and 22.4% was male with the mean age of 39.05 ($SD = 7.53$).

Teaching experience of the participants showed great variation to be within the range of .25 to 45 years. In addition, majority of the participants reported that they did not attend any in-service training before about the current and the past changes (55.2%).

Since the short-form of perceived organizational support scale includes 15 items, four item parcels were created based on the item means. Initial two parcels made up of three items and the other two parcels made up of four items. Therefore, one-factorial model with four indicators were tested in this study. CFA results showed good fitting model ($\chi^2(2) = 1.85, p = .40$) with χ^2/df value to be .93. Other fit indices also showed good fit with RMSEA value of .00 (90% CI = .00 - .10, $p_{close} = .67$), CFI value of 1.00, TLI value of 1.00, and SRMR value of .01. Standardized estimates of the model were within the range of .81 to .90.

The internal consistency of the scale was ensured through computing Cronbach's alpha value. The results revealed good reliability by yielding the value of .93.

3.3.1.5. Commitment to Change Scale

The original scale was developed to measure employees' commitment to a specific change (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002) under the dimensions of affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. More specifically, affective commitment dimension was focused on individuals' desires to support the change by considering its inherent benefits and includes 6 items; continuance commitment dimension was focused on the potential costs of not supporting the change and involves 6 items; normative commitment dimension was focused on the perceived obligation to give support for the change and includes 6 items. Participant's level of agreement was queried on 7-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (7). EFA results were presented as construct validity evidence. Cronbach's alpha scores computed were high to be .94, .94, and .86 for affective, continuance, and normative commitment respectively. A second study conducted by the authors provided another construct

validity evidence for the three-dimensional and 18-itemed scale. More specifically, CFAs were run with the initial 22-itemed version, 18-itemed version, and alternative versions of the scale that includes 2 dimensions (one of which was created by combining two dimensions). The comparison of all model fit indexes showed that 3-dimensional 18-itemed scale better fit to the data than alternative models with $\chi^2(132) = 239.13$ and RMSEA value of .072. The reliability scores computed for this new data set were .92, .71, and .78 for affective, continuance, and normative commitment dimensions respectively. Sample items from affective commitment subscale is “This change is a good strategy for this organization”; from continuance commitment subscale “I have no choice but to go along with this change”; and from normative commitment subscale “I feel a sense of duty to work toward this change” (Appendix G).

The scale was adapted to Turkish by Toprak and Aydın (2015). Turkish version of the scale comprised of 16 items, 6 of which measure affective commitment; 5 of which measure normative commitment, and 5 of which measure continuance commitment. Although 7-point Likert scale was utilized in the original version of the scale, 5-point Likert scale was utilized in its Turkish version. The authors provided both EFA and CFA results as construct validity evidences. EFA results indicated three-factor solution like the original scale but two items were dropped from the normative and continuance commitment dimensions. Therefore, the dimension of affective commitment involved 6 items, normative commitment involved 5 items, and continuance commitment dimension involved 5 items in Turkish adaptation of the scale. After the negatively worded items are reversely coded, higher scores received from the dimension of affective commitment indicates higher individual desire to support the change; higher scores received from the normative commitment dimension suggests higher obligation perceived to support the change; higher scores received from the continuance commitment dimension indicates higher perceived cost stemming from not supporting the change. Following EFA, reliability scores were computed were .85, .77, and .75 for affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment

respectively. The authors also provided CFA results as additional construct validity evidence ($\chi^2/df = 2.65$, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .90, NNFI = .93, & GFI = .91). No reliability score were presented for the scale dimensions in the second phase of the study.

3.3.1.5.1. Validity and reliability of Commitment to Change Scale

After the missing cases and outliers were removed from the data, CFA was run to check whether the original factor structure of the scale fits the current data that made up of 398 cases. Of the sample, 78.5% was female and 21.5% was male with the mean age of 39.43 ($SD = 7.69$). Teaching experience of the participants showed great variation to be between the range of .25 and 41 years. In addition, majority of the participants reported that they did not attend any in-service training before about the current and the past changes (57.6%).

The initial CFA results indicated poorly fitting model with $\chi^2(101) = 401.89$, $p = 3.98$ ($p = .00$) and $\chi^2/df = 3.98$. Other fit indices also showed poor fit with RMSEA value of .09 (90% CI = .08 - .10, $p_{close} = .00$), CFI value of .90, TLI value of .88, and SRMR value of .10. When the modification indices were checked, three error covariances were added between the error terms of 2nd and 3rd items, 1st and 3rd items of normative commitment dimension and 1st and 5th items of continuance commitment dimension. The final model indicated reasonable fit although chi-square was still significant ($\chi^2(98) = 335.26$, $p = .00$) with $\chi^2/df = 3.42$. Other fit indices of RMSEA to be .08 (90% CI = .07 - .09, $p_{close} = .00$), SRMR to be .09, CFI to be .93, and TLI to be .91 suggested acceptable but mediocre fit. However, when the latent correlations were inspected, the results showed that there is a high correlation between affective and normative commitment ($r = .84$). According to Kline (2011), correlations around .85 were regarded as the indication of multicollinearity between latent variables; therefore, it was concluded for this study that there was multicollinearity between affective and normative commitments. This finding was in support with the arguments of scale developers who indicated overlap between these two dimensions (Meyer,

Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Therefore, in this study, affective and continuance commitment dimensions of the scale were used to eliminate the risk of multicollinearity and normative commitment to change dimension was omitted from this study.

In the subsequent model tested without normative commitment dimension, the other two dimensions of the scale were allowed to correlate based on the findings of Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) that showed correlation between scale dimensions. The results of the initial CFA indicated mediocre fit between the model and the data ($\chi^2(43) = 145.33, p = .00$) & $\chi^2/df = 3.38$). Other fit indices also showed acceptable model fit with RMSEA value of .08 (90% CI = .06 - .09, $p_{close} = .00$), CFI value of .95, TLI value of .94, and SRMR value of .09. With the recommendations of Arbuckle (1999), modification indices were checked and an error covariance was added between the errors of items 2 and 10, which both belong to commitment to change dimension. Inclusion of this error covariance improved the two-factor model slightly. The results showed acceptable model fit ($\chi^2(42) = 133.48, p = .00$, & $\chi^2/df = 3.18$) with RMSEA value of .07 (90% CI = .06 - .09, $p_{close} = .00$), CFI value of .96, TLI value of .95, and SRMR value of .08. Standardized estimates of the model were within the range of .39 to .91; however, an item that belong to continuance commitment dimension (item 6) have lower standardized estimate of .28. Although these findings suggested that the item could be dropped from the scale, it was retained for the main study.

The reliabilities of the two dimensions of the scale were computed in terms of Cronbach's alpha as .92 for affective commitment and .67 for continuance commitment dimensions. The same item that had low loading (item 6) in the continuance commitment dimension was found to increase the reliability if removed from the scale. Therefore, the decision regarding whether to drop or retain this item was made considering the findings in the main study.

3.3.1.6. Job Satisfaction Scale

The scale was developed to measure individuals' level of satisfaction they get from their job (Tezer, 1991) and its validity and reliability were re-examined in 2001 by Tezer again. The scale was designed as a uni-dimensional one with 10 positively worded items (Tezer, 1991). The range of responses given to the items were within 1 to 4 which means the lowest score received from the scale was 10 while the highest score was 40. Moreover, the higher score received from the scale means higher job satisfaction on the part of the employees. The reliability score computed with Spearman-Brown formula was reported to be .91.

The validity of the scale was re-examined by Tezer in 2001 again and in this study principal component analysis revealed the same factor structure with the same items (Tezer, 2001). The reliability score computed in terms of Cronbach's alpha was .81. The author also provided concurrent validity evidences in such a way that significant correlations were concluded between Job Satisfaction Scale and Job Descriptive Index (Ergin, 1997), Job Satisfaction Scale (Şahin & Durak, 1994), Maslach Burnout Inventory (Ergin, 1992; Sucuoğlu & Kuloğlu, 1996) and Sources of Occupational Stress Scale (Güney & Demir, 1997; Pehlivan, 1993, as cited in Tezer, 2001). A sample item from the scale is "Do you believe that your accomplishments in your job are appreciated by your superiors?" (Appendix H).

3.3.1.6.1. Validity and reliability of Job Satisfaction Scale

After handling the missing values and univariate and multivariate outliers, CFA was run with the data composed of 431 cases to ensure the model fit for the current data set. Of the sample, 78.6% was female and 21.4% was male with the mean age of 39.41 ($SD = 7.91$). Teaching experience of the participants showed great variation to be between the range of .25 and 45 years. In addition, majority of the participants reported that they did not attend any in-service training before about the current and the past changes (55.7%).

Since the scale includes 10 items, item parceling was used and 5 parcels made up of 2 items were created based on the mean scores of the items. Therefore, one-factor model with 5 indicators were tested in CFA. CFA results indicated good model fit with $\chi^2(5) = 10.16$, $p = .07$, and $\chi^2/df = 2.03$. Other fit indices also showed good model fit with RMSEA value of .05 (90% CI = .00 - .09, $p_{close} = .45$), CFI value of .99, TLI value of .97, and SRMR value of .02. Standardized estimates of the model were within the range of .53 to .84.

The internal consistency computed in terms of Cronbach's alpha was good by yielding the value of .84.

3.3.1.7. Innovation Implementation Behavior Scale

The scale was developed to measure the extent to which employees adapt themselves to the new implementations accompanied by an innovation initiated in the organization (Choi, 2000). The scale items developed were based on the results of the interviews made with the innovation experts. The scale comprised of 5 items and queries participants' agreement level on a 7-point scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (7). Sample item from the scale is "through ... (this blank should be filled with the change in your context), I am learning new ways of conducting my task" (Appendix I). The scales' factor structure was stated to be assured by computing reliability scores in terms of Cronbach's alpha. The reliability was satisfactory to be .94. The minimum score received from the scale is 5 and maximum score received is 35 and higher scores indicate higher innovation implementation behavior on the part of the employees.

3.3.1.7.1. Translation and adaptation process of the instrument

The scale was adapted to Turkish in this study. After the scale developers' permission was obtained, four academicians expert in the field of education and proficient in English translated each item from English to Turkish. Following the translation process, the items that best represent the meaning of the original items were selected by an expert in the field of Educational Administration And

Planning and by the researcher. Selected items were back translated to English by an expert in education and English to ensure meaning equivalency. After the back translation process, some minor modifications were made and the scale items were adapted to 4+4+4 change context by changing its innovation focus. Subsequently, the scale was sent to four experts in the field of educational sciences and their feedback on the sentence structures and clearness and wording of all items were received. With the given feedback, the items were finalized for pilot testing.

3.3.1.7.2. Validity and reliability of Innovation Implementation Behavior Scale

Following the missing value analysis and inspection of the univariate and multivariate outliers, CFA was run with the data composed of 435 cases. Of the sample, 77.1% was female and 22.9% was male with the mean age of 39.49 ($SD = 8.04$). Teaching experience of the participants showed great variation to be within the range of .50 to 45 years. In addition, majority of the participants reported that they did not attend any in-service training before about the current and the past changes (56.6%).

The initial CFA results indicated inadequate fit with $\chi^2(5) = 87.73$, $p = .00$, and $\chi^2/df = 17.546$. Other fit indices of RMSEA and TLI also indicated poor fitting model with the values of .20 and .83 respectively. However, SRMR value of .06 and CFI value of .91 suggested acceptable fit for the model. When the modification indices were inspected, the results suggested the inclusion of two covariances between ε_1 and ε_2 and ε_1 and ε_3 , which include very similar wordings, and one between ε_2 and ε_4 (Arbuckle, 1999). After the inclusion of these three error covariances in subsequent steps, CFA results indicated good model fit with $\chi^2(2) = .73$, $p = .69$, and $\chi^2/df = .37$. Other fit indices also indicated good fit with RMSEA value of .00 (90% CI = .00 - .07, $p_{close} = .88$), TLI value of 1.00, CFI value of 1.00 and SRMR value of .01. Standardized estimates have the range of .50 to .89.

Reliability score computed in terms of Cronbach's alpha was satisfactory to be .85 and no items were found to improve the reliability of the scale if deleted. Therefore, no item was deleted from the scale.

Given the satisfactory EEFA and CFA results, it was concluded that all scales utilized in this study have sufficient validity and reliability to be tested in the measurement and structural model.

3.3.1.8. Demographic information form

In order to provide background information about the participants and characteristics of the schools the data were collected, demographic information form was given to each participant (Appendix J). The form includes both individual and school level variables responded by the participants.

Regarding individual level variables, participants were asked to report their age, gender, field of teaching, department graduated from, year of teaching experience, and experience in the current school. Participants were also queried to report whether they attended any in-service training about the 4+4+4 change ($0 = \text{yes}$, $1 = \text{no}$). Moreover, previously held administrative duty (*school principal* = 0, *vice principal* = 1, *both* = 2, & *none* =3) and their job status in their current school (*permanent* = 0, *intern* = 1, & *substitute teacher* =2) were other individual-level questions asked in the demographic form.

Regarding school level variables, participant teachers were asked to respond to the questions of school level (*primary school* = 0, *secondary school* = 1, & *high school* = 2), average number of students in their classrooms, and the total teacher and student numbers in the school they were working at in the time of data collection.

3.4. Data Collection Process

Before moving on the data collection, the permission required from the Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Ethics Committee (Appendix A) was

received. Subsequently, after the school selection process, the permission from the Provincial Directorate of National Education in Ankara was received to collect data from public schools (Appendix B). Data collection for pilot study lasted six weeks in the spring semester of 2013-2014 academic year and lasted eight weeks in the fall semester of 2014-2015 academic year. In addition to the researcher, one graduate student was recruited to collaborate during the data collection of the pilot study and two graduate students were recruited during the data collection of the main study.

In the data collection process, the same questionnaire format prepared by the researcher was used in which scales for each set of variables were arranged in a random order rather than presented sequentially to eliminate the risk of guessing research question and providing desired responses. Specifically, following the demographic information form, emotion scale was presented, which was followed by history beliefs scale, trust scales, implementation behavior scale, commitment to change scale, organizational support scale, and job satisfaction scale:

The researcher and the graduate students recruited for each phase visited randomly selected schools. Before starting the data collection process, the graduate students recruited were informed about the process they should follow for the data collection by the researcher in order to eliminate the potential threat introduced by different data collector characteristics.

In each school visit, school principal was informed about the purpose of the study and his cooperation for the study was asked. With the allowance of the school principal, teachers' lounge was visited during the breaks and purpose of the study was again explained to teachers one by one. The volunteer teachers were given the informed consent form that assured their confidentiality and anonymity of the responses given. Moreover, no information was requested from the participants that could reveal their identity. After they signed the informed consent, the questionnaires were given with a large envelope. Participant teachers were asked to put the filled questionnaires in these envelopes and after they seal it, deliver it

to the researcher. Each researcher had a large bag in which they put the filled questionnaires in a random fashion to reduce the chance of revealing identity. Participant teachers generally filled out the questionnaires during their course session and the average time needed to fill in a questionnaire was 25 minutes.

3.5. Data Analysis

The purpose of this study was to test a model exploring the relationship between change antecedents (i.e., trust in principal and MONE, change history beliefs, organizational support), positive and negative change-related affect, change commitment (i.e., affective and continuance commitment), job satisfaction, and the outcome variable of change implementation behavior of public school teachers. To achieve this purpose, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was selected since this method allows for the modeling of multivariate relations, running simultaneous correlation based analysis to test the overall hypothesis rather than its parts by correcting measurement error, and provides information on the causal processes between variables (Byrne, 2010). Before moving on the main analysis, Missing Value Analysis (MVA) and assumption checks were conducted through the use of IBM SPSS 21. Descriptive analyses were conducted to present demographic characteristics of the participants and school level variables. Moreover, bivariate correlations among the variables of interest were computed and series of ANOVAs and t-tests were run to assess whether dependent variables of the study differ with school level, teaching time, and in-service training variables through the use of IBM SPSS 22 software. Before running the structural model, CFA was conducted to ensure the measurement model fit and then structural model was tested with the use of AMOS 18 software.

3.5.1. Description of the variables in the study

Since the major analysis of this study was SEM, the variables used were *latent variables* that are unobserved hypothetical constructs (Kline, 2011) contrary to the *manifest variables* that are observed indicators (items & item parcels in this

study). Therefore, mean or total scores for the scales were not computed to test measurement or structural models. In SEM, latent variables were classified into two, which are exogenous and endogenous variables (Byrne, 2010). *Exogenous latent variables* are equivalent with independent variables in meaning and they create change in the other variables of the model. The changes created by exogenous variables are explained by the model but the reverse is not true. *Endogenous latent variables*, on the other hand, have the same meaning with dependent variables and they are directly or indirectly influenced by the exogenous variables in the model.

In this study, the exogenous variables were perceived organizational support, change history beliefs, trust in principal, and trust in MONE while endogenous variables were, positive and negative change-related affect, continuance and affective commitment to change, job satisfaction, and change implementation behavior.

In the preliminary analysis part, on the other hand, the mean scores of the variables were computed to explore the bivariate correlations and to run ANOVAs and t-tests. Below, the description of the variables used in preliminary and descriptive analyses was presented.

Trust in Principal: The mean score received from the Trust in Principal Scale.

Trust in MONE: The mean score received from the Trust in MONE Scale.

Change History Beliefs: The mean score received from the Poor Change Management History Beliefs Scale.

Organizational Support: The mean score received from Perceived Organizational Support Scale.

Positive Affect: The mean score received from the Positive Affect subscale of Positive and Negative Affect Schedule.

Negative Affect: The mean score received from the Negative Affect subscale of Positive and Negative Affect Schedule.

Affective Commitment to Change: The mean score received from the Affective Commitment subscale of Commitment to Change Scale.

Continuance Commitment to Change: The mean score received from the Continuance Commitment subscale of Commitment to Change Scale.

Job Satisfaction: The mean score received from Job Satisfaction Scale.

Change Implementation Behavior: The mean score received from Innovation Implementation Behavior Scale.

3.5.2. Model testing

In model testing, the iterative steps recommended by Kline (2011) were followed. These steps are as follows.

Model Specification: It is the step in which the hypothesized model is formed as a structural model. It is considered as the most vital step in model testing since subsequent steps are executed with the assumption of correct model specification.

Model Identification: It is the step that ensures the computer program can theoretically produce unique estimates for each parameter in the model. When the model is not identified, the researcher should go back to model specification step again.

Model estimation: It is the step that comes after the data collection in which the comparison between the hypothesized model and observed model is made.

Model evaluation: In this step, the parameters produced by the model are assessed based on model fit indexes. Kline (2011) proposed three classes of model fit indexes. In this study, model chi-square (χ^2), χ^2/df value, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) were used to represent absolute fit index class; Root

Mean Square of Error Approximation (RMSEA) with 90% confidence interval was used to represent parsimony-adjusted index class, and Bentler Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) were used to represent incremental fit indexes class (Kline, 2011).

3.6. Limitations of the Study

Being a correlational study and utilizing cluster random sampling, this study sought to reach generalizable results for public schools in Ankara. However, this study also suffered from some limitations caused by the nature of the collected data and the way of data collection, sampling, and the design itself, which should be taken into consideration while interpreting the results.

First, cross sectional research design was utilized in this study, which accompanied with a data collection from all participants at the same time point. Since this type of research design does not allow for monitoring the changes in individuals' attitudes, emotions, and behaviors over time, further studies were recommended to utilize longitudinal research designs.

Second, the data were retrospective in nature, which relies on participants' recall of the past events (particularly for the ones asking their emotions) since the 4+4+4 change initiated approximately 2 years before the data collection was completed. Therefore, they might hide or not recall their real feelings towards the change at the time of data collection. Based on this limitation, further studies were suggested to utilize experiential sampling methodology to capture real-time change-related affects of teachers.

Third, social desirability might be an issue for the questions querying participants' agreements on trust in top-management and organizational support scales due to the hierarchical position of school principal and MONE. Therefore, responses can be biased by the sample and data collection method. This limitation was handled, at least partly, through assuring the participants' confidentiality by collecting the

questionnaires in closed envelopes and requesting no information that might reveal their identity.

Forth, common-method bias can be a potential threat for construct validity as well since only self-report measures were used in the data collection process (Heppner, Kivlighan, & Wampold, 1992) and the same participants responded both predictor and criterion measures at the same time (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). To minimize the effect of common-method bias on study findings, some procedural ways recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2003) was used. That is, different scales of measurements were utilized in the questionnaires, anonymity of the participants was assured, apprehensions of participants was minimized by underlining that the questions have no correct answers, and items were designed to be clear to reduce ambiguity experienced by the participants. This limitation, however, signified further studies to enrich the data sources and utilize different data collection methods.

Although the school level variables utilized in this study suggested the use of multilevel modeling as the data analysis method, nested data could not be acquired due to the excessive teacher and principal rotation after this change and accompanied heterogeneous teacher composition in majority of the schools in terms of the duration they worked at their relative schools. Therefore, the difficulty in assessing the school level variables for the new comers made it impossible to use school level analysis in this study.

The study was also limited due to the design itself since no causal relationships were acquired with the data analysis method utilized, although some findings could be reached implying causation through the use of SEM with the support of the related literature.

Moreover, as the scales were administered in different school settings with varying school cultures, location could be another internal validity threat, which was tried to be overcome by administering the scales in similar conditions.

Teachers mostly filled out the scales during their class times while their students do a test or have an individual activity.

Furthermore, data collector might pose a threat in this study since three more data collectors were recruited besides the real researcher of this study. However, these researchers were informed about the steps they should follow in each school visit one by one and they were continuously contacted to solve the problems they faced immediately.

Also, the data collected during the main study involved considerable number of missing scores particularly in trust scales, which was associated with the length of these scales and teachers' lack of trust in data collectors to reveal their true feelings.

Finally, public school teachers in Ankara constituted the sample in this study,. The inclusion of only public school teachers in the sample limited the external validity of the results acquired for private schools and other public schools including religious and technical-vocational ones as well. Similarly, although schools were selected randomly, limiting the boundaries of the study with the province of Ankara also introduced another limitation concerning the generalizability of the findings to whole country.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

In this chapter, firstly, the detailed results concerning the required assumptions of SEM (i.e., sample size, missing value, influential observation, normality, normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity of residuals, & multicollinearity) were reported. Subsequently, the results of ANOVAs and t-tests were presented to reveal how school level, teaching time, and attending in-service training variables created variation in the dependent variables of the study. Next, descriptive statistics results in terms of means, standard deviations, and bivariate correlations among the variables were reported; which was followed by the results for the measurement model to ensure the collective construct validity of the instruments utilized as a prior step of SEM. Then, detailed results were reported concerning the structural and trimmed models. Finally, a brief summary about the major findings of SEM was presented.

4.1. Assumptions of SEM

Before continuing with the main analyses, sample size criterion and the recommended assumptions of missing value, influential observation, univariate and multivariate normality, normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity of residuals, and multicollinearity among the variables were checked and validated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

4.1.1. Sample size criterion

Kline (2011) recommended using a sample more than 200 cases to conduct SEM. In this study, the model was tested with a sample made up of 663 cases, which was considered sufficient for SEM analysis.

4.1.2. Missing value analysis

Before conducting the MVA, the data were screened to detect extreme and improperly entered cases through use of descriptive statistics. These cases were corrected by comparing the scores in the hard-copy questionnaires.

In this study, although on each questionnaire it was highlighted that the complete data set was vital for valid results and each researcher warned the participants about not to leave unanswered questions at the time of data collection, too many questionnaires were collected with useless data. More specifically, despite the fact that almost 1200 questionnaires were collected from the teachers, 934 questionnaires provided meaningful data. The problems in the eliminated questionnaires were that some of the participants did not respond to majority of the questions and some of them rated all questions with the same score. These cases were firstly eliminated from the data.

Later, with the recommendations of Hair et al. (2010), the cases with more than 50% missing value on each variable in the study were deleted from the data set since these cases were regarded as useless. The elimination of the cases with 50% or more missing scores yielded a data set made up of 804 cases.

In this data set, there were still too many cases with more than 10% of missing responses. However, the literature signifies that the data with more than 10% missing cases is the potential source of bias for the results produced (Bennett, 2001). Therefore, cases with more than 10% missing scores were also omitted from the data set; which left us with a data set composed of 663 cases. Missing scores in the retained cases were less than 5% after the final elimination. However, in order to ensure the population representation of the data after deletion, demographic characteristics of the cases deleted and retained were compared. The results indicated that both groups' demographic characteristics were very similar for gender, age, teaching experience, graduated department, having in-service training, and job status. Moreover, school-level variables (i.e.,

school level, school size in terms of teacher number, student number, and teaching time) were also very close to each other. These findings suggested that the deleted cases did not distort the composition of the initial data and the final data set retained its representation power.

As a subsequent step, MVAs were conducted to assess whether the rest of missing scores have some patterns in its related variable. The results revealed significant Little's MCAR test results for positive affect, and two trust variables. For those scales, one-way ANOVAs and chi-squares were run to understand whether missingness was caused by any of the individual or school level variables; that is, whether a certain group refused to respond to some items. The results indicated that, for positive affect and MONE trust variables, the missingness was independent of certain individual or school level variables. However, for trust in principal variable, only the experience was concluded to create significant difference in such a way that the ones who had longer teaching experience had also greater number of missing scores. As a final attempt, independent samples t-tests were run to compare whether missingness on these three variables with significant Little's MCAR test created significant mean difference on the other critical variables of the study (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). For this, a new categorical variable called missingness were created for each three variables and the cases with at least one missing score on its related variable were coded as 1 and the cases with no missing score were coded as 0. Three separate independent samples t-tests were run by using each missingness variable as the grouping variable and by using other endogenous variables of the study as DVs. The results indicated statistically non-significant mean difference between the complete cases and cases with missing scores on all the dependent variables of this study. These findings suggested that missingness on these variables did not create any variation in the dependent variables of the study; thus could be handled. Therefore, with the recommendations of Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), when the number of missing cases did not exceed 5% and have no pattern, alternative ways of handling missing data give out similar outcomes. Therefore,

not to lose sample size, EM (Expectation-Maximization) imputation was made and analyses were conducted with a complete data composed of 663 cases.

4.1.3. Influential observation

Univariate outliers were detected by computing standardized z-scores. As recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), cases with z-scores exceeding 3.29 ($p < .001$, two-tailed test) were regarded as potential outliers. The results signified some cases with z-scores exceeding the recommended value on one parcel of negative affect variable. Univariate outliers were not deleted before checking the multivariate outliers. Multivariate outliers were detected by computing Mahalanobis distance through running linear regression by taking age as the dependent variable. Age was used as the dependent variable since DV does not affect the result of the regression analysis when computing Mahalanobis distance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Mahalanobis distance was computed and the cases exceeding the critical chi-square were regarded as multivariate outliers ($p < .001$). The results showed the presence of some multivariate outliers. Therefore, two alternative data sets were created and measurement model was tested with each of these data sets; one of which was the data set with all univariate and multivariate outliers deleted and the data set which we retained all these outliers. The results indicated that the cases with univariate and multivariate outliers retained yielded better results. Also, considering the nature of the constructs of trust, affect, and commitment within the change context, extreme scores were acceptable; therefore, these cases were retained in the data sets in testing the measurement and structural models.

4.1.4. Normality

Univariate normality assumption was checked through the inspection of skewness and kurtosis values, tests of normality (Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk), histograms, Q-Q plots, and box-plots (Kline, 2011). The visual inspection of histograms, O-Q plots, and box-plots indicated that majority of items deviated

from normal distribution although some parcels and items showed reasonably normal distribution. Although tests of normality gave out significant results for each item and parcel, skewness and kurtosis values were below the recommended cut-offs by Kline (2011) to be 3 for skewness and to be 10–20 for kurtosis. Skewness values of the items and parcels were between the range of -1.22 and 1.50 and kurtosis values were between the range of -1.18 and .70 (see Table 6).

Table 6

Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, and Kurtosis Values for Items and Parcels

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	<i>SE</i>	Kurtosis	<i>SE</i>
pp1	2.66	.99	.08	.10	-.67	.19
pp2	2.69	1.02	.01	.10	-.67	.19
pp3	2.54	.92	.20	.10	-.57	.19
np1	2.33	.99	.83	.10	.15	.19
np2	2.26	.98	.71	.10	-.13	.19
np3	1.99	.86	.81	.10	.22	.19
jp1	2.75	.63	-.48	.10	.36	.19
jp2	2.85	.61	-.63	.10	.37	.19
jp3	2.70	.78	-.26	.10	-.54	.19
jp4	2.78	.69	-.32	.10	-.16	.19
jp5	2.81	.80	-.31	.10	-.64	.19
osp1	3.33	.82	-.28	.10	.08	.19
osp2	3.13	.81	-.34	.10	.14	.19
osp3	3.28	.87	-.35	.10	.17	.19
osp4	3.27	.84	-.41	.10	.19	.19
ac1	2.20	1.19	.58	.10	-.73	.19
cc1	3.87	1.14	-.89	.10	.02	.19
cc2	3.29	1.29	-.25	.10	-.99	.19
ac2	2.49	1.35	.44	.10	-.98	.19
ac3	2.27	1.15	.55	.10	-.60	.19
cc3	2.94	1.22	-.05	.10	-.90	.19
ac4	2.02	1.11	.83	.10	-.18	.19
cc4	2.83	1.36	.17	.10	-1.18	.19
ac5	2.06	1.17	.83	.10	-.28	.19
cc5	2.46	1.23	.49	.10	-.72	.19
ac6	2.35	1.29	.56	.10	-.80	.19
h1	3.12	1.87	.45	.10	-1.10	.19
h2	2.88	1.76	.68	.10	-.68	.19
h3	2.79	1.71	.72	.10	-.61	.19
h4	2.69	1.68	.82	.10	-.36	.19
h5	2.91	1.73	.58	.10	-.75	.19
h6	2.91	1.79	.66	.10	-.72	.19
h7	2.51	1.81	1.06	.10	-.08	.19
h8	2.46	1.70	1.10	.10	.22	.19

Table 6 (continued)

Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, and Kurtosis Values for Items and Parcels

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	<i>SE</i>	Kurtosis	<i>SE</i>
tm1	2.18	1.10	.55	.10	-.53	.19
tm2	2.16	1.06	.56	.10	-.45	.19
tm3	2.15	1.11	.61	.10	-.61	.19
tm4	2.16	1.16	.60	.10	-.68	.19
tm5	2.15	1.21	.71	.10	-.56	.19
tm6	1.97	1.11	.95	.10	.09	.19
tm7	1.98	1.07	.85	.10	-.10	.19
tm8	2.03	1.05	.81	.10	-.02	.19
tm9	1.97	1.10	.92	.10	-.07	.19
tm10	2.09	1.09	.76	.10	-.23	.19
tm11	2.05	1.12	.83	.10	-.19	.19
tm12	2.03	1.11	.86	.10	-.11	.19
tm13	1.95	1.08	.94	.10	.06	.19
tm14	1.98	1.10	.87	.10	-.21	.19
tm15	2.06	1.06	.72	.10	-.27	.19
tm16	1.85	1.03	1.03	.10	.25	.19
tm17	1.95	1.12	1.00	.10	.12	.19
tm18	2.15	1.12	.61	.10	-.60	.19
tm19	2.02	1.10	.79	.10	-.31	.19
tm20	1.95	1.05	.84	.10	-.14	.19
tm21	1.91	1.05	1.00	.10	.18	.19
tm22	2.01	1.13	.88	.10	-.17	.19
tm23	1.97	1.04	.89	.10	.08	.19
tm24	1.93	1.13	.99	.10	-.02	.19
tm25	2.05	1.16	.92	.10	-.01	.19
tm26	2.16	1.15	.70	.10	-.45	.19
tm27	2.14	1.11	.68	.10	-.39	.19
tp1	3.04	1.22	-.06	.10	-.79	.19
tp2	2.95	1.17	-.03	.10	-.76	.19
tp3	3.02	1.22	-.09	.10	-.84	.19
tp4	3.15	1.27	-.24	.10	-.92	.19
tp5	2.97	1.29	-.06	.10	-1.03	.19
tp6	3.04	1.24	-.11	.10	-.90	.19
tp7	2.95	1.22	-.05	.10	-.87	.19
tp8	3.04	1.21	-.09	.10	-.85	.19
tp9	3.10	1.20	-.16	.10	-.81	.19
tp10	3.00	1.18	-.08	.10	-.79	.19
tp11	3.23	1.20	-.28	.10	-.79	.19
tp12	3.08	1.19	-.15	.10	-.82	.19
tp13	2.99	1.23	-.10	.10	-.89	.19
tp14	3.06	1.24	-.18	.10	-.88	.19
tp15	2.87	1.21	.03	.10	-.87	.19
tp16	2.85	1.20	.08	.10	-.86	.19
tp17	2.99	1.25	-.11	.10	-.94	.19
tp18	3.13	1.19	-.22	.10	-.75	.19
tp19	3.11	1.19	-.23	.10	-.74	.19
tp20	2.97	1.18	-.12	.10	-.78	.19
tp21	3.04	1.15	-.10	.10	-.68	.19

Table 6 (continued)

Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, and Kurtosis Values for Items and Parcels

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	<i>SE</i>	Kurtosis	<i>SE</i>
tp22	3.01	1.18	-.09	.10	-.72	.19
tp23	2.81	1.21	.04	.10	-.87	.19
tp24	2.89	1.28	.01	.10	-1.01	.19
tp25	3.30	1.25	-.32	.10	-.85	.19
tp26	3.20	1.17	-.27	.10	-.69	.19
tp27	2.97	1.23	-.00	.10	-.87	.19
imp1	5.38	1.54	-1.22	.10	.70	.19
imp2	4.11	1.75	-.23	.10	-1.06	.19
imp3	4.71	1.65	-.56	.10	-.66	.19
imp4	4.06	1.87	-.21	.10	-1.23	.19
imp5	4.71	1.67	-.65	.10	-.64	.19

Multivariate normality checks, on the other hand, were made through running Mardia's tests (Kline, 2011). The results revealed that all variables violated the multivariate normality assumption. To compensate the limitations caused by non-normality, bootstrapping was used in the test of measurement and structural models. *Bootstrapping* is a resampling technique in which "multiple subsamples of the sample size as the parent sample are drawn randomly, with replacement, from the population" (Byrne, 2010, p. 330). Although Kline (2011) warned the researchers that it is not a panacea for severely non-normal distributions and small sample sizes, it is suggested as a way of reducing the deteriorating effects of non-normality and missingness in SEM and producing confidence intervals (Kline, 2011). Therefore, the bootstrapped sample has no need to respond to the normality assumption.

4.1.5. Normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity of residuals

With the recommendations of Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), normality, linearity and homoscedasticity of residuals were checked through the inspection of histograms, normal p-p plots, scatter plots, and partial regression plots of residuals. For each dependent variable in the model, separate regression analyses were run and residual plots of each were inspected. Samples from all these plots were presented in Appendix M.

For normality of residuals assumption, histograms and normal p-p plots were visually inspected and almost all were concluded to follow random fashion in the data. Secondly, to validate homoscedasticity assumption, scatter plots were inspected and dispersed dots suggested that there is no pattern. Finally, to validate linearity assumption, partial plots of residuals were inspected and it was concluded that bivariate relationships departed not much from linearity. Therefore, all these three assumptions were assumed to be validated for the current study.

4.1.6. Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity was tested through the inspection of bivariate correlations and computing variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance values for the variables in the study (Kline, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). As suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), presence of bivariate correlations exceeding .90 is the indication of multicollinearity. Visual inspection of correlation matrix indicated that majority of the variables were significantly correlated but there was no correlation exceeding .90. Moreover, Kline (2011) recommended running separate multiple regression analysis by taking each variable as DV and others as IVs and computing VIF ($1/1 - R^2$) and tolerance ($1 - R^2$) values based on the produced R^2 value on each analysis. The cut-offs that indicated multicollinearity were proposed as $R^2 > .90$, $VIF > 10$, and tolerance $< .10$. After each multiple regression analyses were run, VIF and tolerance values were computed for each variable. The results indicated that all values of R^2 (between the range of .07 and .62), VIF (between the range of 1.07 and 2.63), and tolerance (between the range of .38 to .93) were within the acceptable limits; thus, multicollinearity assumption was validated for this study.

4.2. Preliminary Analyses

Before moving on the main analyses, some preliminary analyses were conducted to better understand the individual and school level variables that create variation

in the outcome variables of this study. The grouping variables selected in these analyses were school level, teaching time, and having an in-service training. Series of ANOVAs and independent samples t-tests were run through the use of SPSS to examine whether school level (i.e., primary, secondary, & high school), teaching time (i.e., day-long & double session teaching), and having an in-service training about the 4+4+4 change (i.e, yes & no) variables created significant mean difference on the outcome variables in the model.

Firstly, independent samples t-tests were run by taking in-service training as a grouping variable. For each analysis, equality of variance assumption was validated with non-significant Levene's test result. The results revealed that the ones who reported to attend an in-service training about the current change had significantly higher means than the ones who reported not to attend an in-service training on the variables of positive affect ($t(654) = 5.39, p = .00$), implementation behavior ($t(654) = 4.35, p = .00$), affective commitment ($t(654) = 3.77, p = .00$), and job satisfaction ($t(654) = 3.28, p = .00$). On the other hand, for the variable of negative affect, the results indicated that the ones who reported that they had not an in-service training about the 4+4+4 change had higher means than the ones who reported to have an in-service training ($t(654) = -2.40, p = .02$).

Secondly, independent samples t-tests were run by taking teaching time as the grouping variable with two levels (i.e., day-long & double session teaching). Contrary to the previous t-test results, teaching time did not create significant mean difference on any of the variables.

Finally, one-way ANOVAs were run to assess whether school level creates significant variation in the variables of interest. Homogeneity of variance assumption was validated for all variables except for positive affect and implementation behavior variables with non-significant Levene's test result. For the ones the assumption was violated, alpha level was set as .04. One-way ANOVA results indicated significant mean difference at the $p < .05$ alpha level in negative affect, affective commitment, and job satisfaction for three groups,

although the computed eta-squared values were too small that indicated quite low effect size. Post-hoc comparisons using Scheffe test revealed that for negative affect variable, there was statistically significant mean difference between high schools and the other school levels; but no significant mean difference between primary and secondary school levels. For affective commitment, high schools did not differ from other school levels but secondary school had statistically higher mean than primary schools. For job satisfaction variable, primary schools reported significantly higher scores than secondary and high schools while there was no significant mean difference acquired between secondary and high schools. The results of one-way ANOVAs were depicted in Table 7.

Table 7

One-Way ANOVA Results for the Differences Created by School Level

Variable and source	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i> (2, 659)	<i>p</i>	η^2
Positive affect					
Between	13.68	6.84	8.46	.00	.03
Within	533.13	.81			
Negative affect					
Between	6.40	3.20	4.57	.01	.01
Within	461.40	.70			
Continuance commitment					
Between	.89	.44	.62	.54	.00
Within	471.44	.72			
Implementation					
Between	11.76	5.88	3.41	.03	.01
Within	1136.20	1.72			
Affective commitment					
Between	8.21	4.11	4.25	.02	.01
Within	635.97	.97			
Job satisfaction					
Between	5.78	2.89	8.82	.00	.03
Within	215.85	.33			

Moreover, one-way ANOVA results indicated significant mean difference at $p < .04$ alpha level in positive affect and implementation behavior variables for three school levels; despite very low effect sizes. Post-hoc comparisons using Scheffe test revealed that high school level had significantly lower mean in positive affect than the other school levels but no significant mean difference was concluded for

primary and secondary school levels. For implementation behavior, no significant mean difference was found between primary and secondary schools while high schools had significantly lower mean than secondary schools.

Although school level and attending in-service training variables yielded significant results for some variables, unbalanced sample sizes in the comparison groups may have the potential to inflate power; thus, a significant difference for the groups of unequal sample sizes might be misleading (Montgomery, 2001). Therefore, these variables were not included in the model as control variables.

4.3. Descriptive Analysis Results

Before continuing with the main analyses, as a final step, means and standard variations of and bivariate correlations among the variables of interest were computed and presented in Table 8. As depicted in the table, participant teachers reported that they experienced positive affect more frequently ($M = 2.62$, $SD = .91$) when compared with negative affect ($M = 2.17$, $SD = .84$) when they considered their experiences with 4+4+4 change. However, they reported to have relatively negative beliefs on the management of previous changes ($M = 2.78$, $SD = .1.55$). On the other hand, high mean score of change implementation behavior suggested that teachers generally reported that they exhibited certain behaviors demanded by the change ($M = 4.59$, $SD = .1.32$). Participant teachers' agreements on the commitment items regarding the benefits of change (i.e., affective commitment) ($M = 2.23$, $SD = .99$) were relatively lower when compared with their commitments due the perceived cost of exhibiting unsupportive behaviors ($M = 3.08$, $SD = .84$). When it comes to perceived organizational support, teachers generally responded positively ($M = 3.25$, $SD = .76$). Similarly, they reported that they trust more in their school principal at the onset of change ($M = 3.03$, $SD = 1.05$) than they trust in MONE ($M = 2.04$, $SD = .92$). On the other hand, teachers reported that they mostly satisfied with their jobs in the time of change with the mean of 2.78 ($SD = .58$).

Table 8

Means, Standard Deviations, and Bivariate Correlations between Variables of the Study

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.Positive affect	-	-.21**	.24**	.41**	.47**	-.06	.29**	.39**	.28**	.27**
2.Negative affect		-	-.06	-.25**	-.38**	.13**	-.15**	-.28**	-.20**	-.07
3.History beliefs			-	.16**	.29**	-.10**	.11**	.22**	.28**	.11**
4.Implementation				-	.45**	.05	.24**	.34**	.27**	.22**
5.Affective commitment					-	-.15**	.29**	.38**	.48**	.24**
6.Continuance commitment						-	-.12**	-.12**	-.16**	-.08*
7.Organizational support							-	.55**	.36**	.73**
8.Job satisfaction								-	.34**	.39**
9.Trust in MONE									-	.33**
10.Trust in principal										-
<i>M</i>	2.62	2.17	2.78	4.59	2.23	3.08	3.25	2.78	2.04	3.03
<i>SD</i>	.91	.84	1.55	1.32	.99	.84	.76	.58	.92	1.05

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

While interpreting bivariate correlations among variables of the study, the cut-offs for Pearson correlations proposed by Field (2009) was used in such a way that $\pm .1$ indicates small effect, $\pm .3$ indicates medium effect, and $\pm .5$ indicates large effect. Based on these values, the results indicated that positive affect was positively and significantly correlated with history beliefs, perceived organizational support, trust in MONE, and trust in principal but these effects were small. Similarly, positive emotion was correlated with implementation and affective commitment variables but the effects were moderate to high to be very close to .50. All these findings suggested that increase in the frequency of positive affect experiences with the 4+4+4 change was associated with increase in all of these constructs. However, as expected, negative and small correlation was acquired between negative affect and positive affect in such a way that an increase in the frequency of negative emotions experienced was associated with a slight decrease in the frequency of experienced positive emotions.

Negative affect, similarly, was negatively correlated with implementation behavior, perceived organizational support, job satisfaction, and trust in MONE variables but these effects were either small or small to moderate. Also, moderate negative relationship was concluded for the relationship between negative affect and affective commitment. However, there was positive correlation between negative affect and continuance commitment with a small effect. This relationship suggested that an increase in the frequency of negative affect was related with an increase in continuance commitment to a small extent.

In addition to all these relationships, implementation behavior was positively correlated with perceived organizational support, trust in MONE, and trust in principal with a low effect; however, moderate to large positive correlations were concluded between implementation behavior, job satisfaction and affective commitment.

Affective commitment, similarly, was negatively correlated with continuance commitment and positively correlated with trust in principal with a low effect.

However, larger effects were concluded for the positive relationships with perceived organizational support, job satisfaction, and trust in MONE.

Unexpectedly, continuance commitment correlated significantly but with small correlation coefficients with all variables except for positive affect and implementation behavior. The direction of the relationships was negative except for negative affect variable. Therefore, the ones who reported higher scores in continuance commitment also reported less agreement on all significant variables except for negative affect.

Job satisfaction was associated with all variables but highest positive correlations were achieved with perceived organizational support (with a large effect), positive affect, affective commitment, and implementation behavior (with a moderate effect). These findings suggested that increased job satisfaction was related with higher frequency of positive change-related affect, better affective commitment and change implementation behavior.

As expected, trust in two different reference groups were positively and moderately correlated with each other. However, high and positive correlation coefficient was acquired between organizational support and trust in principal, which were school level variables. This finding implied that the ones reported to perceive higher organizational support also reported that they trusted in their principal more.

Besides all these significant correlations, no significant correlation was concluded between negative affect and history beliefs, continuance commitment and the variables of positive affect and implementation behavior.

4.4. Structural Equation Modeling Results

In this section, the results of the measurement, structural, and trimmed models were presented in successive parts.

4.4.1. Results for the measurement model

Measurement model is the CFA model that tests the link between latent variables and their indicators within SEM framework (Byrne, 2010). In this study, ten-factor measurement model with the latent variables of trust in principal and in MONE, perceived organizational support, change history beliefs, positive and negative affect, continuance and affective commitment to change, job satisfaction, and change implementation behavior was tested with CFA. The final measurement model with standardized estimates and latent correlations was depicted in Figure 4.

Within the scope of the main study, reliability scores for each scale in terms of Cronbach's alphas were also computed for each scale to be .93 for perceived organizational support, .88 for job satisfaction, .88 for negative affect, .93 for positive affect, .89 for affective commitment, .70 for continuance commitment, .83 for implementation, .98 for trust in principal, .98 for trust in MONE, .96 for change history beliefs.

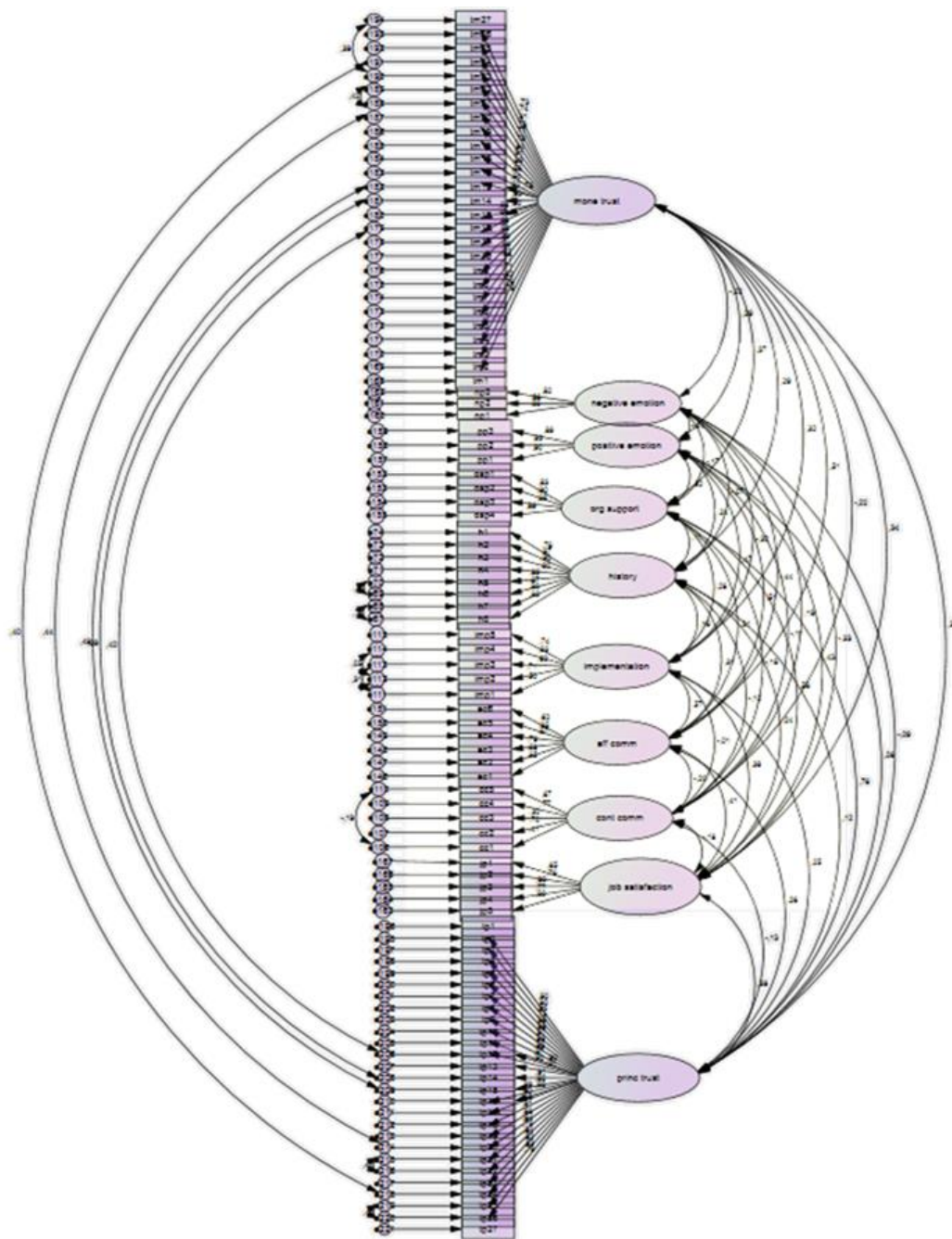


Figure 4. Measurement model with standardized estimates and latent correlations.

The initial CFA results indicated significant chi-square ($\chi^2(4136) = 12199.81, p < .05$) with χ^2/df value of 2.95 which suggested good fit when the cut-off recommended by Kline (2011) was considered. Other fit indices of SRMR to be .05 and RMSEA to be .05 (90% CI = .05 - .06, $p_{close} = .00$) indicated acceptable

model fit. However, CFI and TLI values to be .88 and .87 respectively revealed poorly fitting model. These findings suggested that the model should be improved. Therefore, modification indices were checked and error covariances were added between the ones with highest scores that belonged to the same scales (i.e., $\varepsilon_{67} - \varepsilon_{68}$ & $\varepsilon_{69} - \varepsilon_{70}$ in history beliefs scale; $\varepsilon_{188} - \varepsilon_{189}$ & $\varepsilon_{190} - \varepsilon_{194}$ in trust in MONE scale; $\varepsilon_{215} - \varepsilon_{216}$ & $\varepsilon_{219} - \varepsilon_{220}$ in trust in principal scale) in subsequent steps. Modification indices also indicated presence of highly correlated errors between the items of trust in principal and trust in MONE scales. Since these scales utilized completely same set of items, high correlations between the same items in two reference groups were expected. Also, since these indicators both measure trust, error covariances were added between five highly correlated error terms (i.e., $\varepsilon_{182} - \varepsilon_{209}$, $\varepsilon_{187} - \varepsilon_{214}$, $\varepsilon_{179} - \varepsilon_{206}$; $\varepsilon_{191} - \varepsilon_{218}$, & $\varepsilon_{177} - \varepsilon_{204}$).

The final model yielded slightly improved model fit with significant chi-square ($\chi^2(4125) = 10615.11$, $p < .05$) with χ^2/df value of 2.57. Other fit indices of RMSEA to be .05 (90% CI = .048-.05, $p_{close} = .96$) and SRMR to be .05 indicated good model fit. CFI value was .90, which was an acceptable value considering the cut-off proposed by Bentler (1992). The results also yielded TLI as .90, a value approximate to .95, indicated mediocre fit when the cut-off proposed by Hu and Bentler (1999) was considered. When the standardized regression weights were checked, all of them were significant and ranged between .32 and .93. Standardized regression weights with the produced confidence intervals were presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Standardized Regression Weights with Confidence Intervals

	Parameter	Estimate	CI	<i>p</i>
h8	<--- history	.83	.79 - .86	.00
h7	<--- history	.80	.75 - .84	.00
h6	<--- history	.87	.84 - .90	.00
h5	<--- history	.89	.86 - .91	.00

Table 9 (continued)

Standardized Regression Weights with Confidence Intervals

	Parameter	Estimate	CI	<i>p</i>
h4	<--- history	.92	.90 - .94	.00
h3	<--- history	.90	.86 - .92	.00
h2	<--- history	.87	.83 - .90	.00
h1	<--- history	.78	.74 - .82	.00
cc1	<--- cont comm	.41	.29 - .52	.00
cc2	<--- cont comm	.70	.62 - .76	.00
cc3	<--- cont comm	.32	.22 - .42	.00
cc4	<--- cont comm	.77	.70 - .84	.00
cc5	<--- cont comm	.67	.58 - .74	.00
imp1	<--- implementation	.50	.39 - .58	.00
imp2	<--- implementation	.71	.62 - .79	.00
imp3	<--- implementation	.62	.53 - .70	.00
imp4	<--- implementation	.83	.76 - .89	.00
imp5	<--- implementation	.74	.65 - .82	.00
ac1	<--- aff comm	.85	.82 - .88	.00
ac2	<--- aff comm	.68	.61 - .74	.00
ac3	<--- aff comm	.79	.74 - .84	.00
ac4	<--- aff comm	.87	.83 - .90	.00
ac5	<--- aff comm	.85	.80 - .89	.00
ac6	<--- aff comm	.62	.54 - .69	.00
osp1	<--- org support	.83	.80 - .86	.00
osp2	<--- org support	.90	.88 - .92	.00
osp3	<--- org support	.88	.86 - .90	.00
osp4	<--- org support	.89	.86 - .91	.00
pp1	<--- positive emotion	.90	.88 - .92	.00
pp2	<--- positive emotion	.93	.91 - .94	.00
pp3	<--- positive emotion	.89	.87 - .91	.00
np1	<--- negative emotion	.83	.79 - .87	.00
np2	<--- negative emotion	.88	.84 - .91	.00
np3	<--- negative emotion	.82	.78 - .86	.00
jp5	<--- job satisfaction	.82	.79 - .85	.00
jp4	<--- job satisfaction	.77	.73 - .81	.00
jp3	<--- job satisfaction	.86	.83 - .89	.00
jp2	<--- job satisfaction	.76	.72 - .80	.00
jp1	<--- job satisfaction	.65	.58 - .71	.00
tm1	<--- mone trust	.76	.71 - .80	.00
tm2	<--- mone trust	.76	.71 - .80	.00
tm3	<--- mone trust	.82	.78 - .84	.00
tm4	<--- mone trust	.71	.66 - .75	.00
tm5	<--- mone trust	.77	.72 - .81	.00
tm6	<--- mone trust	.85	.82 - .87	.00
tm7	<--- mone trust	.86	.82 - .89	.00
tm8	<--- mone trust	.89	.87 - .91	.00

Table 9 (continued)

Standardized Regression Weights with Confidence Intervals

	Parameter	Estimate	CI	<i>p</i>
tm9	<--- mone trust	.88	.85 - .90	.00
tm10	<--- mone trust	.89	.87 - .91	.00
tm11	<--- mone trust	.88	.85 - .90	.00
tm12	<--- mone trust	.88	.86 - .90	.00
tm13	<--- mone trust	.90	.88 - .92	.00
tm14	<--- mone trust	.90	.88 - .92	.00
tm15	<--- mone trust	.78	.73 - .82	.00
tm16	<--- mone trust	.82	.78 - .85	.00
tm17	<--- mone trust	.84	.79 - .87	.00
tm18	<--- mone trust	.88	.86 - .90	.00
tm19	<--- mone trust	.89	.87 - .91	.00
tm20	<--- mone trust	.91	.89 - .92	.00
tm21	<--- mone trust	.84	.80 - .87	.00
tm22	<--- mone trust	.79	.74 - .83	.00
tm23	<--- mone trust	.77	.72 - .81	.00
tm24	<--- mone trust	.78	.74 - .82	.00
tm25	<--- mone trust	.81	.77 - .85	.00
tm26	<--- mone trust	.74	.69 - .79	.00
tm27	<--- mone trust	.73	.69 - .77	.00
tp2	<--- princ trust	.80	.77 - .83	.00
tp1	<--- princ trust	.80	.77 - .83	.00
tp3	<--- princ trust	.84	.82 - .86	.00
tp4	<--- princ trust	.75	.70 - .79	.00
tp5	<--- princ trust	.86	.84 - .89	.00
tp6	<--- princ trust	.88	.86 - .89	.00
tp7	<--- princ trust	.87	.85 - .89	.00
tp8	<--- princ trust	.90	.87 - .91	.00
tp9	<--- princ trust	.88	.86 - .90	.00
tp10	<--- princ trust	.87	.85 - .90	.00
tp11	<--- princ trust	.90	.88 - .91	.00
tp12	<--- princ trust	.90	.88 - .91	.00
tp13	<--- princ trust	.91	.89 - .92	.00
tp14	<--- princ trust	.90	.88 - .92	.00
tp15	<--- princ trust	.82	.78 - .85	.00
tp16	<--- princ trust	.82	.80 - .85	.00
tp17	<--- princ trust	.90	.87 - .91	.00
tp18	<--- princ trust	.90	.88 - .91	.00
tp19	<--- princ trust	.88	.86 - .91	.00
tp20	<--- princ trust	.91	.89 - .92	.00
tp21	<--- princ trust	.88	.86 - .90	.00
tp22	<--- princ trust	.84	.81 - .87	.00
tp23	<--- princ trust	.79	.76 - .82	.00

Table 9 (continued)

Standardized Regression Weights with Confidence Intervals

	Parameter	Estimate	CI	<i>p</i>
tp24	<--- princ trust	.84	.81 - .86	.00
tp25	<--- princ trust	.82	.79 - .85	.00
tp26	<--- princ trust	.83	.79 - .85	.00
tp27	<--- princ trust	.79	.76 - .82	.00

When the latent correlations were checked, CFA results indicated that majority of correlations were significant among latent variables and within the range of .01 to .76. Latent correlations in measurement model were presented in Table 10.

Table 10

Latent Correlations in the Measurement Model

Latent Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.History	-	-.12*	.16**	.31***	.11*	.24***	-.07	.24***	.29***	.12**
2.Continuan- ce commitment		-	-.01	.20***	-.18**	-.11*	.19***	.18***	-.21***	-.13**
3.Implementation			-	-.57***	.28***	.47***	-.32***	.39***	.32***	.25***
4.Affective commitment				-	.31***	.51***	-.46***	.41***	.51***	.26***
5.Organizational support					-	.32***	-.17***	.58***	.37***	.76***
6.Positive affect						-	-.24***	.43***	.29***	.28***
7.Negative affect							-	-.33***	-.22***	-.09*
8.Job satisfaction								-	.34***	.39***
9.Trust in MONE									-	.33***
10.Trust in principal										-

p* < .05. *p* < .01. ****p* < .001

4.4.2. Results for the structural model

The aim of the study was to explore the relationship between change antecedents (i.e., history beliefs, perceived organizational support, trust in MONE and in principal), change-related affect (positive and negative affect), change-related attitudes (i.e., affective and continuance commitment to change), job satisfaction, and implementation behavior. In this part of the study, structural model that tested the hypothesized relationships among latent variables was reported. The proposed model was depicted in Figure 5. For visual clarity, only latent variables were presented in the figure.

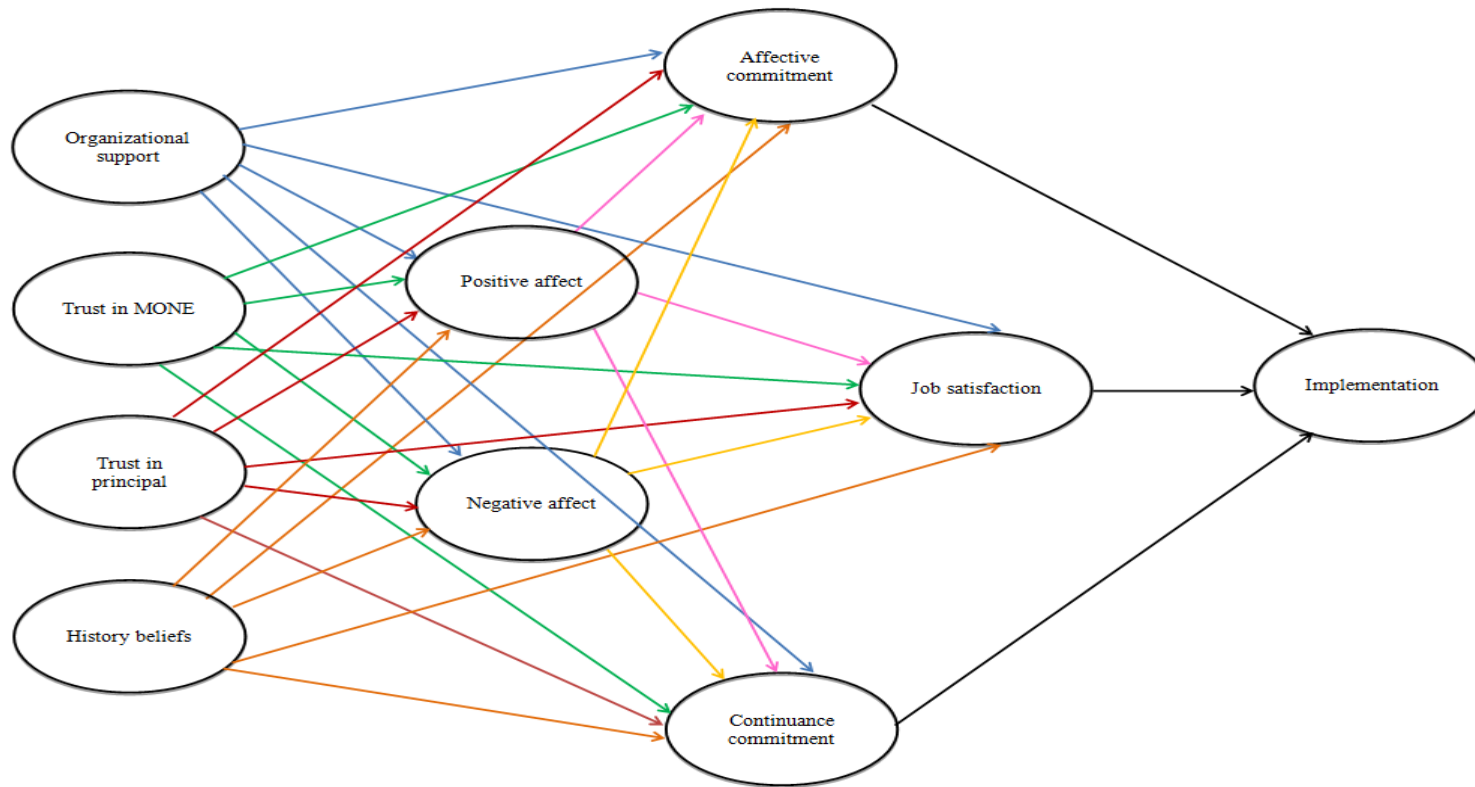


Figure 5. Hypothesized structural model.

The hypothesized model was tested by using 2000 bootstrapped samples at 95% confidence interval and direct and indirect links among latent variables were explored. Although the results indicated significant chi-square ($\chi^2(4132) = 10654.95, p < .05$), χ^2/df value to be 2.58 was lower than the recommended cut-off by Kline (2011) which suggested acceptable model fit. Other fit indices also signified good fit with RMSEA value of .05 (90% CI = .048 - .050, $p_{close} = .95$), SRMR value of .05, CFI and TLI values of .90 (Bentler, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999). These results suggested that the hypothesized model showed acceptable fit with the current data. The measurement portion of the model also indicated that each indicator significantly affected by their respective latent variable and standardized estimates were within the range of .32 to .93.

Direct, indirect, and total effects for the hypothesized model were computed and presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Standardized Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects for the Hypothesized Model

		Principal trust	MONE trust	Organizational support	History beliefs	Negative affect	Positive affect	Job satisfaction	Affective commitment	Continuance commitment
Negative affect	Direct	.12	-.19***	-.19**	-.01	-	-	-	-	-
	Total indirect	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	.12	-.19***	-.19**	-.01	-	-	-	-	-
Positive affect	Direct	.06	.15***	.20**	.17***	-	-	-	-	-
	Total indirect	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	.06	.15***	.20**	.17***	-	-	-	-	-
Job satisfaction	Direct	-.13*	.05	.55***	.11**	-.18***	.21***	-	-	-
	Total indirect	-.01	.07***	.08***	.04**	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	-.13*	.11*	.62***	.15***	-.18***	.21***	-	-	-
Affective commitment	Direct	.02	.31***	.02	.13***	-.29***	.31***	-	-	-
	Total indirect	-.02	.10***	.12***	.05*	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	.00	.41***	.14*	.18***	-.29***	.31***	-	-	-
Continuance commitment	Direct	.03	-.13*	-.13	-.07	.14**	.01	-	-	-
	Total indirect	.02	-.02*	-.02	.00	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	.05	-.16**	-.15	-.07	.14**	.01	-	-	-
Implementation	Direct	-	-	-	-	-	-	.21***	.52***	.13*
	Total indirect	-.02	.21***	.18***	.11***	-.17***	.21***	-	-	-
	Total	-.02	.21***	.18***	.11***	-.17***	.21***	.21***	.52***	.13*

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

4.4.2.1. Direct effects for the hypothesized model

In the full model, majority of expected direct and indirect relationships were significant and all relationships were in the hypothesized direction except for one path. More specifically, results indicated that trust in MONE predicted positive affect (.15) and negative affect (-.19) significantly. The directions of these relationships were positive for positive affect and negative for negative affect. These findings suggested that the ones who reported higher trust in MONE also reported higher positive change-related affect and lower negative change-related affect. Similarly, trust in MONE predicted affective commitment positively (.31) and continuance commitment negatively (-.13). That is, increased teacher trust in MONE was associated with higher affective commitment and lower continuance commitment to change.

Also, as expected, perceived organizational support significantly and positively predicted positive change-related affect (.20) and significantly and negatively predicted negative change-related affect (-.19). That is to say, the ones who reported to perceive higher organizational support also reported that they experienced more positive and less negative-change related affect. Moreover, the path coefficient between perceived organizational support and job satisfaction was significant at .55 and the direction of the relationship was positive. This finding implied that, those who perceived higher organizational support were likely to be more satisfied with their jobs. However, no significant relationship was concluded between perceived organizational support and two change commitment sub-dimensions of affective commitment and continuance commitment.

Change history beliefs, similarly, predicted positive change-related affect (.17) but no significant prediction was found for negative change-related affect. Therefore, those who believed that past changes were managed effectively also reported that they have experienced more positive affect with the current change. History beliefs also significantly predicted affect driven attitudes of affective commitment (.13) and job satisfaction (.11). The directions of these relationships were positive

which implied that increased positive history beliefs was associated with higher affective change commitment and job satisfaction on the part of public school teachers.

Both positive and negative change-related affects predicted job satisfaction and affective commitment but the directions of these relationships were opposite, as expected. More specifically, negative affect predicted job satisfaction (-.18) and affective commitment (-.29) negatively while positive affect predicted these variables positively (.21 for job satisfaction; .31 for affective commitment). All these findings implied that the ones who reported higher positive and lower negative change-related affect also reported to have higher job satisfaction and affective commitment. Unlike positive affect, negative-change related affect also predicted continuance commitment in a positive way (.14).

Change-related and job-related attitudes of affective commitment to change (.52), continuance commitment to change (.13), and job satisfaction (.21) predicted change implementation behavior. As expected the directions of these relationships were all positive, which suggested that the ones who reported to have higher affective commitment, continuance commitment, and job satisfaction also reported that they exhibited more change implementation behaviors. When the strengths of these relationships were compared, the results yielded strongest predictive role of affective commitment to change.

On the other hand, direct effects for the hypothesized model indicated that trust in principal only significantly predicted job satisfaction of teachers (-.13). The effect was small and unexpectedly in negative direction, which means that the ones who reported higher trust in school principal also reported less job satisfaction. However, this finding was considered as not reflecting the true nature of this relationship but a statistical drawback, which was discussed in the final chapter. In Figure 6, the significant and non-significant paths were visually depicted.

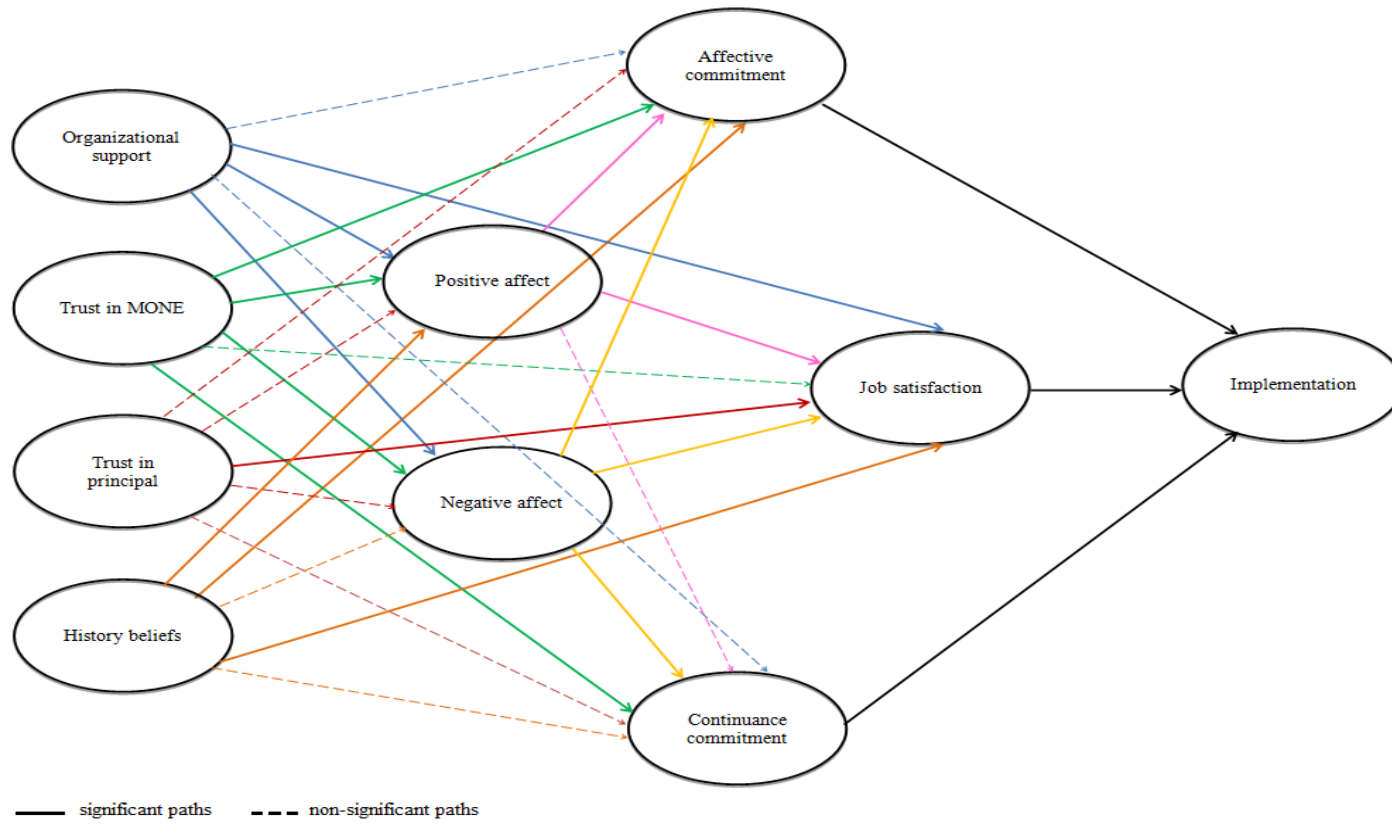


Figure 6. The model with significant and non-significant direct paths.

4.4.2.2. Indirect effects for the hypothesized model

Beside all these direct effects, indirect effects in the full model were mostly significant with varying magnitudes in such a way that the lowest path coefficient in these indirect effects was $-.02$ while the highest one was $.21$. As can be clearly seen from Table 11, the indirect effect between trust in MONE and job satisfaction was significant ($.07$) through two different pathways. That is, path one was through positive affect and path two was through negative affect. Similarly, the indirect effect between organizational support and job satisfaction ($.08$) was also significant through positive and negative affect variables. Finally, the indirect effect between history beliefs and job satisfaction ($.04$) was also significant invariably through positive change-related affect.

The results also yielded similar significant indirect effects between the change antecedents of trust in MONE ($.10$) and organizational support ($.12$) and affective commitment to change through change related positive and negative affect variables. However, the indirect effect between history beliefs and affective change commitment was significant ($.05$) only through positive affect variable. Also, despite its relatively low magnitude, the indirect effect between trust in MONE and continuance commitment was also significant ($-.02$) and negative change-related affect partially mediated this relationship.

When it comes to the ultimate dependent variable of this study, change implementation behavior, significant indirect paths were concluded for the variables of trust in MONE ($.21$), perceived organizational support ($.18$), and change history beliefs ($.11$) through positive and negative affects and through the attitudinal variables of affective commitment, continuance commitment, and job satisfaction. Similarly, the indirect effect between positive affect ($.21$) and implementation behavior was also significant through two pathways. The first path was through affective commitment and the second path was through job satisfaction. In addition, significant indirect effect was concluded between negative affect ($-.17$) and implementation behavior through three paths. Two of

them were the same paths between positive affect and implementation and the final path was through continuance commitment.

Taken together, these findings suggested that, the ones who reported higher trust in MONE, higher perceived organizational support and better history beliefs also reported to have higher positive and lower negative change-related affect (valid for the teachers reported higher trust and higher organizational support but not for the ones with better history beliefs), which was associated with higher affective commitment and higher job satisfaction, and subsequently higher implementation behavior. Also, the ones who reported higher negative change-related affect also reported higher continuance commitment and this was associated with higher implementation behavior, as expected.

4.4.2.3. Squared multiple correlations (R^2) for the hypothesized model

Job satisfaction, affective commitment, and continuance commitment variables accounted for 38% of variance in change implementation behavior. Moreover, trust in MONE, history beliefs, and positive and negative change-related affect explained 50% of variance in teachers’ affective change commitment. However, trust in MONE and negative change-related affect only accounted for 8% of variance in continuance commitment. Trust in principal, perceived organizational support, history beliefs, and positive and negative change-related affect explained 46% of variance in job satisfaction. Also, trust in MONE, perceived organizational support, and history beliefs explained 16% of variance in positive change-related affect. Similarly, trust in MONE and perceived organizational support accounted for 6% of variance in change-related negative emotions. Table 12 shows the squared multiple correlations for the hypothesized model.

Table 12

Squared Multiple Correlations for the Hypothesized Model

	Negative affect	Positive affect	Affective commitment	Continuance commitment	Job satisfaction	Implementation
R^2	.06	.16	.50	.08	.46	.38

4.4.3. Results for the trimmed model

The initial SEM results indicated the presence of some non-significant paths in the model. Considering the theory, to have a better covariance structure that fitted the current data, the model was *trimmed* in such a way that non-significant paths were eliminated sequentially (Kline, 2011).

The trimmed model was tested by using 2000 bootstrapped samples at 95% confidence interval. The model indicated acceptable fit despite significant chi-square value ($\chi^2(4142) = 10669.37, p < .05$). Also, χ^2/df value to be 2.58 was lower than the recommended cut-off by Kline (2011), which supported acceptable model fit. Other fit indices also signified good fit with RMSEA value of .049 (90% CI = .048 - .050, $p_{close} = .96$), SRMR value of .05. CFI and TLI values of .90, similarly, suggested mediocre model fit (Bentler, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999). These results suggested that the trimmed model showed acceptable fit with the current data.

After the elimination of non-significant paths two hierarchical models were acquired in such a way that trimmed model was the nested model of the hypothesized model (Kline, 2011). Therefore, *chi-square difference test* was conducted to assess whether *equal-fit hypothesis* was rejected or retained. Kline (2011) stated that rejection of this hypothesis is the indication of oversimplified model in model trimming studies. The results indicated that chi-square difference test was statistically non-significant with $\Delta\chi^2(10) = 14.42, p = .15$, which suggested that equal-fit hypothesis was retained. Therefore, the fit of the simpler and more parsimonious trimmed model was concluded to be better than the hypothesized model. The trimmed model was depicted in Figure 7.

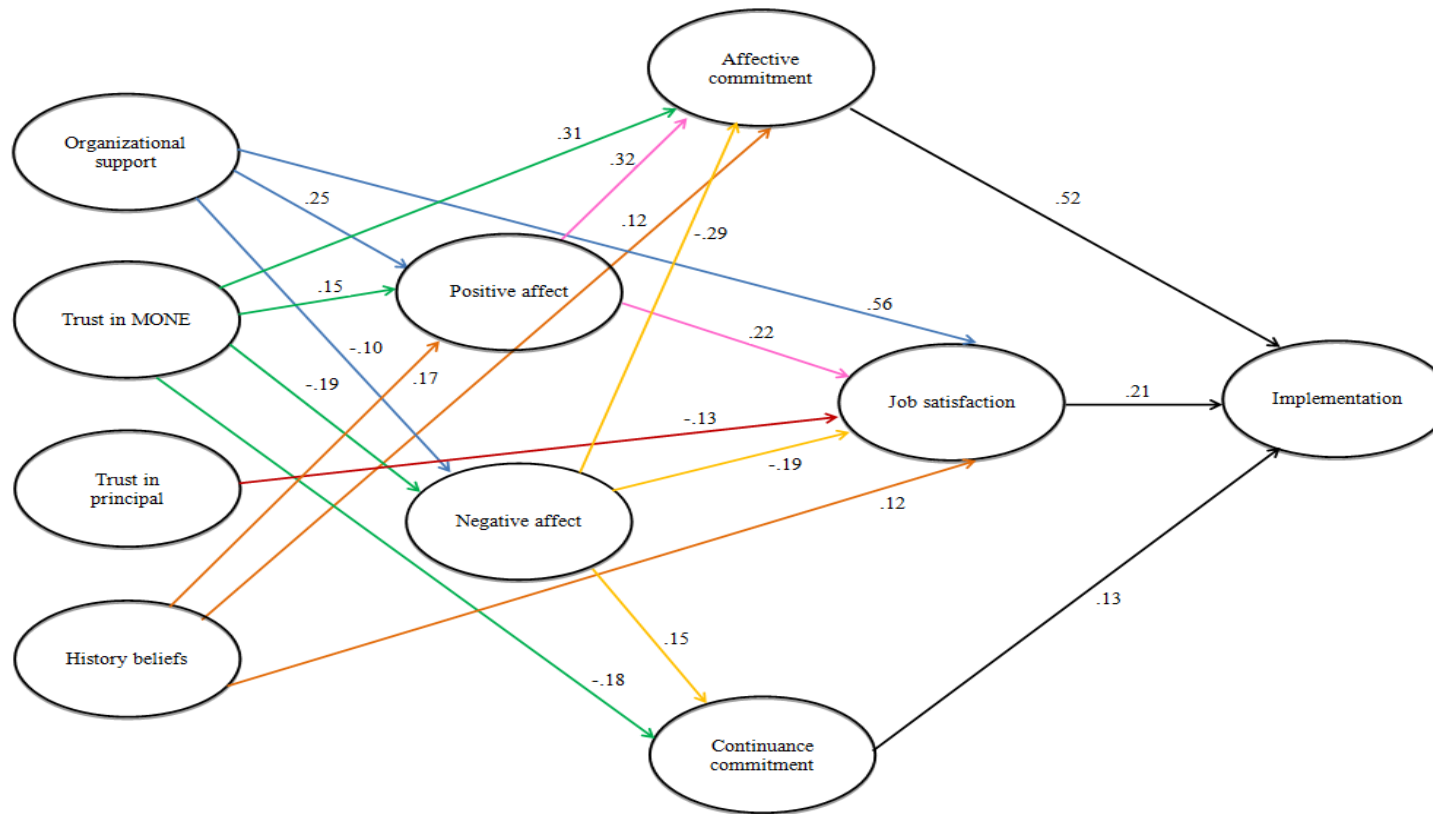


Figure 7. Trimmed model with standardized direct effects.

4.4.3.1. Direct effects for the trimmed model

In the trimmed model, all expected direct and indirect relationships were significant and all relationships were in the hypothesized direction except for one path. To be more specific, results indicated that trust in MONE predicted positive affect (.15) and negative affect (-.19) significantly (partial support for *H5c*). The directions of these relationships were positive for positive affect and negative for negative affect. These findings suggested that the ones who reported higher trust in MONE also reported higher positive and lower negative change-related affect. Similarly, trust in MONE predicted affective commitment positively (.31) and continuance commitment negatively (-.18) (partial support for *H5a*). That is, those who reported higher trust in MONE also reported higher affective commitment and lower continuance commitment.

Also, perceived organizational support predicted positive change-related affect in a positive way (.25) and negative change-related affect (-.10) in a negative way (full support for *H4c*). That is to say, increased positive teacher perception of organizational support was linked with higher positive change-related emotions and less negative ones. Moreover, perceived organizational support predicted job satisfaction (full support for *H4b*). The direction of this relationship was positive and the effect was large (.56). This finding implied that, those who perceived higher organizational support were likely to be more satisfied with their jobs.

Change history beliefs (.17), similarly, predicted positive change-related affect in a positive way (partial support for *H3c*). Therefore, those who believed that the past changes were managed effectively also reported that they have experienced more positive affect for the current change as well. By providing partial support for *H3a* and full support for *H3b*, history beliefs also significantly predicted affect driven attitudes of affective commitment to change (.12) and job satisfaction (.12). The directions of both relationships were positive which implied that those who believed effective management of the past changes also reported to have higher affective commitment and job satisfaction in the time of current change.

Both positive and negative change-related affects predicted job satisfaction (full support for *H2*) and affective commitment but the directions of these relationships were opposite (partial support for *H1a* & full support for *H1b*). That is, negative affect predicted job satisfaction (-.19) and affective commitment (-.29) negatively while positive affect predicted these variables positively (.22 for job satisfaction; .32 for affective commitment). All these findings suggested that the ones who reported higher positive and lower negative change-related affect also reported higher job satisfaction and affective commitment. Unlike positive affect, by providing full support for *H1b*, negative-change related affect also predicted continuance commitment positively (.15). This finding suggested that increased negative change-related affect was related with higher continuance change commitment toward the current change.

By providing full support for *H6* and *H7*, all attitudinal variables included in the model predicted teachers' change implementation behaviors (.52 for affective commitment to change; .13 for continuance commitment to change; .21 for job satisfaction) with highest contribution of affective commitment to change. As expected the directions of these relationships were all positive, which suggested that the ones who reported to have higher affective commitment, continuance commitment, and job satisfaction during 4+4+4 change also reported that they exhibited more change implementation behaviors in their schools.

On the other hand, direct effects for the trimmed model indicated that trust in principal only significantly predicted job satisfaction of teachers (-.13), which provided partial support for *H5b*. The effect was unexpectedly in negative direction, which means that the ones who reported higher trust in school principal reported lower job satisfaction in the time of change. However, this finding was considered as not reflecting the true nature of this relationship but a statistical drawback, which was discussed in the final chapter.

4.4.3.2. Indirect effects for the trimmed model

Beside all these direct effects, indirect effects in the trimmed model were all significant with varying magnitudes in such a way that the lowest path coefficient in these indirect effects was $-.02$ while the highest one was $.21$ (Figure 7). More specifically, the indirect effect between trust in MONE and job satisfaction was significant ($.07$) through two different pathways (partial support for *H5d* and *H5e*). That is, path one is through positive affect and path two is through negative affect. Similarly, by providing full support for *H4e*, the indirect effect between organizational support and job satisfaction was also significant ($.07$) through the same two paths. However, the indirect effect between history beliefs and job satisfaction ($.04$) was significant through only positive change-related affect (partial support for *H3c*). These findings suggested that the ones reported higher trust in MONE and perceived organizational support also reported that they experienced more positive and less negative change-related affect, which in turn, was linked with higher job satisfaction. On the other hand, these findings also showed that the ones who believed in the effective management of past changes also reported that they experienced more positive affect, which, in turn, was associated with higher job satisfaction.

The results also yielded significant indirect effects between the change antecedents of trust in MONE ($.10$) and organizational support ($.11$) and affective commitment to change through positive and negative change-related affects variables (partial support for *H5d* and *H4d*). To be more specific, positive and negative affect played fully mediating role between POS and affective commitment to change but partial mediating role between trust in MONE and affective change commitment. In a similar vein, the results revealed positive indirect effect between history beliefs ($.05$) and affective commitment to change through positive affect variable (partial support for *H3d*). Also, despite the relatively low magnitude of the path coefficients, the indirect effect between the change antecedents of trust in MONE ($-.03$) and POS ($-.02$) and continuance

commitment was also significant and negative change-related affect played partially mediating role for MONE trust (partial support for *H5d*) and fully mediating role for POS (partial support for *H4d*).

When it comes to the ultimate dependent variable of this study, change implementation behavior, significant indirect paths were concluded for the variables of trust in MONE (.20), perceived organizational support (.18), and change history beliefs (.13) through positive and negative affects and through the attitudinal variables of affective commitment, continuance commitment, and job satisfaction. Similarly, the indirect effect between positive affect and implementation was also significant (.21) through two pathways. The first path was through affective commitment and the second path was through job satisfaction. In addition, significant indirect effect was concluded between negative affect and implementation behavior (-.17) through three paths. Two of them were the same paths between positive affect and implementation behavior and the final path was through continuance commitment. Contrary to other findings, the indirect effect of trust in principal on the implementation behavior was also significant in a negative way (-.03) through job satisfaction variable. However, this finding was considered as not reflecting the true nature of this relationship but a statistical drawback, which was discussed in the final chapter.

Taken together, these findings implied that the ones who reported higher trust in MONE, perceived organizational support, and better history beliefs also reported to have higher positive and lower negative change-related affect (valid for the teachers reported higher trust and higher organizational support but not for the ones with better history beliefs), which was associated with higher affective commitment and higher job satisfaction, and subsequently higher implementation behavior. Also, the ones who reported higher negative change-related affect also reported higher continuance commitment and subsequently higher implementation behavior. Direct, indirect, and total effects for the trimmed model were presented in Table 13.

Table 13

Standardized Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects for the Trimmed Model

		Principal trust	MONE trust	Organizational support	History beliefs	Negative affect	Positive affect	Job satisfaction	Affective commitment	Continuance commitment
Negative affect	Direct	-	-.19***	-.10*	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total indirect	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	-	-.19***	-.10*	-	-	-	-	-	-
Positive affect	Direct	-	.15***	.25***	.17***	-	-	-	-	-
	Total indirect	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	-	.15***	.25***	.17***	-	-	-	-	-
Job satisfaction	Direct	-.13*	-	.56***	.12***	-.19***	.22***	-	-	-
	Total indirect	-	.07***	.07***	.04***	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	-.13*	.07***	.63***	.16***	-.19***	.22***	-	-	-
Affective commitment	Direct	-	.31***	-	.12***	-.29***	.32***	-	-	-
	Total indirect	-	.10***	.11***	.05***	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	-	.41***	.11***	.18**	-.29***	.32***	-	-	-
Continuance commitment	Direct	-	-.18***	-	-	.15**	-	-	-	-
	Total indirect	-	-.03***	-.02*	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	-	-.21***	-.02*	-	.15**	-	-	-	-
Implementation	Direct	-	-	-	-	-	-	.21***	.52***	.13*
	Total indirect	-.03**	.20***	.18***	.13***	-.17***	.21***	-	-	-
	Total	-.03**	.20***	.18***	.13***	-.17***	.21***	.21***	.52***	.13*

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

4.4.3.3. Squared multiple correlations (R^2) for the trimmed model

Job satisfaction, affective commitment, and continuance commitment variables accounted for 38% of variance in change implementation behavior. Moreover, trust in MONE, history beliefs, and positive and negative change-related affect explained 49% of variance in affective commitment. However, trust in MONE and negative change-related affect only accounted for 7% of variance in continuance commitment. Trust in principal, perceived organizational support, history beliefs, and positive and negative change-related affect explained 46% of variance in job satisfaction. Also, trust in MONE, perceived organizational support, and history beliefs explained 16% of variance in positive change-related affect. Similarly, trust in MONE and perceived organizational support accounted for 6% of variance in change-related negative emotions. Table 14 shows the squared multiple correlations for the trimmed model.

Table 14

Squared Multiple Correlations for the Trimmed Model

	Negative affect	Positive affect	Affective commitment	Continuance commitment	Job satisfaction	Implementation
R^2	.06	.16	.49	.07	.46	.38

4.5. Summary of the Results

The purpose of this study was to explore the nature of the relationship between change antecedents, change-related affect, change and job related attitudes, and change implementation behavior among Turkish public school teachers in the midst of a large-scale 4+4+4 change. Almost all relationships were in expected directions. Considering the exogenous variables of the study, trust in MONE was found to be the variable related with highest number of the endogenous variables of the study either directly or indirectly. Surprisingly, the results yielded only one significant direct effect of trust in principal on job satisfaction; however, the direction of this relationship was negative. POS, on the other hand, was found to

be an exogenous variable that was directly related with affect variables and job satisfaction, but no direct relationship was concluded with commitment to change variables.

In addition to the significant paths between antecedents and change and job-related attitudes, the results suggested that negative and positive affect also played significant roles in attitude formation directly and change implementation behavior formation indirectly. Furthermore, the results revealed that although the strengths of the relationships between positive affect and positive attitudinal constructs were higher than that for negative affect, negative affect was related with negative change-related attitude of continuance commitment to change unlike positive affect. All attitudes, similarly, significantly predicted the ultimate outcome variable of change implementation with the highest contribution of affective commitment to change, as expected.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the results of the study were discussed with specific focus on the significant direct and indirect paths in the tested model in the light of the relevant literature. Subsequently, implications for theory, research, and practice were suggested. Finally, recommendations for further studies were presented based on the results produced and limitations of the study.

5.1. Discussion of the Results

This study aimed to test a model that predicts Turkish public school teachers' change implementation behaviors in the midst of a large-scale change that entailed major alterations in all educational levels and subsequent physical, curricular, and school-level implementation changes. The 4+4+4 change, in fact, was accompanied with several emotional and attitudinal responses on the part of the teachers (e.g., Cerit et al., 2014; Doğan et al., 2014; Örs et al., 2013). However, neglecting the outcomes of the change on school implementers' daily routines, work conditions, and reactions were generally associated with the potential failure of this change and negative perceptions about the misconduct of MONE (Güven, 2012; İnal, 2012). Although the merit of change-related employee reactions to reach successful change results was underlined by various change scholars (e.g., Armenakis et al., 1993; Fullan, 2009; Hargreaves, 2005b; Kiefer, 2005; Leithwood, 2007; Porras & Robertson, 1992; Wanous et al., 2000), the world literature signified underestimation of employee reactions but prioritization of technical and financial aspects of change (Clegg & Walsh, 2004). Similarly, some scholars criticized change literature due to the pathological view of employee emotions, which should be dealt with for desired organizational

outcomes (Fugate et al., 2011; Kiefer, 2002). Later, this dominant view started to fade away with the accumulation of empirical evidence revealing the influence of employees' affective reactions on desired attitudes and behaviors for organizational success (e.g., Avey et al., 2008; Fugate et al., 2011; Tenhiälä & Lount Jr, 2013). Yet, the need of studies exploring the emotional dimension was still underlined by change scholars both in business and educational organizations (e.g., Brief & Weiss, 2002; Fugate et al., 2011; Hargreaves, 2005b; Leithwood, 2007; Van Veen & Slegers, 2006). Thus, going beyond the conducted studies and responding to the gaps in the literature was aimed in this study. For this aim, the majorly overlooked aspect of change process, the human side, was concentrated on and teachers' emotions and attitudes were investigated in relation to several antecedents and the outcome of change implementation behavior. Specifically, based on the AET of Weiss and Croponzano (1996) and general change recipients' reactions model of Oreg et al. (2011), emotions were used as the predictors of teacher attitudes, which were subsequently tied to judgment driven behavior of implementation. Following the same theoretical framework, change antecedents were utilized as the predictors of attitudes and based on the gaps in the literature; they were also tested in relation to emotions as well. On the whole, in this model, nature of the relationship between four antecedents (i.e., change history beliefs, perceived organizational support, trust in principal, & trust in MONE), positive and negative change-related affect, commitment to change (i.e., affective commitment & continuance commitment), job satisfaction, and change implementation behaviors of public school teachers was tested.

To accomplish this aim, a study composed of two phases was designed. In the first phase, the piloting of the selected instruments was conducted and initial validity and reliability evidences were presented. All instruments utilized were confirmed to have construct validities with the help of EFAs and CFAs but due to excessive latent correlation between normative commitment and affective commitment variables, normative commitment was omitted from the study to avoid the risk of multicollinearity. Indeed, this finding was in line with the study

of Meyer et al. (2007) in which three-dimensional structure of commitment to change was tested in two different cultures; one of which was western Canadian and the other was collectivistic Indian culture. As discussed in this study, affective and normative commitment dimensions have higher correlation in collectivistic cultures, which makes it hard to distinguish between these two dimensions. Based on the study of Gellaty et al. (2006) (as cited in Meyer et al., 2007), normative commitment was suggested to manifest itself in two forms in collectivistic cultures, which can be accompanied with other commitment dimensions. Specifically, the “moral imperative” (p. 207) included in normative commitment suggested the desire to support the change (because it is socially accepted to be right) and this aspect makes it similar with affective commitment and the “indebted obligation” (p. 207) included in normative commitment suggested the feeling of cost (because failure to do the socially right things have some costs) and this aspect makes it similar with continuance commitment. Stemming from the collectivist culture of the Turkish society, the internalized inferiority of teachers as compared to that of decision-makers might play a role in their tendencies to accept the dominance of authority over themselves and mandated change as dogma, masking the true nature of commitment. Yet, whether it is the norms imposed by the authority that makes teachers exhibit supportive attitudes or it is the inherent benefits of change could be another point of discussion in Turkish school context.

In the second phase, the model was tested through using SEM and the main findings were presented. Before moving on the main analyses, some preliminary analyses were conducted to explore whether attending an in-service training about the change, teaching time of school, and school level variables created some variations in the outcome variables of the study (i.e., positive and negative change-related affect, affective commitment, continuance commitment, job satisfaction, and implementation behavior). The results revealed that whether the schools had double-session or whole day teaching did not create any variation in these variables. However, whether the teachers attended an in-service training or

not showed expected relationship with the outcome variables despite the fact that two groups had greatly different sample sizes and results should be interpreted cautiously (Montgomery, 2001). Specifically, the teachers who attended one or more in-service trainings about the change also reported higher positive change-related affect, affective commitment, job satisfaction, and implementation behaviors, and lower negative change-related affect. Therefore, the in-service trainings provided by MONE can be inferred to be beneficial in addressing change related concerns and the given information might help teachers to make sense of the inherent benefits of change and do what is demanded by the change in their daily routines voluntarily. These findings were parallel with the literature which suggested that uncertainty and unknown caused by the lack of change related information was related with higher negative employee reactions (e.g., Armenakis et al., 2007; Bernerth, 2004; Hargreaves; 2004; Shum, 2008). Although attending an in-service training was found to create difference in teachers' change-related reactions, descriptive study results showed that the number of teachers who reported to attend in-service training about the 4+4+4 change was dramatically lower than the ones who responded negatively. It is visible, therefore, that there is a vital gap in the change implementation in TES. Similarly, school level was also found to be a factor that created variation in positive and negative change-related affect, affective commitment, job satisfaction, and implementation behavior. These findings were parallel with the expectations since the 4+4+4 change affected school levels differently and the mostly affected ones were primary and secondary level schools (e.g., Doğan et al., 2014).

Following the preliminary analysis, the hypothesized model was tested. Overall, the model fitted the data well and majority of the hypothesized direct and indirect paths were concluded to be meaningful. After the elimination of non-significant paths sequentially, the trimmed model indicated better fit than the hypothesized model. Considering the parsimony as well, the trimmed model was accepted as the final model in this study. Based on AET, change-related affect was tested as the precedent of change and job related attitudes. Therefore, the model proposed

by Oreg et al. (2011) was extended by exploring emotions as the predictors of attitudinal reactions and the outcomes of change antecedents. Results of the tested model confirmed the basic premises of AET in Turkish school context in such a way that affect and attitude relationship was confirmed. Moreover, considering the gaps in the literature, the relationships between antecedents and change-related affect were tested and empirical support was provided for majority of the hypothesized paths. Therefore, these findings extended previous works by inclusion of emotions as the mediators between change antecedents and change-related attitudes in Turkish school change context. AET also posited that judgment-driven behaviors are the direct by-products of attitudes that are tied to emotions (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). In this study, this proposition was also confirmed in such a way that the attitudes that were found to be predicted by at least one of the affect variables were substantiated to have influence on change implementation behavior, which is considered as rational decisions made by employees (Hornung & Rousseau, 2007). This finding was also in support with the previous works that presented indirect relationship between affect and judgment-driven behaviors like withdrawal or turnover through the mediating roles of attitudinal variables (e.g., Fugate et al., 2011; Tenhiälä & Lount Jr, 2013). This study also contributed in the emotion literature by providing additional evidence on different bases and outcomes of positive and negative emotions (Kiefer & Briener, 2006). Although the literature disappointingly signified that negative affect is predominantly used in the organizational context (Kiefer, 2002, 2005; Peeters, 2002), findings in line with Cameron and McNaughtan (2014) were acquired in this study, which suggested the merit of positive affect in the organizational change context as well.

Besides, the results provided strong support for majority of the hypothesized paths and addressed several gaps in the literature. First, the results provided partial support to *H1a* since positive affect was found to be related with affective commitment to change positively but not related with continuance commitment. Negative change-related affect, on the other hand, was related with affective and

continuance commitment to change in expected directions; thus, provided full support for *H1b*. These results implied that the teachers who reported higher positive and lower negative affect in the time of 4+4+4 change also reported higher desire to support the change due to its inherent benefits. Also, the teachers who reported higher negative emotions were also the ones who reported the desire to exhibit support for the change due to the cost of exhibiting unsupportive behaviors. Although these findings were majorly parallel with the literature that found out relationship between positive and/or negative affect with affective and continuance commitment (e.g., Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004; Seo et al., 2012; Shepherd et al., 2011), the findings of the study reached opposing findings with the study of Fisher (2002). She suggested that having a positive base, affective commitment might only be predicted by positive affect, not by negative ones and she confirmed this finding in her study. However, later studies extended this finding and reached the conclusion that attitudes with positive and negative theoretical bases can be predicted by both positive and negative affective reactions (e.g., Shepherd et al., 2011; Wegge et al., 2006). Based on the criticisms of Kiefer (2002) on overconcentration of negative emotions in the organizational context, both positive and negative emotions were tested in relation to commitment to change in Turkish school context and the findings revealed that teachers' evaluations about the events accompanied with the 4+4+4 were not only negative but also positive. Yet, negatively evaluated events and resulting negative emotions were found to be more effective in predicting their attitudes in this study. This finding might be related with the asymmetry effect as called by Peeters (2002) in such a way that avoiding the negative outcomes of negatively evaluated events resulted in more engagement with these events than the positive ones. Also, lack of relationship between positive affect and continuance commitment to change might stem from the nature of the continuance commitment construct itself. Since continuance commitment is an attitude that results in employees to meet the basic requirements of the change due to an external imperatives (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002) (e.g., pressure from the

parents, colleagues, or school principal and/or the outcomes of the inspection in Turkish public school context), there is no inner motivation to exhibit change supportive behaviors; therefore, teachers who do not believe in the benefit of change at all may have the potential to support it just because they have to do it and to couple it with only negative experiences and resulting negative evaluations. Moreover, in accordance with the study of Mignonac and Herrbach (2004) and Wegge et al. (2006), in this study emotion-attitude relationship was found to be stronger for affective commitment than that for continuance commitment and this finding supported the argument that continuance commitment is a more cognitive-based construct rather than being an emotion-based one. Therefore, it can be speculated that lower change-related negative affect might be associated with higher perceived benefit inherent in change and when the change is perceived to have desirable outcomes for teachers and school organizations, continuance commitment is likely to be less since teachers have the potential to support the change to reach these desired outcomes, not because of the threatening factors.

Second, based on AET (Weiss & Croponzano, 1996) and the need of studies concerning the potential relationship between affect and job satisfaction (Niklas & Dormann, 2005; & Saari & Judge, 2004); in this study teachers' positive and negative change-related affect was tested as the predictor of job satisfaction. Consistent with the majority of studies in the literature (e.g., Fisher, 2000; Judge & Illies, 2004; Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004; Niklas & Dormann, 2005; Wegge et al., 2006), the results showed that higher positive and lower negative change-related affect was associated with higher teacher satisfaction in Turkish schools. These findings, however, were contradictory with the studies that reveal no relationship between affect and job satisfaction (e.g., Fisher, 2002; Mossholder et al., 2000). The results of the study also signified that positive change-related affect showed superior predictive power when compared with negative change-related affect. This finding was also expected based on the arguments in one of the latest meta-reviews that suggested stronger relationship for positive affectivity and job satisfaction (Conolly & Viswesvaran, 2000) and later empirical evidence

in the study conducted by Judge and Illies (2004). Taken together, these findings provided full support for *H2*. Given all these, Turkish teachers who evaluated the events caused by the change more positively (may potentially be the ones affected less from the change) also evaluated their jobs in a more positive way as well and be more satisfied.

Third, the results provided partial support for *H3a* in such a way that no meaningful relationship was concluded between teachers' change history beliefs and continuance commitment to change; however, meaningful relationship was concluded between history beliefs and affective commitment to change. Since all negatively worded items were worded positively in the main study in the PCMHB scale, positive relationship was expected and confirmed between affective commitment and change history beliefs. Therefore, the teachers who believed in the effective management of the prior changes were also the ones who desired to support the change due to the accompanied benefits. Positive relationship acquired between history beliefs and affective commitment to change was parallel with the literature that found direct and indirect relationships between history beliefs and change-related attitudes like cynicism, openness to change, readiness for change, resistance, and commitment to change (Bordia et al., 2011; Bouckenooghe, 2009; Devos et al. 2007; Self & Schraeder, 2009; Rafferty & Restubog, 2010; Reichers et al., 1997; Wanous et al., 2000). Given this finding, it can be inferred that when teachers have more positive beliefs concerning the prior changes executed in TES and evaluate their outcomes to be desirable for their well-being and school organizations, they are likely to support the current change as well. Considering the theory, the reason behind their supportive attitudes might be their optimistic expectations from the current change to bring about desirable individual and organizational outcomes like the past changes. Contrary to the studies that found out meaningful relationship between negative change-related attitudes and change history beliefs (e.g., Bordia et al., 2011; Reichers et al., 1997), no meaningful relationship was concluded for Turkish teachers' change history beliefs and continuance commitment to change in this study. This finding

might stem from the fact that Turkish teachers in public schools work with a permanent contract and they have life-long work guarantee unless they quit their job. Therefore, in the implementation of the prior changes, they might not be challenged with a cost resulting from their unsupportive behaviors including social pressure or an administrative sanction. Another alternative explanation for the lack of relationship might be that some participant teachers do not care about the outcomes of the past changes because they may not be committed in their organization and teaching profession at all and teaching might be regarded as only a mean of earning money. These teachers might be the ones who have to exhibit minimum required support for the change because they are tied in MONE with a contract. Finally, the nature of the scale utilized might be the real source for the lack of relationship between change history beliefs and continuance commitment to change because the scale involved items that asks teachers' to rate the influence of the prior changes on the organizational performance and their well-being and the way it was managed (e.g., participation of teachers in decision-making) but no item was present asking the cost accompanied with their unsupportive behaviors or the given recognition/reward for their supportive behaviors.

Subsequently, full support was acquired for *H3b* by showing that higher positive beliefs concerning the management of the past changes in TES were associated with higher job satisfaction. Although previous studies did not test the direct relationship between job satisfaction and history beliefs, they reached some findings that showed indirect relationship between these two through trust and affective commitment to change (Bordia et al., 2011; Rafferty & Restubog, 2010). However, some scholars speculated that history beliefs have repercussions on work-related outcomes (Shepherd et al., 2011). Therefore, in this study, direct relationship was tested and despite being low, positive relationship was acquired. This finding implied that when teachers' believed that prior changes in TES were executed in an effective way; they also reported to evaluate their jobs more positively. This finding is expected in such a way that, teachers' past change experiences was used as a comparison criteria with the current changes and if they

concluded that past changes were effective and beneficial for themselves and the school organizations, their evaluations with the current change is potentially be positive as well. Similarly, if their contribution in the prior changes were valued, they were cared in these transitions, and their working conditions and well-beings were improved with the previous changes, they might expect similar outcomes with the current change as well; thus, they might evaluate their jobs more positively and feel more satisfied.

Fifth, with the recommendations of Kiefer (2005), direct relationship between change-related affect and teachers' change history beliefs were tested in this study and the results provided partial support for *H3c*. Specifically, positive-change related affect showed positive relationship with teachers' change history beliefs but no meaningful relationship was concluded for negative affect. These findings suggested that the more positive teacher beliefs regarding the past changes in TES, the more positive affect they felt about the current change. This finding was in line with the study of Eriksson (2004) and provided empirical support for the arguments of Martin et al. (2005) and Restubog (2010). Lack of relationship between history beliefs and negative affect was also parallel with the study of Restubog (2010), which did not come up with a meaningful relationship between history beliefs and change anxiety. These findings implied that beliefs about the past changes might have a role in construction of only positive affects, rather than the negative ones. Teachers at the target of the change in TES who believed that past changes had improved organizational conditions and their well-being might refer this stored knowledge and evaluate the current change with an optimistic point of view. However, teachers who did not believe in the value of the past changes for themselves and the school organizations seem to evaluate the current changes independent of the past interventions. This finding might stem from the credits the MONE and the other lower lever managers built up before the current change and resulting teacher tolerance for the change failures and accompanied outcomes. An alternative explanation for this finding might be the teachers' personality trait of high positive affectivity and optimism in evaluating

organizational events in a positive way rather than in a negative way. Therefore, whether it is the personality of teachers or their loyalty and resulting desire to reciprocate the investment made for them is the real reason behind the lack of relationship between history beliefs and negative-change related affect is another point of discussion for further studies.

Sixth, the result provided no empirical support for *H4a* in such a way that no direct relationship was concluded between perceived organizational support and two commitment to change forms but indirect relationships was concluded via change-related emotions. These findings were not consistent with the majority of the studies in the literature that found direct relationship between POS and organizational commitment (Rhoades et al., 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Stefanie et al., 1998). Similarly, these findings did not support the previous studies that concluded meaningful relationship between POS and attitudes in times of change in business (Armstrong-Stassen, 2004; Eby et al., 2000; Lee & Peccei, 2006) and school organizations (Yu et al., 2002). Lack of relationship between POS and commitment to change variables might be related with centralized structure of TES in such a way that change plans were made at the top and imposed on schools. Therefore, rather than the school-level variable of organizational support, support provided from the highest level management in times of change targeting whole school system and teachers (e.g., in-service trainings, required infrastructure, participatory decision-making, rewarding, etc.) might have an effect on teachers' change-related reactions. An alternative reason for the lack of relationship might be the participant teachers' inappropriate interpretation of organizational support construct. Indeed, supervisors are regarded as the representatives of the organizations (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002); therefore, the participant teachers might closely couple POS with the support from their school principal. Since school principals have limited role and power in the change process, particularly in centralized school systems like TES, this kind of support, might have repercussions more on job-related outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction) rather than the organizational level ones.

Contrary to these findings, *H4b* was supported in such a way that POS was meaningfully and positively associated with job satisfaction in TES. This result suggested that teachers who felt to be cared and whose contributions were valued were also the ones who reported to be happier with their jobs. This finding reaffirmed previous studies that concluded meaningful relationship between POS and job satisfaction (Armstrong-Stassen, 2004; Cullen et al., 2014; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) but contrary with the findings of Wanberg and Banas (2000) that concluded no predictive roles of contextual factors (including social support) in job satisfaction.

Subsequently, the results provided full support for *H4c*, which suggested meaningful relationship between POS and positive and negative change-related affect with opposing signs. Although the direct relationship between POS and change-related affect did not attract the attention of scholars much yet, there were some studies that suggested potential relationship between these two in such a way that POS was found to predict affect-based attitudes (e.g., Armstrong-Stressen, 2004; Cullen et al., 2014; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Rhoades et al., 2001). Hargreaves (2004) went beyond and revealed that lack of support was one of the reasons of teachers' change-related negative emotions. Kiefer (2002), similarly, substantiated the direct positive relationship between principal and colleague support and expressed positive change-related emotions. She further underlined the gap regarding the path between POS and change-related emotions in her subsequent study (Kiefer, 2005). To compensate this gap, POS and affect relationship was tested in this study and empirical evidence was produced for this relationship. The results also indicated that prediction is stronger for positive affect when compared with that for negative affect. This finding implied that positive organizational atmosphere might have more effect on increasing teachers' positive change evaluations and subsequent positive affect rather than its influence on reducing negative change-related affect in Turkish school context.

In addition, the results revealed partial support in *H5a* in such a way that trust in MONE was concluded to be related with affective and continuance commitment to change in opposing signs, but no meaningful relationship was found between teacher trust in principal and any of the two forms of commitment to change. Therefore, higher trust in MONE was linked with higher affective and lower continuance commitment to change. These findings were expected in such a way that when there is trust-based relationship between top management and teachers, teachers may believe in the potential positive outcomes of the deeds and actions of management for their well-being in times of change; therefore, they are likely to exhibit higher affective change commitment and lower continuance commitment. This finding was in line with the literature that suggested positive relationship between trust in top management and increment in positive change-related attitudes (Devos et al., 2007; Michaelis et al., 2009, 2010; Reinke, 2003; Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002) and decrement in the negative ones (Oreg, 2006). However, the findings in this study were not parallel with the findings of Eby et al. (2000) that showed no relationship between trust in top management and organizational readiness for change and Zayim and Kondakci (2015) which concluded meaningful relationship between trust in principal and readiness for change. The results in this study also indicated that teacher trust in MONE rather than in principal has the merit in predicting teachers' change-related attitudes in TES and this finding empirically supported the argument of Zayim (2010) regarding the inclusion of trust in MONE as the most relevant trust focus in centralized school systems like TES. Moreover, these results also supported the arguments about distinguishing the foci of trust since they have different bases and outcomes (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Yang & Mossholder, 2010). Specifically, Dirks and Ferrin (2002) suggested that trust in immediate supervisor and trust in top management have different outcomes for employees and organizations since the nature of these relationships are different. That is, trust-based relationship with immediate supervisor is expected to have repercussions on work-related outcomes; however, trust-based relationship built with the top management is

likely to have organizational-level outcomes. Therefore, the lack of relationship between trust in principal and commitment to change in TES supported the literature in that respect. Taken together, these findings all suggested that trust in MONE is a factor that has more influence in constructing teachers' change-related attitudes in Turkey rather than that trust in principal has. This finding might stem from the centralized structure of TES and school principals' inferior position when compared with the decision-makers in both school and change management. They have no real autonomy and power to make system-level decisions, which is particularly valid for the times of change.

Similar to the previous findings, partial support was acquired for *H5b* such that trust in principal showed meaningful relationship with job satisfaction; however, no predictive role of trust in MONE was found. Indeed, this finding supported the previous discussions on the different outcomes of trust-based relationships with different referent groups and expected work-related outcomes of trust in principal (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002; Yang & Mossholder, 2010). Moreover, these findings provided additional empirical evidence on the relationship between trust and job satisfaction (Ellis & Shockley-Zalabak, 2001; Matzler & Renzle, 2007; Rich, 1997). However, the results acquired were contrary with the findings of Ellis and Shockley-Zalabak (2001), which revealed better predictive role of trust in top management than trust in immediate supervisor on the outcome of job satisfaction. The greater role played by trust in principal in predicting job satisfaction was an expected finding in TES as well since school principals are the ones which can make school-level decisions and these decisions have direct repercussions on teachers' daily routines and school-level responsibilities in Turkey. However, the decisions made by MONE are system-wide and affect whole teachers at the same time. Moreover, school principals are the ones who play most essential role in creating school atmosphere. Therefore, relatively more personal communication established between school principal and teachers is expected to have an influence on teachers' evaluations about their jobs and resulting job satisfaction. Despite the meaningful relationship acquired between

trust in principal and job satisfaction, the direction of the relationship to be negative was contrary to the mainstream view. Indeed, this finding was not associated with the nature of the variables but regarded as a statistical drawback. More specifically, the bivariate correlation between trust in principal and job satisfaction was positive (as expected) but in the final model low but negative relationship was acquired. This relationship might stem from ignoring an indirect effect of a second variable that was not included in the model. That is, a second predictor might potentially mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and trust in principal and this stronger negative indirect effect is likely to suppress the real positive but relatively lower direct effect of trust in principal on job satisfaction and give out total negative effect. An alternative explanation can be that there might be a non-linear relationship between trust in principal and job satisfaction caused by the nature of the data, which gave out an unexpected negative relationship.

Next, the results provided partial support in *H5c* such that meaningful predictive role of trust in MONE on positive and negative change-related affect was concluded in expected directions but no predictive role of trust in principal was found. It can be inferred from these results that the teachers who reported higher trust in MONE were also the ones who reported higher positive and lower negative emotions. Despite the fact that the literature still in need of studies exploring the relationship between trust and emotion, Kiefer (2005) found out that negative change-related emotions to be related with trust in organization. Although this study utilized trust as an outcome variable, some other studies at least speculatively implied that trust (as an internal context variable) may have the potential to influence experienced emotions in times of change (e.g., Ashford & Humphrey, 1995; Devos et al., 2007). In school organizations, similarly, the gap between the deeds and actions of the policy-makers was associated with negative teacher emotions and resisting attitudes in times of change (James & Jones, 2008). The present study, therefore, attempted to test this relationship and found out empirical support for trust in MONE variable. This finding might stem from the

fact that 4+4+4 change was coupled with the Ministry since they are the ones who designed and mandated it. Therefore, Turkish teachers might associate their change-related experiences with the top management, not with their direct supervisors and the source of the positive and negative change-related events might be regarded as MONE, not school principals. This might be the potential reason for the lack of relationship between change-related teacher affects and trust in principal.

When it comes to the direct paths between attitudes and the ultimate outcome of implementation behavior, two hypotheses (i.e., *H6* & *H7*) were generated. The results provided full support for these two. Specifically, as indicated in *H6*, teachers' affective commitment and continuance commitment to change showed positive relationship with change implementation behavior but the strength of the relationship was greater for affective change commitment than that for continuance commitment. This finding suggests that benefit accompanied with the change was a much more effective factor in empowering change supportive behaviors than the perceived cost of exhibiting unsupportive behaviors. This finding reaffirmed previous studies that revealed strong positive relationship with affective commitment to change and discretionary change supportive behaviors and positive relationship between continuance commitment to change and non-discretionary change supportive behaviors (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Meyer et al., 2007). These findings implied that Turkish teachers who do not believe in the benefit of change for themselves and the school organizations but who have to support the change due to the pressure of external imperatives do the minimum for adapting the requirements of the change in their daily routines. These findings provided empirical evidence for the reasons of unsatisfactory change success in Turkish schools as well (Akşit, 2007; Güven, 2012). In line with the arguments of Jimmieson et al. (2008), Rafferty et al. (2013), and Kennedy and Kennedy (1996), this study also indicated that favorable change-related attitudes were accompanied with individuals' voluntary acts for the sake of the change. Based on the premises of AET, job satisfaction is considered as the precedent of judgment-driven

behaviors. Considering that change supportive behaviors are based on the rational decision-making made by employees and have repercussions in the long run (Hornung & Rousseau, 2007), job satisfaction was also tested as the precedent of implementation behavior in this study. Despite the fact that there is no empirical study on this relationship yet, job satisfaction showed meaningful positive relationship with implementation behavior. This finding suggested that when Turkish public school teachers evaluated their jobs more positively, they also do more for meeting the demands of the change and work for the desirable outcomes. Therefore, similar to the studies showing relationship between job satisfaction and performance (Christen, Iyer, & Soberman, 2006; Hochwarter, Perrewé, Ferris, & Brymer, 1999; Wanous, 1974), this study provided empirical evidence for job satisfaction and teachers' change performance as well.

In addition to all these, by combining AET (Weiss & Croponzano, 1996) and change recipients' reactions model of Oreg et al. (2011), positive and negative teacher affect was tested as the precedent of attitudes. However, since change antecedents were directly tied in these attitudes in the model of Oreg et al. (2011), the mediating roles of positive and negative affects were tested in between change antecedents and affective and continuance commitment to change and job satisfaction. As indicated in *H3d*, *H3e*, *H4d*, *H4e*, *H5d*, *H5e*, change related positive and negative teacher affects were expected to partially mediate the relationships between all change antecedents and all attitudinal variables separately. For *H3d*, the results provided partial support by showing that positive relationship between history beliefs and affective commitment to change partially mediated by positive change-related affect but this mediating role was not found for continuance commitment. For *H3e*, only the partially mediating role of positive affect was found on the positive relationship between history beliefs and job satisfaction. Similarly, the relationship between POS and affective commitment was found to be fully mediated by positive and negative change-related affect and the relationship between POS and continuance commitment to change was fully mediated by negative affect, which partially supported *H4d*. For

H4e, results revealed full support in such a way that positive relationship between POS and job satisfaction was partially mediated by positive and negative affects separately. Finally, no indirect relationship via change-related affect was concluded between trust in principal and any other attitudinal variables in the model; however, positive relationship between trust in MONE and affective commitment was partially mediated by positive and negative change-related affect and the relationship between trust in MONE and job satisfaction was fully mediated by positive and negative affect variables. The results also revealed that negative affect played partially mediating role between trust in MONE and continuance commitment. These findings provided partial support for *H5d* and for *H5e*.

Overall, change-related positive and negative affects and attitudes were found to played vital role in the relationship between change antecedents and implementation behavior in Turkish school context. Specifically, the overall model indicated different pathways to predict teachers' change implementation behaviors. Four paths were observed between teachers' history beliefs and change implementation behaviors; (1) an increase in participants' positive beliefs about the change history of school organizations was concluded to trigger their affective change commitment and subsequently change implementation behavior; (2) an increase in participants' positive beliefs about the change history of school organizations was concluded to boost their positive emotions about the change and this increase was associated with higher affective commitment and subsequent implementation behavior; (3) an increase in participants' positive beliefs about the change history of school organizations was concluded to boost their positive emotions about the change and this increase was associated with higher job satisfaction and subsequent implementation behavior, (4) an increase in participants' positive beliefs about the change history of school organizations was concluded to trigger their job satisfaction and subsequently change implementation behavior. These results implied that effectively managed past changes positively influence teachers' positive emotions and change and job

related attitudes and this optimistic view of change increase teachers' effort to work for the sake of the change in Turkey.

On another front, five paths were observed between POS and teachers' change implementation behavior; (1) increased POS was related with lower negative emotions and lower continuance commitment, which was associated with lower implementation behavior, (2) an increase in POS was related with higher positive emotions, which, in turn, was associated with higher affective commitment and subsequent implementation behaviors, (3) an increment in POS was related with higher positive emotions, which, in turn, was associated with higher job satisfaction and subsequent implementation behaviors, (4) an increase in POS was related with a decrement in negative emotions which, in turn, was associated with higher affective commitment and subsequent implementation behaviors, (5) increase in POS was related with a decrease in negative emotions which, in turn, was associated with higher job satisfaction and subsequent implementation behaviors. The results implied that when teachers felt to be cared and valued in their schools, they are likely to evaluate changes in more positive way and respond with more positive emotions and less negative ones. This, in turn, leverages affective commitment and job satisfaction and undermines continuance commitment.

Subsequently, one path were observed between trust in principal and implementation behavior and it showed that higher teacher trust in principal was related with lower job satisfaction and this, in turn, is likely to lead to lower implementation behavior. This finding was unexpected, as discussed above, and associated with a statistical drawback.

Finally, seven paths were observed between trust in MONE and change implementation behaviors of teachers; (1) higher trust in MONE was related with higher affective commitment to change and this, in turn, is likely to increase implementation behaviors of teachers, (2) higher trust in MONE was related with lower continuance commitment and this, in turn, is expected to lower

implementation behavior, (3) higher trust in MONE was related with higher positive change-related affect experienced and subsequently higher affective commitment to change and this, in turn, is expected to increase implementation behavior, (4) higher trust in MONE was related with more positive change-related affect experienced and subsequently higher job satisfaction and this, in turn, is expected to increase implementation behavior, (5) higher trust in MONE was related with lower negative change-related affect and higher affective commitment to change, which, in turn, is likely to lead to higher implementation behavior, (6) higher trust in MONE was related with lower negative change-related affect and higher job satisfaction, which, in turn, is likely to lead to higher implementation behavior, (7) higher trust in MONE was related with lower negative change-related affect and lower continuance commitment to change, which, in turn, is likely to lead to reduced implementation behavior. These findings implied that when teachers have higher faith in the deeds and actions of the top management, they are likely to experience more positive and less negative change-related emotions and higher desire to support the change due to its inherent benefits not because of the perceived cost and higher satisfaction with their jobs. This, in turn, is likely to have supportive role on teachers' efforts to adopt the change in their daily routines.

Taken together, these findings substantiated that trust in MONE has the most superior role when compared with the other internal context variables in predicting positive and negative change-related affect and attitudinal variables in Turkish school context and this finding was in line with the study of Oreg (2006). Second, the results supported the arguments that the two change commitment forms have different bases and different outcomes in Turkish school context as well (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001 & Perish et al., 2008). Third, affective commitment to change was the variable most related with teachers' change implementation behavior when compared with the continuance commitment and job satisfaction and this finding supported the previous literature that showed its superior influence on behavioral support for the change (Herscovitch & Meyer,

2002). Therefore, when compared with the influence of the threatening factors or satisfaction with the job, teachers should rather internalize the benefits of change for themselves and the schools to exhibit more change supportive behaviors. Forth, although negative affect was generally the major focus of change studies (Cameron & McNaughtan, 2014; Kiefer, 2002, 2005; Peeters, 2002), this study provided empirical evidence on the unique role positive affect played in Turkish school context and this is a finding in line with argument of Cameron and McNaughtan (2014). Thus, the results implied that decrement in negative emotions does not mean increment in positive ones, but each has unique contributions in predicting attitudinal constructs. Finally, AET, at least partially, was substantiated in Turkish school context and empirical evidence was provided that shows the merit of affect in construction of attitudes and subsequent judgment-driven behaviors.

5.2. Implications for Practice, Theory, and Research

Organizational change is the reality of all organizations under the pressure of internal and external imperatives demanding change. However, change failures have been very common for both profit and non-profit organizations despite excessive investment in time, money, and effort. School organizations also suffer from the low change success and this is valid for Turkish school system as well. In addition to the wasted material resources and time and efforts of the change implementers, change failures in school organizations cause irreversible costs for the generations on the target. Unless managed appropriately, prospective change interventions in school organizations will likely to end up with failure again. Therefore, making sense of teachers' change-related reactions and developing appropriate strategies was one of the most relevant ways of accomplishing future changes. This study expanded on teachers' change related attitudes and emotions in Turkish school change context and provided a detailed picture on the sources and outcomes of teacher reactions in the midst of a large-scale change. The 4+4+4 change is a large-scale and second-order change, which entailed radical alterations

in all levels of Turkish educational system and its major paradigm (Seo et al., 2004; Yuan & Woodman, 2007). Therefore, both system-level and school-level implications for practice were made in this section.

First, the results showed that attending an in-service training about the 4+4+4 change create variation in the reactions and change implementation behaviors of teachers. However, the results disappointingly revealed that great majority of the participant teachers did not attend any of the trainings provided. Therefore, the prevalence and content of in-service trainings should be improved by the top management to evoke positive teacher reactions and behaviors for the large-scale changes. However, the priori step should be to conduct a comprehensive needs assessment of the teachers on the target of the change and framing in-service trainings to help teachers to get accustomed to the new implementations. Although this study did not concentrated on the quality of the in-service trainings, it is a gap that should be address by further studies.

Second, the results showed that teachers' attitudes and emotions matter in times of change. Therefore, school principals and higher authorities should focus on teacher reactions and address their concerns and needs rather than just concentrating on concerns like technical issues and change outcomes. The results of the present study showed that supportive atmosphere created at schools and trust-based relationships established reduce negative change-related emotions and increase subsequent positive attitudes. Therefore, school management should value teachers' contributions and create school culture in which teachers can participate in decision-making and are appreciated and rewarded for their performance. Since school principal is generally regarded as the representative of the school organizations (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), it is the major responsibility of principals to create such a trust-based and supportive atmosphere at schools.

Third, teachers' prior change experiences were concluded as the factor influential in constructing their change-related emotions and attitudes. Considering that prior

changes have repercussions on the current change reactions, teachers' negative beliefs about the Turkish educational system's past changes should be reversed by providing strong evidences that showed the desired outcomes of past changes like statistical results and facts which might potentially help them to reconstruct their beliefs as suggested by Bordia et al. (2011). For teachers to construct positive attitudes about the future changes, similarly, it can be speculated that teachers' participation should be encouraged in the designation and implementation processes for the prospective changes. More importantly, rather than being politically driven, future changes should be designed by considering the well fare of teachers and improved student outcomes.

Forth, this study provided an invaluable finding that is expected to have greatest repercussions on practice. Specifically, it is the teacher trust in MONE, rather than their trust in principal, that has an essential role in boosting positive emotions and subsequently positive change-related attitudes while simultaneously reducing the negative ones. This finding put forward essential empirical evidence on the role MONE played in times of change in constructing individual and system level change-related outcomes in highly centralized TES. Therefore, the Ministry should be open, honest, and clear to the teachers about their change plans, consistent, just, and reliable in their deeds and actions, consider teachers' priorities, personal differences, concerns, and needs in their implementations, welcoming to their contributions throughout the change process, and provide opportunities for all school personnel's professional and personal development in the change process. For it, in-service trainings with practice-based and enriched content should be provided rather than using only one-shot presentation-based trainings and evaluations should be made to assess their effectiveness on a regular basis. This, in turn, can be expected to reduce teachers' fear of unknown and develop more self-esteem in dealing with the new changes. Moreover, in these conditions, they likely to believe in the positive outcomes of the change for themselves and school organizations and even if wrong decisions are made about

the change, teachers potentially have the belief that the Ministry admits its mistake and takes corrective actions immediately.

Moreover, the findings clearly showed that not only negative emotions but also positive ones played active role in the path going through teachers' change supportive behaviors. Therefore, rather than just reducing negative change-related emotions, positive ones should be increased simultaneously. In addition to the factors highlighted in the literature including providing necessary information about the change and other material resources, school and system-level justice, participatory decision-making, transformational leadership, improved working conditions (autonomy, workload etc.), this study showed higher trust in MONE and organizational support and more positive history beliefs as the other factors effective in empowering positive change-related emotions while reducing the negative ones. Based on these findings, commonly agreed work conditions of teachers in TES should be improved, particularly, in times of change. Here, it can be speculated that MONE has a greater role in this process since it is a unit that determines the glass ceiling schools can be autonomous. However, the role of school principal, within these boundaries, should be to utilize more transformational leadership, creating supportive and trust-based school atmosphere, and help teachers feel to be cared and valued to have a more optimistic view of change.

Finally, positive teacher attitudes were found to have greater role in predicting their change implementation behaviors than the negative ones. Based on this finding, communicating favorable outcomes of the change for all stakeholders and making teachers happy with their work were found to be the factors that have boosting effect on their change implementation behaviors rather than the threatening factors. Taken together, rather than reducing the negative view of change, nurturing positive view has profound effect on desired teacher reactions and subsequent behaviors.

In addition to practical implications, this study added useful information for the theory of change. Firstly, this study empirically substantiated more essential role trust in MONE played in constructing change related emotions, attitudes, and subsequent implementation behaviors than that for trust in principal. This finding suggested a huge gap in the literature concerning the use of a local perspective in change studies. Although trust in principal dimension of the widely used three-layered faculty trust model of Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) seem an appropriate one to assess trust in management for self-managing schools that have relatively higher autonomies, it has been broadly used by Turkish educational change scholars as well despite the highly centralized Turkish school system. The finding that signified the superior role trust in MONE played when compared with the role trust in principal played suggested that in change studies, contextual variables should be selected considering local conditions and structural aspects of TES rather than directly adopting from international studies. Turkish schools, in fact, are directly tied to MONE and they are all dependent on the decisions made by MONE both in their regular operations and in change management processes. Therefore, trust in decision-makers should be investigated as the most relevant forth trust reference in future change-studies for the centralized school systems. Beside its contribution in trust literature, this study utilized a holistic view for the change studies and tested separately studied change-related variables in the same model and provided a holistic picture for change antecedents, emotions, attitudes, and behavioral outcome in Turkish school change context. Finally, by exploring positive and negative change-related emotions, this study also addressed the need of studies concerning the emotional side of change in Turkey.

In terms of research, two new scales were developed and two scales were adapted to Turkish within the scope of the present study. The initial validity and reliability evidences were presented for these scales with the data gathered from the schools randomly selected. Although further studies are needed to provide additional validity evidences in Turkish school context, they were offered for other researchers who are interested in the same field.

5.3. Recommendations for Further Studies

Considering the theoretical and methodological limitations of this study, some recommendations for further studies were made.

First, the data collected were retrospective in nature, which relies on participants' recall of the past events, particularly for the ones asking their emotions. Therefore, they may hide or not recall their real feelings towards the change. To compensate this limitation, experiential sampling methodology can be an alternative way to measure teachers' real-time affect for a certain period of time and it is likely to yield more reliable data about teacher emotions. Similarly, based on the caveat of Kennedy and Kennedy (1996) regarding desirable teacher responses on attitude scales and the potential gap between the reported and the real classroom activities, future studies can utilize ethnographic research designs to observe attitudes on a daily basis and implementation behaviors in the real school setting.

Second, the findings were based on cross-sectional data. Therefore, the results did not indicate how the variables of trust, emotion, attitude, and implementation behavior changed over time. To address this limitation, future studies should utilize longitudinal research designs and these variables should be measured before the initiation, during the implementation, and after the institutionalization of the change so that how teachers' reactions and attitudes change over time can be manifested and a broader and more holistic picture of teacher reactions' can be provided.

Third, the scale used to measure teachers' change implementation behaviors consists of general items that measure the extent to which teachers adapt to new routines accompanied with the change. Further studies can utilize more specific measures that focus on teacher engagement with some certain tasks come along with the new change. Moreover, social desirability might come into play in

evaluating implementation; thus, a second observer can rate teachers' change implementation through observations in real school setting.

Subsequently, in this study, multilevel modeling was not used due to the excessive teacher and principal rotation among schools after a while following the initiation of the change and resulting difficulty of acquiring nested data. Since trust and organizational support measures queried participants' evaluations of their school atmosphere when the 4+4+4 change begun, it was hard for them to assess their new school atmosphere in a short time. Therefore, further studies should utilize a multilevel modeling while exploring variables on different levels, which will probably provide more accurate information about the school level variations.

Fifth, this study limited with public schools in Ankara although various different school districts from different parts of the city were included in the sample to increase its representativeness. Therefore, future studies can also test the same or similar change-related reactions model with a representative data generalizable to whole country. Besides, the same model should be tested in private schools since majority of the private schools have better physical, financial, and human resources, which may potentially buffer the negative effects of a large scale change on teachers. Moreover, school principals may potentially be more active than their colleagues in public schools since school principals in private schools might have relatively more autonomy and decision-making power. These assumptions should be tested in future studies as well.

Sixth, further studies should reevaluate the factor structure of commitment to change scale for collectivistic cultures like Turkey due to the consistent findings that normative commitment to change highly correlated with the other two dimensions and it is hard to distinguish in such cultures.

Also, considerable number of missing cases in trust scales signified a need for shorter versions of trust measures. Moreover, to better comprehend the effect of

missingness, further studies can run preliminary analyses to test whether the missingness (the cases with at least one missing score and the cases with complete data set) in the scale with high number of missing cases creates variation in the scores given to the scales presented prior to the problematic one. Therefore, alternative arrangements concerning the order of the scales can be decided in the next implementations.

Moreover, the present study explored change phenomenon from teachers' standpoint and provided useful information for policy-makers to empower more positive teacher reactions. Further studies should take different positions and change phenomenon should be studied from the perspectives of students, which is the group that the initiated changes are tested on and parents who were affected by the changes indirectly through their children.

Furthermore, in this study, as an outcome variable change implementation behavior was utilized in Turkish school context but further studies should concentrate on some other personal outcomes of the change like health complaints, perceived quality of family relations, or perceived teacher identity. Moreover, the ultimate goal of majority of educational changes is improved student outcomes; therefore, future studies should also include student outcomes in certain time intervals to better assess the degree of success of the initiated changes.

Finally, in the literature dispositional factors were found to be effective in individuals' affective reactions, thus, subsequent attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. Therefore, further studies should incorporate dispositional factors as either control or independent variables while studying change-related emotions within Turkish school change context like dispositional affectivity, locus of control, and cognitive styles.

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APPENDICES

A. Approval Letter from METU Human Subjects Ethics Committee

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
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12.03.2014

Gönderilen : Doç. Dr. Yaşar Kondakçı
Eğitim Bilimleri

Gönderen : Prof. Dr. Canan Özgen
IAK Başkanı

İlgi : Etik Onayı

Danışmanlığını yapmış olduğunuz Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü öğrencisi Merve Zayim'in "Devlet Okullarında Görev Yapan Öğretmenlerin ve Müdür Yardımcılarının Değişime Yönelik Tutum ve Duyguları Arasındaki İlişkinin Yordayıcıları ve Sonuçları" isimli araştırması "İnsan Araştırmaları Komitesi" tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Etik Komite Onayı

Uygundur

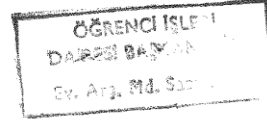
12/03/2014

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

B. Permission from Ankara Provincial Directorate of National Education



T.C.
ANKARA VALİLİĞİ
Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü



Sayı : 14588481/605.99/1443732
Konu: Araştırma izni

08/04/2014

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİNE
(Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı)

İlgi: a) MEB Yenilik ve Eğitim Teknolojileri Genel Müdürlüğünün 2012/13 nolu Genelgesi.
b) 28/03/2014 tarihli ve 3502 sayılı yazımız.

Üniversiteniz Eğitim Fakültesi Doktora Öğrencisi Merve ZAYİM'in "Devlet okullarında görev yapan öğretmenlerin ve müdür yardımcılarının değişime yönelik tutum ve duyguları arasındaki ilişkinin yordayıcıları ve sonuçları" konulu tezi kapsamında çalışma yapma talebi Müdürlüğümüzce uygun görülmüş ve araştırmanın yapılacağı İlçe Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğüne bilgi verilmiştir.

Uygulama örneklerinin (14 sayfa) araştırmacı tarafından uygulama yapılacak sayıda çoğaltılması ve çalışmanın bitiminde iki örneğinin (cd ortamında) Müdürlüğümüz Strateji Geliştirme Bölümüne gönderilmesini arz ederim.

Hakan GÖNEN
Müdür a.
Şube Müdürü

Güvenli Elektronik İmza
Aslı ile Aynıdır.

10.04/2014

Yaşar SUBAŞI
Şef

10.04.2014 - 6220

Bu belge, 5070 sayılı Elektronik İmza Kanununun 5 inci maddesi gereğince güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır. Evrak teyidi için <http://evraksorgu.meb.gov.tr> adresinden 9850-91ab-3f4c-bac5-ed67 kodu ile yapılabilir.

Konya yolu Başkent Öğretmen Evi arkası Beşevler ANKARA
e-posta: istatistik06@meb.gov.tr

Ayrıntılı bilgi için: Emine KONUK
Tel: (0 312) 221 02 17/135

C. Sample Items from Trust Scales

1. Yöneticilerimi denetleme imkanım olmasa da attıkları adımların benim çıkarıma olacağına inanırım.
2. Yöneticilerim beni etkileyen konularda karar verirken benim iyiliğimi düşünürler.
3. Yöneticilerim okuldaki görevlerime (sınıf içi ve dışı) ilgili gelecek planlarını dürüstçe paylaşırlar.
4. Yöneticilerim hata yaptıklarında geri adım atarlar.
5. Yöneticilerimin okuldaki görevlerimle (sınıf içi ve dışı) ilgili aldığı kararların uzun vadede benim yararına olacağına inanırım.

D. Sample Items from PCMHB Scale

1. Gemiř deęiřim giriřimleri belirlenen hedeflerine ulařmıřtır.
2. Gemiř deęiřim giriřimlerinin verilen hizmetin kalitesine olumlu etkisi olmuřtur.
3. Gemiř deęiřim giriřimleri sırasında alıřanların grřleri gz nne alınmıřtır.
4. Gemiř deęiřim giriřimlerinin alıřanların esenlięi zerindeki etkisi dikkat edilen hususlardan birisi olmuřtur.

E. Sample Items from PANAS

1. Sıkıntılı
2. Heyecanlı
3. Hevesli
4. İlhamlı
5. Tedirgin
6. Korkmuş
7. Düşmanca
8. Kararlı

F. Sample Items from Perceived Organizational Support Scale

1. Görev yaptığım okulda gerçekten mutlu olmam istenir.
2. Görev yaptığım okulda yapmış olduğum şikayetler önemsenmez.
3. Görev yaptığım okulda düşüncelerim dikkate alınır.
4. Görev yaptığım okul fazladan gösterdiğim çabalarımı takdir etmekte başarısızdır.
5. Görev yaptığım okulda bir sorunum olduğunda bana yardım edilir.

G. Sample Items from Commitment to Change Scale

1. Bu deęiřime karřı ıkmamın ok ciddi sonuları olur.
2. Bu deęiřime karřı ıkarsam kendimi kt hissederim.
3. Bu deęiřim okulumuz iin iyi bir stratejidir.
4. Bu deęiřime karřı ıkarsam kendimi sulu hissederim.
5. Bu deęiřimin aleyhine konuřmak benim iin riskli olur.
6. Bence merkezi ynetim bu deęiřimi bařlatmakla iyi yaptı.

H. Sample Items from Job Satisfaction Scale

1. Yaptığımız iş size başarı ve övünme hissi veriyor mu?
2. İşinizdeki başarılarınızın amirlerinizce yeteri kadar takdirle karşılandığına inanıyor musunuz?
3. İşinizde görevleriniz belirli midir?
4. İşinizde bilgi ve becerilerinizi kullanabiliyor musunuz?

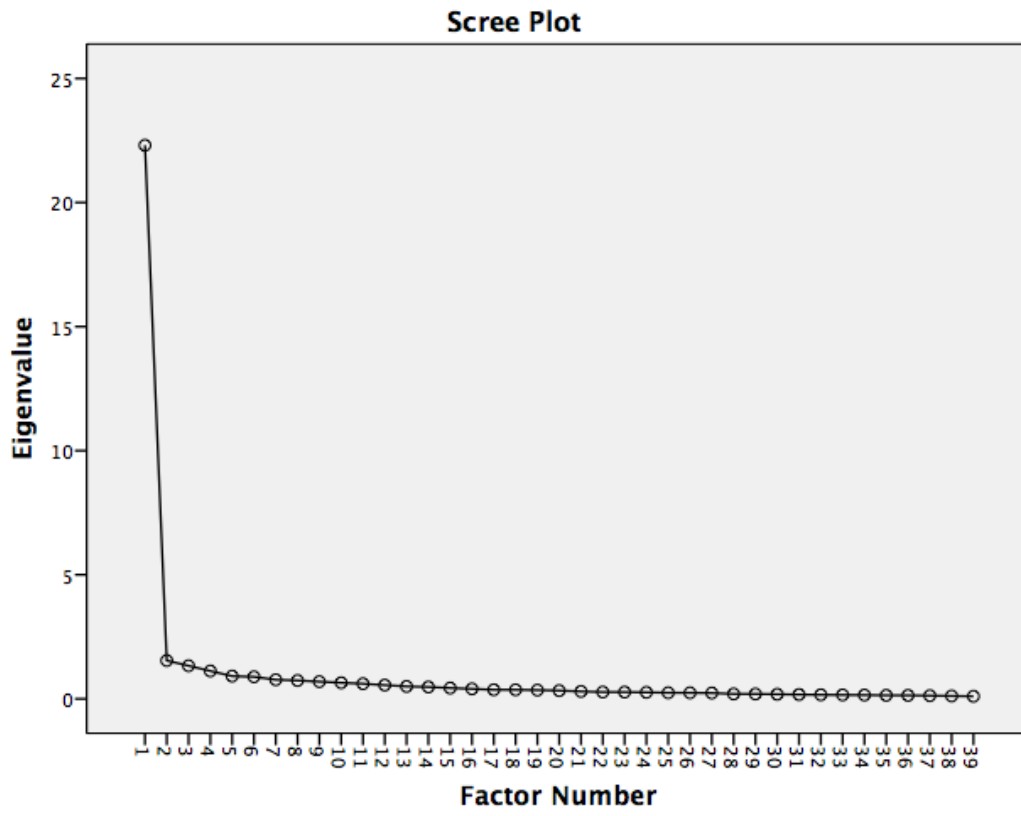
I. Sample Items from Innovation Implementation Behavior Scale

1. Bu deęişim sayesinde görevlerimi/işimi yapmanın yeni yollarını öğreniyorum.
2. İşimde izlediğim süreçleri/usulleri/prosedürleri deęişimin gerektirdiğı şekilde deęıştirdim.
3. Bu deęişimin gerekliliklerini görevime uygulamak için çok çaba sarf ediyorum.

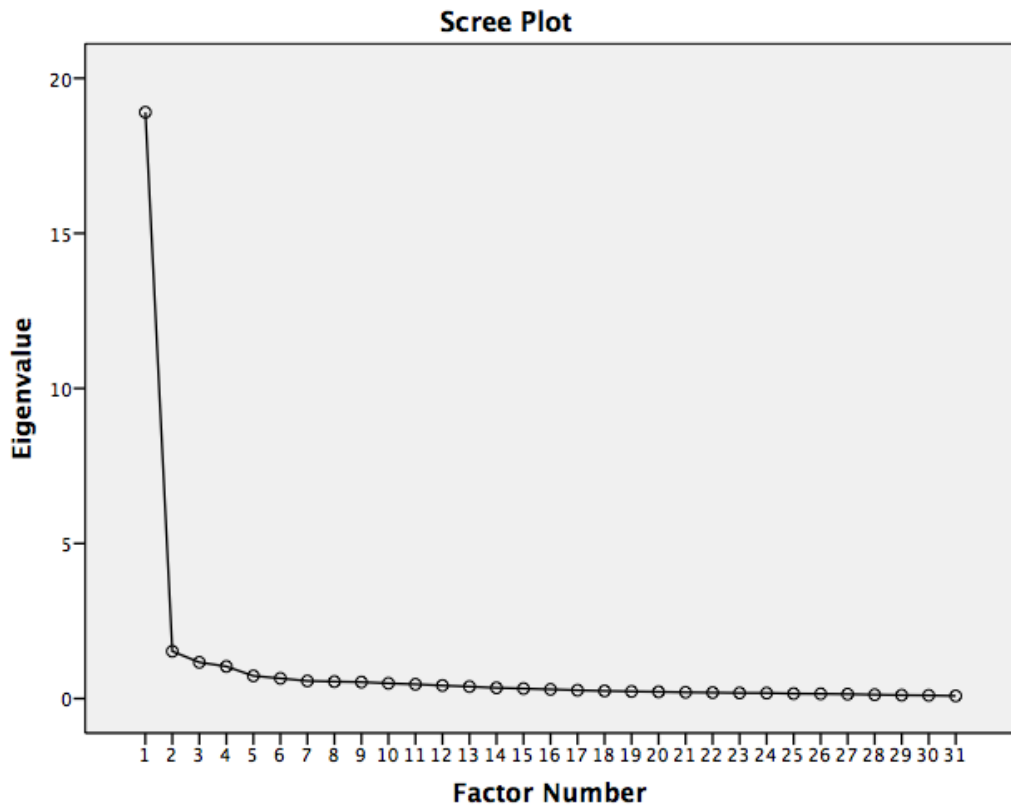
J. Demographic Information Form

1.	Cinsiyetiniz: <input type="checkbox"/> Kadın <input type="checkbox"/> Erkek
2.	Yaşınız: (Lütfen yazınız.).....
3.	Öğretmenlik branşınız: (Lütfen yazınız.).....
4.	Mesleki tecrübeniz: (Lütfen yazınız.) (yıl/ay)
5.	Mezun olduğunuz bölüm: (Lütfen yazınız.).....
6.	Görev yaptığınız okulun öğretim düzeyi: <input type="checkbox"/> İlkokul <input type="checkbox"/> Ortaokul <input type="checkbox"/> Lise
7.	Görev yaptığınız okulun öğretim şekli: <input type="checkbox"/> Tam gün <input type="checkbox"/> Yarım gün (İkili öğretim)
8.	Görev yaptığınız okuldaki çalışma süreniz: (Lütfen yazınız.) (yıl/ay)
9.	Sınıfınızdaki/sınıflarınızdaki ortalama öğrenci sayısı: (Lütfen yazınız.)
10.	Okulunuzdaki yaklaşık öğretmen sayısı: (Lütfen yazınız.)
11.	Okulunuzdaki yaklaşık öğrenci sayısı: (Lütfen yazınız.)
12.	Şu ana kadar 4+4+4 değişimi ile ilgili herhangi bir hizmet içi eğitime katıldınız mı? <input type="checkbox"/> Evet <input type="checkbox"/> Hayır
13.	Halihazırda yürüttüğünüz ve/veya daha önce yürüttüğünüz idari görevler: <input type="checkbox"/> Müdür <input type="checkbox"/> Müdür yardımcısı <input type="checkbox"/> Daha önce herhangi bir idari görevim olmadı.
14.	Çalışma statünüz: <input type="checkbox"/> Kadrolu <input type="checkbox"/> Aday Öğretmen (Stajyer) <input type="checkbox"/> Ücretli Öğretmen

K. Scree Plot for Trust in Principal Scale

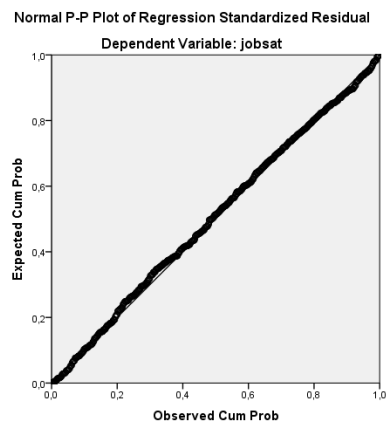
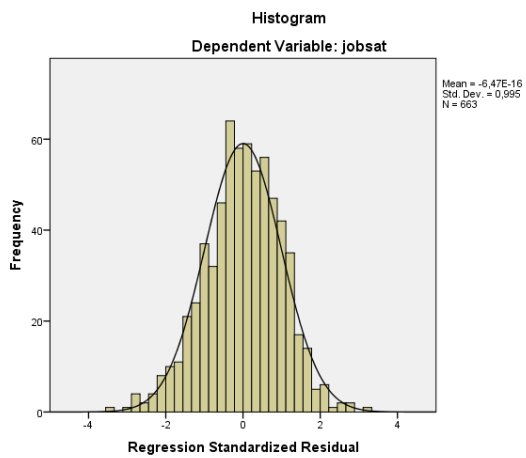
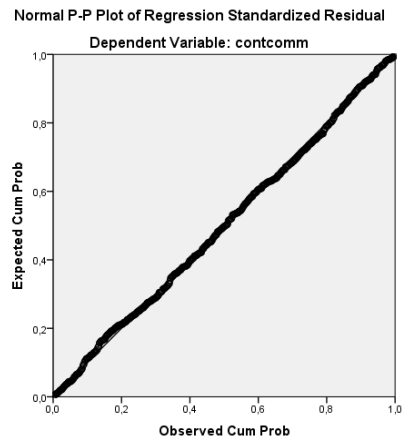
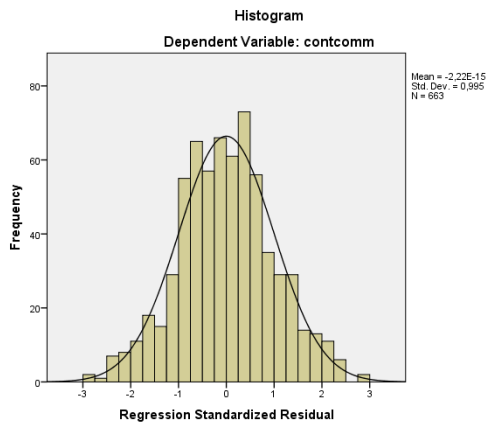
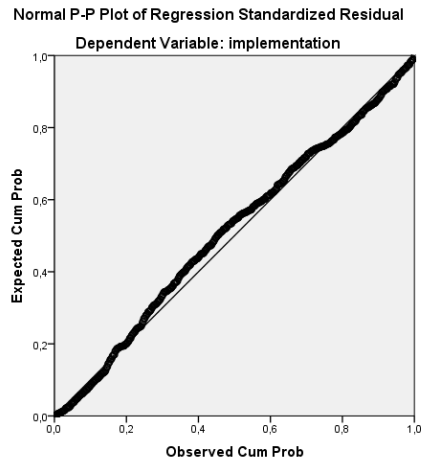
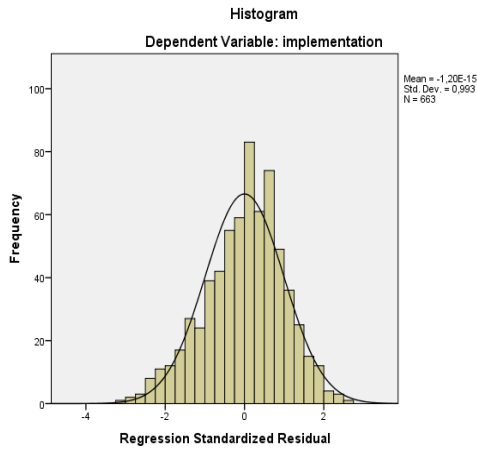


L. Scree Plot for Trust in MONE Scale

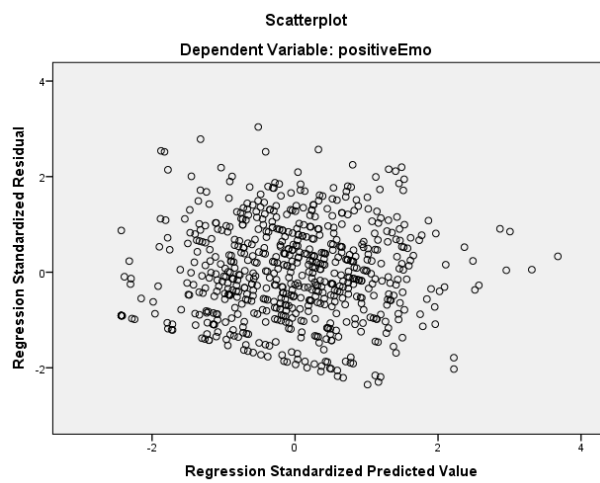
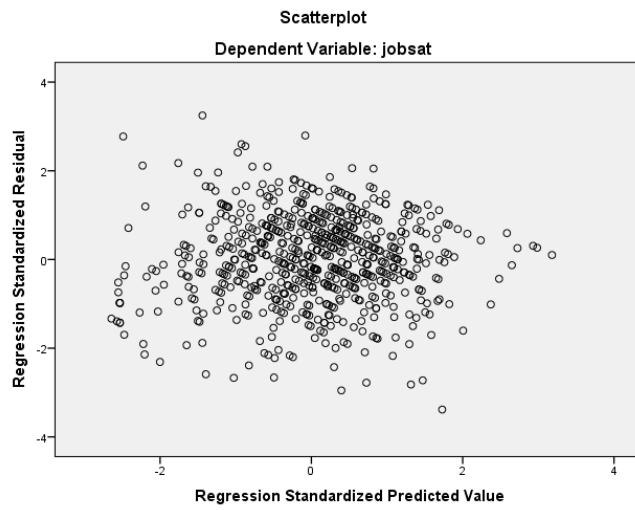
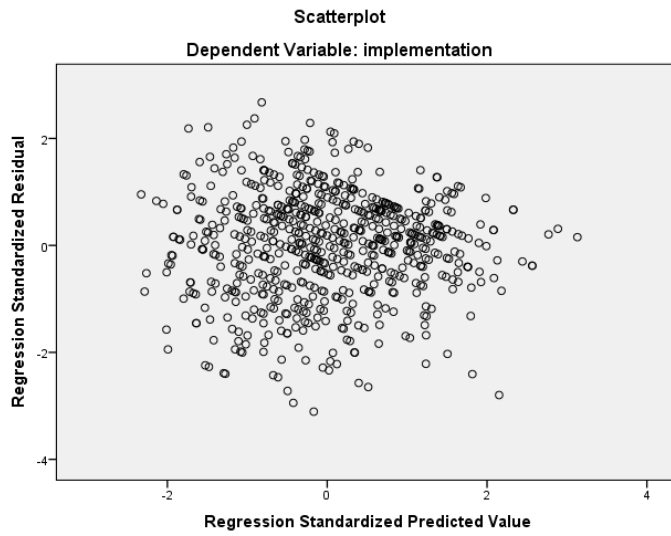


M. Residual Plots

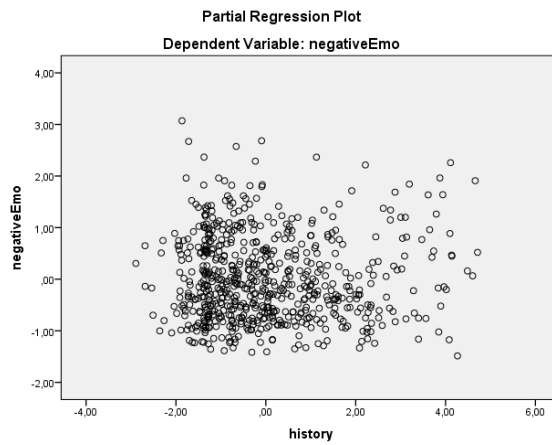
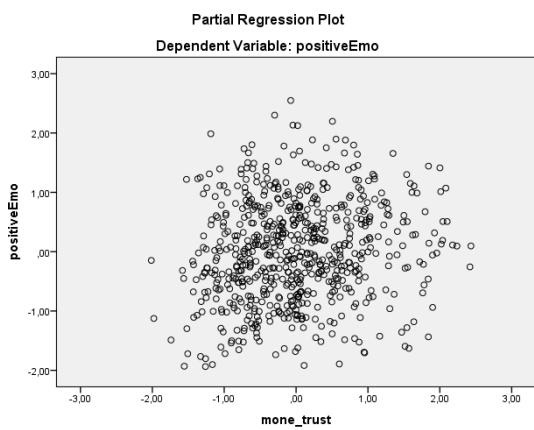
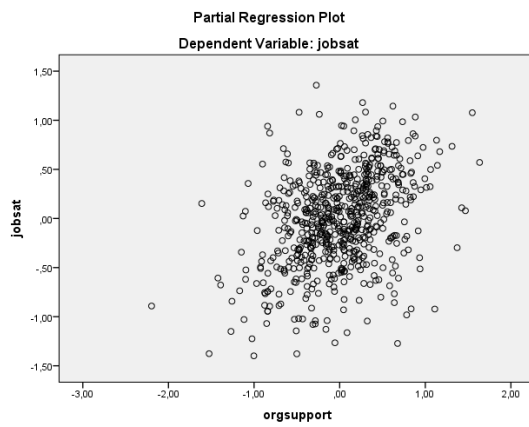
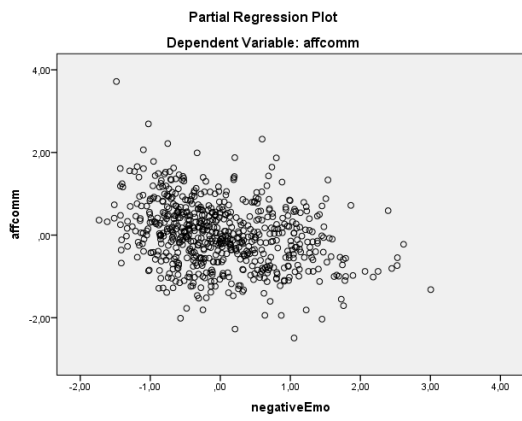
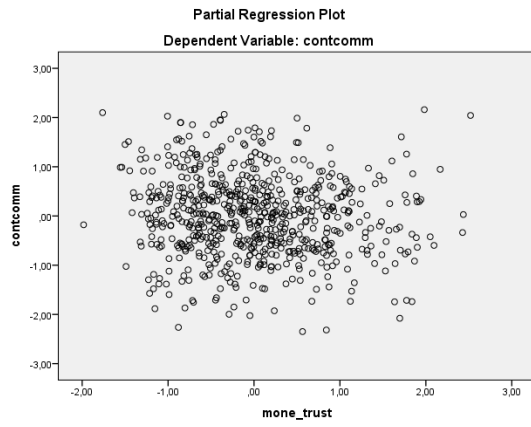
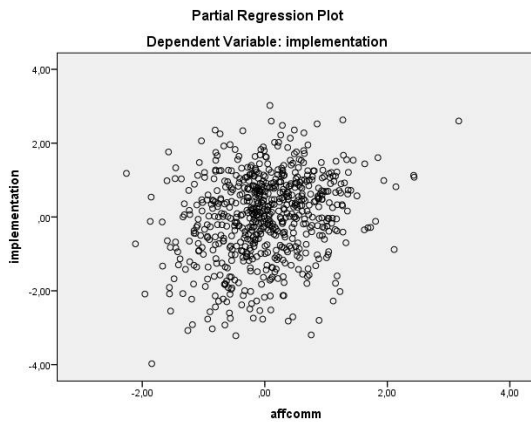
Histograms and Normal P-P Plots of Residuals



Scatterplots



Partial Regression Plots



N. Turkish Summary

1. GİRİŞ

Herkes için kaliteli eğitim imkanlarının yaratılması, dezavantajlı gruplar için fırsat eşitliğinin sağlanması ve kişileri sosyal, kültürel, ekonomik ve teknolojik gelişimlere adapte olabilecek bir biçimde yetiştirmek için okullar günden güne artan bir değişim baskısı altındadır. Sürekli değişen ve gelişen şartlar doğrultusunda Türk eğitim sisteminde de son 35 yıldır birçok büyük ve küçük ölçekli değişim başlatılmıştır. Fakat bu değişimlere sebep olan faktörlerin dış dünyadaki gelişimlere ayak uydurmak mı yoksa görevdeki hükümetlerin ideolojik amaçlarını gerçekleştirmek mi olduğu araştırmacılar arasında hala tartışma yaratan bir konudur (örn. Bahtiyar-Karadeniz, 2012; Güven, 2007, 2012; Zayim & Kondakci, 2015). Özellikle 2002 yılından beri başa geçen her milli eğitim bakanının bir önceki bakan tarafından başlatılan uygulamaları tamamen değiştirip yeni uygulamalar başlatmasından dolayı Türk eğitim sistemi yapboz tahtasına benzetilmiş (İnal, 2012) ve uzmanlar yerine politikacılar tarafından yapılan eğitim politikalarının eğitim sistemimizde yapılan değişimlerin başarısızlıkla sonuçlanmasının temel nedeni olduğu savunulmuştur (Güven, 2012).

Tüm bu tartışmalar gündemdeki yerini hala korurken, 2012-2013 öğretim yılında Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı (MEB) 4+4+4 değişimini başlatarak bu tartışmaları daha da alevlendirmiştir. Bu değişimle birlikte eğitim kademeleri her biri 4 yıl olacak şekilde yeniden yapılandırılmış ve 8 yıllık zorunlu eğitim süresi liseler de bu kapsama alınarak 12 yıla çıkarılmıştır. Okula başlama yaşı da kanundaki ilk düzenlemeyle birlikte 72 aydan 60 aya indirilmiştir. Bu değişim aynı zamanda ilkokul ve ortaokulların fiziksel ayrımını da öngörmüş ve eğitim programlarında da bazı değişimlere sebep olmuştur. Bu değişimle birlikte ortaokul ve lise programlarına iki seçmeli din dersi eklenmiş ve ortaokul programlarında öğrencilere birbirinden farklı seçmeli dersler sunularak kendi ilgi ve yetenekleri

doğrultusunda eğitim almasına yönelik bir adım atılmıştır. Ayrıca, imam hatip okullarının orta kademesi yeniden açılmıştır. Kanunda 2013 yılında yapılan son bir düzenlemeyle ise okula başlama yaşı bir yıllık uygulamanın ardından 66 aya yükseltilmiştir (Resmi Gazete, 2013). MEB, bu değişime neden olan faktörlerin zorunlu eğitim süresi bakımından dünyadaki uygulamaları yakalamak, okullaşma oranını arttırmak, ortaokuldan başlanarak seçmeli derslerle öğrencilerin ilgi ve yetenekleri doğrultusunda eğitim almasını sağlamak, ilk ve ortaokul öğrencilerinin sağlıklı gelişimini sağlamak ve dünyadaki uygulamalara paralel olarak öğrencilerin okula daha erken yaşta başlamasını sağlamak olduğunu açıklamıştır (MEB, 2012). Fakat 4+4+4 değişiminin uygulanmaya başlanmasından sonra yapılan çalışmalarda okul paydaşlarının değişimi başlatan sebeplerle ilgili aksi görüşler bildirdiği ortaya konmuştur. Örneğin Bahtiyar-Karadeniz (2012) yaptığı çalışmada 4+4+4 değişiminin önceki 8 yıllık kesintisiz zorunlu eğitime tepki olarak başlatılan ideolojik bir değişim olduğu sonucuna ulaşmış ve değişimin alan uzmanları ve uygulayıcılarının fikirlerini almadan yapılan ve yetersiz tasarlanmış bir değişim olduğunu savunmuştur. Benzer şekilde Güven (2012), sonucu başarısızlık olması muhtemel olan bu değişimde MEB'in etki gücünü kullanmadığını savunmuş ve bu değişimin modern eğitim anlayışını yaygınlaştırmaktan çok kişisel amaçlara hizmet eden bir değişim olduğunu savunmuştur.

Değişimin uygulanmaya başlanmasının ardından yapılan çalışmalardan bazılarıysa değişimin uygulayıcılar açısından hem olumlu hem de olumsuz yönleri olduğu sonucuna varmıştır. Örneğin Yıldırım ve Karahan (2012) bu değişimle birlikte programa eklenen seçmeli derslerin programın sosyal yönüne katkı yaptığını ve teknik ve mesleki eğitim açısından olumlu olduğunu ortaya koymuşlardır. Benzer şekilde, erken mesleki yönlendirme, zorunlu eğitim süresinin arttırılması, ilk ve orta kademelili okulların fiziksel ayrımı, seçmeli ders çeşitliliğinin arttırılması ve alan öğretmenlerinin sorumluluğuna geçmesi değişimin olumlu yönleri olarak ortaya çıkmıştır (Cerit ve diğerleri, 2014; Doğan, Uğurlu, & Demir, 2014; Memişoğlu & İsmetoğlu, 2013; Örs, Erdoğan, & Kirpici,

2013). Çalışmaların bulguları çoğunlukla uygulayıcıların değişimin teoride iyi olduğunu düşündüklerini fakat uygulamadaki aksaklıklar sebebiyle henüz olumlu olarak sayılan sonuçlara ulaşamadığını da göstermiştir. İlk ve orta kademeli okulların henüz tamamen ayrıştırılmaması ve okulların bir çoğunun ikili öğretim yapması, açılması planlanan seçmeli derslere yetecek sayıda branş öğretmenin olmaması, öğretmenlerin norm fazlası durumuna düşmeleri sebebiyle başka okullarda görevlendirilmesi ve alan değiştirmek zorunda bırakılması ve dolayısıyla öğretmenlerin yaşadığı kaygı ve endişe bu değişimin olumsuz sonuçları olarak değerlendirilmiştir.

Bu değişim, kanun tasarısının başındaki bakan tarafından bir paradigma değişimi olarak adlandırılmış (Gençdal, 2012, aktaran Akpınar ve diğerleri, 2012) ve Türk eğitim sisteminin tüm boyutlarını aynı anda etkilemiştir (İnal, 2012). Bu bakımdan 4+4+4 değişimi Fullan (2009) tarafından ortaya konan büyük ölçekli değişim tanımına uymaktadır. Fakat büyük ölçekli değişimlerin gerçekleştirilmesi aşamasında takip edilmesi gereken basamakların bu değişimin uygulanması aşamasında takip edilmemesinden dolayı 4+4+4 değişimi başarısızlığa mahkum bir değişim olarak değerlendirilmiş (Güven, 2012) ve geçmişte uygulanan değişimler gibi eğitim sisteminin sorunlarını çözmekten çok yeni bir sorun kaynağı olarak yorumlanmıştır (İnal, 2012).

Değişim girişimlerinin yüksek başarısızlık oranları dünyada eğitim ve kar amacı güden örgütlerde de sıklıkla karşılaşılan bir sorun olarak alan yazında rapor edilmiştir (Beer & Nohria, 2000a; Fullan, 2001; George, White, & Schlaffer, 2007). Başarısızlığın arkasında yatan nedenler incelediğinde ise çalışmaların çoğu değişimin insan boyutunun göz ardı edilip teknik ve finansal boyutuna ağırlık verilmesinin başarısızlık getirdiği sonucuna varmıştır (Beer & Nohria, 2000b; Clegg & Walsh, 2004; Mohrman, Tenkasi, & Mohrman, 2003). Benzer şekilde, Bouckenooghe (2009) çalışanların değişime yönelik olumsuz tutumlarının başarısızlığın arkasında yatan nedenlerin en başında geldiğini vurgulamıştır. Ayrıca eğitim örgütlerinde de değişimin duygusal ve ahlaki boyutunun ihmal

edilmesi ve deęişimin gemiřteki gibi lineer bir sre olduęu grř yapılan deęişimlerin başarısızlıkla sonuçlanmasının temel nedenlerinden biri olarak yorumlanmıştır (Hargreaves, 2005a). Akřit (2007) Trk eęitim sistemi iin de benzer yorumlarda bulunmuř ve deęişimin ierięi ve srecin iřleyişinin n planda tutulmasının alıřanların bu srete harcadıęı abanın gz ardı edilmesiyle sonuçlandıęına ynelik ıkarımlar yapmıştır. Deęişim alan yazınında yapılan birok alıřma da bu tartiřmaları destekleyen sonuçlara ulařmıř ve alıřanların deęişime ynelik olumlu tutumlar geliřtirmelerinin deęişimin başarısı iin kilit rol oynadıęını ortaya koymuřtur (Armenakis, Harris, & Mossholder, 1993; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Wanberg & Banas, 2000; Wanous, Reichers, & Austin, 2000).

rgtsel deęişim bilinen ve alıřmıř uygulamalardan bilinmez, denenmemiř ve belirsiz bir srece geiř olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Burke, 2008). Fakat yerleřmiř dzenden tamamen yeni bir dzene geiřte alıřanların yařadıęı kayıp ve bu kaybın sonucunda ortaya ıkan yas sreci, yneticilerin amalara ulařmak iin gsterdięi acele ile uyumlu olmadıęında rgtsel deęişim alıřanların aynı anda duygusal bir karmařa yařamasına sebep olan bir srece dnřebilir (Bolman & Deal, 2003; Eriksson, 2004; Fineman, 2003). Bu tartiřma Kiefer (2005) tarafından ampirik olarak desteklenmiř ve deęişimin alıřanlarda duygu deęişimlerine sebep olan bir faktr olduęu ortaya konmuřtur. zellikle olumsuz duygular uyandıran bu srecin, daha sık yařandıęında ise daha fazla olumsuz duyguya neden olduęu da ortaya konan bulgulardandır. Fakat alıřanlarda olumsuz duygulara neden olan faktr sadece deęişim olmayıp deęişimin sonuçlarının da olumsuz ve risk faktr olarak algılanmasının da bu duyguları tetikleyen en nemli etmenlerden olduęu tartiřılmıřtır.

alıřanların duygu ve tutumlarının deęişimin sonuçlarını etkileyen en nemli faktrlerden olduęu sonucunu ortaya koyan alıřmaların sayısının artmasına raęmen, alıřanların deęişime ynelik tepkilerinin neden ve sonuçların ortaya koyan mekanizmalara ynelik alıřmaların azlıęı dikkatlerden kamamıřtır. Van

Dam, Oreg ve Schyns (2008) alan yazındaki çalışmaların çoğunun değişime yönelik tepkilerin öncül değişkenlerle arasındaki ilişkilerini doğrudan incelediği yorumunda bulunmuştur. Benzer şekilde, değişimin duygusal boyutuna yönelik yapılan çalışmalara hem kar amacı güden örgütlerde (örn. Brief & Weiss, 2002; Fugate, Harrison, & Kinicki, 2011) hem de eğitim örgütlerinde (örn. Hargreaves, 2005b; Leithwood, 2007; Van Veen & Slegers, 2006) yeterince yer verilmediği de alan yazındaki eksikliklerden bir diğeri olarak dile getirilmiştir. Ayrıca örgütsel değişim çalışmalarının rasyonellik varsayımı ile yapılmasının duyguların bu süreçte ihmal edilen bir boyut olmasına neden olması Fugate ve diğeri (2011) tarafından alan yazının eleştirilen diğeri bir boyutu olmuştur. Benzer tartışmalar okullar için de yapılmış ve yapılan değişimlerin ancak öğretmenlerin uygulamalarını yeni uygulamalara paralel şekilde değiştirmeleri ile başarılacağı ve bu değişimin onların tutum ve duygu değişimini içeren bir fikri değişim süreci geçirmesi ile gerçekleşebileceği sonucuna varılmıştır (Leithwood, 2007).

Değişimin insan boyutuna yönelik ilginin son zamanlarda artması, Türk alan yazınında da bu konuda artan sayıda çalışma yapılması ile sonuçlanmıştır. Yapılan çalışmalarda birbirinden farklı tutumlara odaklanılmış, farklı teorik yaklaşımlar kullanılmış ve değişimin farklı boyutlarına odaklanılmıştır (örn. Aksu, 2003; Grossman, Onkol, & Sands, 2007; Helvacı, 2009; Kondakçı, Zayim, & Çalışkan, 2010). Fakat Türk eğitim sisteminde meydana gelen değişimlerin sayısı ve etkisi düşünüldüğünde, insan boyutuna odaklanan çalışmaların sayısının azlığının yanı sıra teorik ve metodolojik sınırlılıkları da gözden kaçmamıştır. Alan yazın değişime hazır olma (örn. Akbulut ve diğeri, 2007; Aksu, 2003; Aydoğan, 2007; Çalışkan, 2011; Helvacı & Kıcıroğlu, 2010; Kondakçı ve diğeri, 2010; Zayim, 2010) ve değişime yönelik direnç (örn. Bacanlı-Kurt, 2010; Genç, 2006; Göksoy, 2010; Gürses, 2010; Gürses & Helvacı, 2011; Özençel, 2007; Şentürk & Köklü, 2011) tutumlarının araştırmacılar tarafından en fazla ilgi çeken iki tutum olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca değişime açık olma tutumu da hem bireysel (örn. Aslan, Beycioğlu, & Konan, 2008; Ocaklı, 2006;

Şentürk & Köklü, 2011) hem de örgütsel bir değişken olarak (örn. Demirtaş, 2012; Yılmaz, 2010) çalışılan diğer bir tutum olarak ortaya çıkmıştır. Alan yazındaki çalışmaların birçoğunda ise herhangi bir değişim ortamından bağımsız olarak değişime yönelik tutumlar araştırılmıştır (örn. Altinkurt, 2010; Artun, 2008; Aslaner, 2010; Grossman ve diğerleri, 2007; Kurşunoğlu & Tanrıöğren, 2006; Ocaklı, 2006). Değişime yönelik tutumlarla birlikte incelenen değişkenlere bakıldığında ise bireysel özelliklerin (cinsiyet, deneyim vb.) araştırmacıların en fazla ilgisini çeken değişkenler olduğu sonucuna varılmakla birlikte (örn. Akpınar & Aydın, 2007; Aksu, 2003; Bacanlı-Kurt, 2011; Demirtaş, 2012; Genç, 2006; Gürses, 2010; Helvacı & Kıcıroğlu, 2011; Kurşunoğlu & Tanrıöğren, 2006; Şentürk & Köklü, 2011; Yılmaz, 2010) nadir sayıda çalışmanın iç ortam ve süreç değişkenlerini tutumlarla birlikte çalıştığı ortaya çıkmıştır (Artun, 2008; Çağlar, 2013; Grossman ve diğerleri, 2007; Zayim & Kondakci, 2015). Benzer şekilde, dünya alan yazınıyla karşılaştırıldığında değişime yönelik tutumların sonuçları Türk alan yazınında birkaç örnek dışında (örn. Kurt, 2011) neredeyse hiç araştırılmayan bir konu olarak ortaya çıkmıştır.

Bütün bu bulgular ışığında Türk alan yazınında değişime bağlılık ve kötümserliği de içeren olumlu ve olumsuz tutumlar konusunda yetersiz çalışma olduğu ve bu tutumların iç ortam ve süreç değişkenleriyle ilişkisini ortaya koyan çalışmalara da ihtiyaç olduğu sonucuna varılabilir. Ayrıca, değişimin sürekli odağında olan öğretmenlerin duygularını detaylı araştıran çalışmaların yokluğu da dikkat çekici bir bulgudur. Türk eğitim sisteminin OECD ülkeleri arasında en merkeziyetçi yapıya sahip ülkelerden biri olduğu (Şişman & Taşdemir, 2008) gerçeğinden yola çıkarak, yetersiz altyapı ve uygulayıcıların katılımı sağlanmadan çok hızlı ve tepeden inme bir şekilde uygulamaya geçirilen 4+4+4 değişiminin öğretmenlerin duygu ve tutumlarının odak nesnesi haline gelmesi çalışmaların sonuçları tarafından da desteklenmiştir (örn. Cerit ve diğerleri, 2014; Doğan ve diğerleri, 2014; Örs ve diğerleri, 2013). Alan yazındaki eksiklikler ve değişimin uygulanma biçimi göz önünde bulundurularak, bu ölçekte bir değişimin öğretmenlerin değişime bağlılık tutumları ve değişime yönelik duyguları üzerindeki etkisi merak

konusudur. Benzer şekilde, öğretmenler açısından bu sürecin daha olumlu tutum ve duygularla yaşanmasını sağlayacak iç ortam değişkenlerinin araştırılması ve hangi tutum ve duyguların öğretmenlerin daha fazla değişimi destekleme davranışı göstermelerinde etkili olduğu sorusu da cevaplanması gereken bir diğer önemli sorunsaldır.

1.1. Amaç ve Araştırma Sorusu

Dünya ve Türkiye alan yazınındaki bulgular ve eksiklikler doğrultusunda bu çalışmanın temel amacı 4+4+4 değişiminin tam ortasında öncül değişkenler olan değişim geçmişi hakkında inanç, algılanan örgütsel destek, MEB'e ve okul müdürüne duyulan güven, duygu değişkenleri olan değişime bağlı olumlu ve olumsuz duygular, tutum değişkenleri olan değişime bağlılık ve iş doyumu ve sonuç değişkeni olan değişim uygulama davranışı arasındaki ilişkinin doğasını ortaya koyan bir model test etmektir. Dolayısıyla çalışmada kullanılan ana araştırma sorusu şöyledir;

4+4+4 değişimi sürecinde öncül değişkenler, değişime bağlı duygular, değişime bağlılık ve iş doyumu tutumları öğretmenlerin değişim uygulama davranışları ile nasıl ilişkilidir?

1.2. Çalışmanın Önemi

Bu çalışma bu alanda yapılan diğer çalışmalardan bazı bakımlardan öne geçmiştir.

Teorik bakımdan, bu çalışma Rafferty, Jimmieson ve Armenakis (2013) tarafından vurgulanan değişime yönelik tutumların oluşumunda duyguların rolünü araştıran çalışmaların yetersizliğine Türk eğitim sistemi ortamında bir katkı sağlamıştır. Ayrıca, Oreg ve diğerleri (2011) tarafından önerilen değişime yönelik tepkiler modelini, Weiss ve Cropanzona (1996) tarafından önerilen Duyuşsal Olaylar Kuramını temel alarak ilerletmiş ve duyguları işe ve değişime yönelik tutumların yordayıcısı olarak incelemiştir. Dolayısıyla, bu çalışma değişime yönelik tutumları ortaya koyan mekanizmanın bir bölümünü ampirik olarak test

etmiş ve Türk eğitim sisteminde ve dünyada genelde göz ardı edilen değişimin duygu boyutuna teorik bir katkı sağlamıştır.

İkinci olarak, bu çalışmada öncül değişkenler, değişime bağlı duygular, işe ve değişime yönelik tutumlar aynı anda bir model içinde test edilmiştir. Böylelikle her bir değişkenin bireysel olarak modelde kendinden sonra gelen değişkenlerle ilişkisi karşılaştırılarak Türk eğitim sisteminde yordayıcı değişkenlerin oransal önemi konusunda ampirik bulgular elde edilmiştir. Ayrıca bu çalışmada öğretmenlerin müdürlerine ve MEB'e yönelik duyduğu güvenin, değişime bağlı olumlu ve olumsuz duyguların ve tutumların oluşmasında nispi rollerine yönelik bulgular da ortaya konmuştur.

Üçüncü olarak, alan yazında önemli bir eksik olarak Oreg ve diğerleri (2011) tarafından vurgulanan aynı değişimi aynı anda yaşayan birbirinden farklı örgütlerden veri toplanması ile değişim içeriği değişkeninin kirletici etkisinin ortadan kaldıracak çalışmalara yönelik ihtiyaç, 4+4+4 değişimini aynı anda yaşayan ilk, orta ve lise kademesindeki devlet okullarından veri toplanarak bu çalışma ile kısmen de olsa giderilmiştir.

Dördüncü olarak ise, bu çalışmada daha önce Türk eğitim sisteminde değişim ortamında daha önce hiç çalışılmayan bazı değişkenler ile ayrı ayrı çalışmalarda odaklanılan bazı değişkenler bir araya getirilip aynı anda aynı model içinde test edilmiştir. Böylelikle, ortam değişkenleri, değişime bağlı duygular, tutumlar, ve değişim uygulama davranışı üzerinde Türk okul ortamında detaylı ve bütüncül bir yaklaşım ortaya konmuş ve politika yapıcılar ve değişim ajanları tarafından kullanılabilir sonuçlara ulaşılmıştır.

Ayrıca, bu çalışma Michealis ve diğerlerinin (2009) bahsettiği ve üst yönetime güven ve değişim uygulama davranışı arasındaki ilişkiyi sağlayan mekanizmayı ortaya koyan çalışmalara olan ihtiyaca cevap vermekle birlikte bir adım daha öteye giderek güvenden başka örgütsel destek ve değişim geçmişine yönelik inanç öncül değişkenlerini de aynı mekanizmada incelemiştir. Daha da önemlisi, üst

yönetime güveni iki farklı referans grubuna yönelik değerlendirmiş ve değişim ortamında güven değişkenlerin diğer değişkenlerle ilişkisi ortaya konmuştur. Bu bakımdan bu çalışma, üst yönetime duyulan güveni MEB ve müdür olarak ayrı iki grup için de inceleyerek bu değişkenlerin değişime bağlı duygu ve tutumların yordanmasındaki rolünü nispi olarak değerlendirmiş ve bu alanda vurgulanan eksikliğe ampirik katkı sağlamıştır (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Yang & Mossholder, 2010). Ayrıca bu çalışma, MEB'e yönelik duyulan güveni araştıran ilk çalışma olması sebebiyle ve MEB'e duyulan güvenin merkezi yapıya sahip eğitim sistemlerinde müdüre duyulan güvenden daha gerekli bir değişken olduğuna yönelik savı ampirik olarak desteklemesi sebebiyle halihazırda kabul edilen güven kuramına merkezi okul sistemleri için yeni bir referans grup eklemiştir.

Çalışmanın araştırmaya yönelik katkısı değerlendirildiğinde ise, bu çalışma kapsamında Türk okul ortamına özel MEB'e ve okul müdürüne yönelik güven ölçeklerinin geliştirilmiş ve yabancı dilde geliştirilen iki ölçek olan Zayıf Değişim Yönetimi Geçmişine ilişkin İnanç ve Yenilik Uygulama Davranışı ölçekleri de Türk kültürüne adapte edilmiştir. Yine bu çalışma kapsamında, tüm bu ölçekler için temel geçerlilik ve güvenilirlik bulguları ortaya konmuştur. Böylelikle, bu alanda çalışan araştırmacılar için kullanıma hazır dört yeni ölçek ortaya çıkarılmıştır.

Çalışmanın pratiğe yönelik katkısına bakıldığında ise, çalışma değişime yönelik duygu ve tutumları yordayan iç ortam değişkenlerinin görece katkısını ortaya koymaktadır. Bu bakımdan çalışmanın sonuçları okul ve sistem düzeyinde okul müdürleri ve politika yapıcılara olumlu öğretmen reaksiyonlarının arttırılması ve olumsuz olanların azaltılması için neler yapılması gerektiği konusunda pratik bilgiler sağlamakla birlikte öğretmenlerin değişimi destekleyici davranışlar göstermesi için hangi alanlara daha fazla yatırım yapılması gerektiği konusunda da bulgular ortaya koymaktadır.

2. YÖNTEM

2.1. Örneklem ve Örneklem Seçimi

Çalışma kapsamında toplanan veri Ankara iline bağlı 13 okul bölgesindeki (Polatlı, Pursaklar, Gölbaşı, Akyurt, Çubuk, Elmadağ, Çankaya, Sincan, Keçiören, Etimesgut, Altındağ, Yenimahalle ve Mamak) okullardan tabakalı seçkisiz küme örnekleme ile seçilen toplam 85 okuldan toplanmıştır. Bu okullardan 40'ı ilkokul, 33'ü ortaokul ve 12'si lise düzeyindeki okullardır. Okul düzeyinin kademesi oluşturduğu örneklem seçiminde kademeler arasındaki oran örnekleme de korunarak ilkokul, ortaokul ve lise ziyaretleri yapılmış ve gönüllü öğretmenlerin katılımı beklenmiştir. Çalışma kapsamında 663 öğretmenden veri toplanmıştır. Katılımcı öğretmenlerden %42.6'sı ilkokul, %43.2'si ortaokul ve %14.2'si lise kademesinde görev yapmaktadır. Her kademedeki çalışmaya katılan öğretmenlerin çoğu kadın olup ortalama yaşları değişkenlik göstermiştir (ilkokul öğretmenleri için $M = 40.84$; ortaokul öğretmenleri için $M = 34.23$, lise öğretmenleri için $M = 40.48$). Katılımcılara 4+4+4 değişimiyle ilgili herhangi bir hizmet-içi eğitime katılıp katılmadıkları sorulduğunda ise %70.5 ilkokul öğretmeni, %82.7 ortaokul öğretmeni ve %92.6 lise öğretmeni soruyu olumsuz yanıtlamıştır. Veri toplanan okulların özelliklerine bakıldığında ise ilkokul ($N = 27$) ve ortaokul ($N = 21$) kademesinde çoğu okulun ikili öğretim sürdüren okullar olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır. Sınıflardaki öğrenci sayısı bakımından okul büyüklüğü değerlendirildiğinde ise katılımcı okulların birbirine benzer büyüklüklere sahip olduğu sonucu ortaya çıkmıştır ($M = 28.16$, $SD = 6.68$ ilkokul için; $M = 28.81$, $SD = 5.42$ ortaokul için; $M = 31.33$, $SD = 3.89$ lise için).

2.2. Veri Toplama Araçları

Çalışma kapsamında veri toplama aracı olarak demografik bilgi formuna ek olarak sekiz diğer ölçek kullanılmıştır. Bu ölçeklerin çalışma kapsamında ilk geçerlilik ve güvenilirliklerine yönelik bulguların sağlanması içinse ana çalışmadan önce pilot çalışma yapılmış ve Ankara iline bağlı 8 okul bölgesinden (Altındağ,

Çankaya, Gölbaşı, Keçiören, Mamak, Pursaklar, Sincan, ve Yenimahalle) seçkisiz küme örnekleme kullanılarak seçilen 52 okuldan çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katılan 46 tanesinden veri toplanmıştır. Çalışmanın pilot aşamasında toplam 468 devlet okulu öğretmeninden veri toplanmıştır. Katılımcıların %44.4'ü ilköğretim kademesinde görev yapan öğretmenlerden oluşurken yalnızca %13 katılımcı lise kademesindeki öğretmenlerden oluşmuştur. Katılımcıların çoğu kadınsa ($N = 361$), ortalama yaş 39.71 olarak bulunmuştur. Çalışma katılan öğretmenlerin yarısından fazlası ise 4+4+4 değişimi ve önceki değişimlerle ilgili hizmet içi eğitim almadıklarını raporlamışlardır (%56). Açıklayıcı ve doğrulayıcı faktör analizleri yapılması için gerekli sayıların kontrol edilmesi ve doğrulanmasından sonra bu veriyle çalışmada kullanılan ölçeklerin ilk geçerlilik ve güvenilirlik bulguları hesaplanmıştır.

MEB'e ve Müdüre Yönelik Güven Ölçekleri: Çalışma kapsamında geliştirilen bu iki ölçek için öncelikle alan yazında McEvily ve Tortoriello (2011) tarafından önerilen 2 boyutta maddeler yazılmış ve ilk madde havuzu oluşturulmuştur. İlişkiden olumlu beklentiler ve savunmasız kalmaya istekli olma boyutlarında toplamda 34 maddenin oluşturulmasının ardından ilk madde havuzu 4 alan uzmanına gönderilmiş ve dönütler alınmıştır. Bu aşamayı takiben 7 farklı hedef katılımcıyla görüşmeler yapılmış ve ölçeğin gerçek okul ortamında kullanılabilirliğine yönelik dönütler alınmıştır. Katılımcı görüşmelerinin ardından ölçekten 8 madde çıkarılmış ve 5 yeni madde eklenmiştir. Toplamda 31 madde üzerinde her iki referans grubu için ayrı ayrı açıklayıcı faktör analizleri yapılmış ve her iki ölçek için de farklı alternatif çözümler denenmesine rağmen tek boyutlu ve aynı 27 maddeden oluşan bir çözüm kabul edilmiştir. Her iki ölçekte de maddeler oldukça güçlü bir şekilde yüklenmiş ve %60'ın üzerinde varyans açıklamıştır. Cronbach alfa cinsinden hesaplanan iç tutarlılık değerleri ise her iki ölçek için .98 bulunmuştur.

Zayıf Değişim Geçmişine İlişkin İnanç Ölçeği: Bordia ve diğerleri (2011) tarafından geliştirilen tek boyutlu ölçek 8 maddeden oluşup katılım

derecesini 7'li Likert tipi bir derecelendirme ile ölçmektedir. Ölçeğin Türk kültürüne adaptasyonu bu çalışma kapsamında gerçekleştirilmiştir. Adaptasyon sürecinde ölçek maddelerinin 4 uzman tarafından Türkçeye çevrilmesinin ardından seçilen maddeler tekrar orijinal diline çevrilerek test edilmiş ve son düzeltmelerden sonra Türkçe maddeler son haline getirilmiştir. Ölçeği geliştiren araştırmacılar tarafından doğrulayıcı faktör analizi sonuçlarına dayanarak ortaya konan tek faktörlü yapı yapılan modifikasyonlardan sonra bu çalışmada da doğrulanmıştır ($\chi^2(14) = 32.52, p = .00, \chi^2/df = 2.32, RMSEA = .058$ (90% CI = .03 - .08, $p_{close} = .29$), CFI = .99, TLI = .97, & SRMR = .03). Fakat modifikasyon endekslerinin sadece olumsuz ifadeler arasına eklenmesi ve bu düzenlemelerden sonra ölçeğin yeterli bir uyum göstermesi bu maddelerin asıl çalışmada olumlu ifadelerle çevrilerek kullanılmasına sebep olmuştur. Ölçeğin iç tutarlılık değeri .83 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

Pozitif-Negatif Duygu Ölçeği: Watson, Clark ve Tellegen (1988) tarafından geliştirilen ölçek pozitif ve negatif duygu olmak üzere iki boyuttan oluşup her boyutta 10 madde yer almaktadır. Ölçekte 5'li değerlendirme skalası kullanılmıştır. Ölçeğin Türkçe uyarlaması Gençöz (2000) tarafından yapılmış ve önerilen 2 boyutlu yapı bu çalışma kapsamında da doğrulanmıştır ($\chi^2(8) = 8.95, p = .35, \chi^2/df = 1.12, RMSEA = .02$ (90% CI = .00 - .06, $p_{close} = .85$), CFI = .99, TLI = .99, & SRMR = .02). Ölçeğin iç tutarlılık değeri pozitif duygu için .95; negatif duygu için .89 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

Algılanan Örgütsel Destek Ölçeği: Eisenberg, Huntington, Hutchison, ve Sowa (1986) tarafından geliştirilene ölçeğin orijinal versiyonu tek boyutta 36 maddeden oluşup katılım derecesini 7'li Likert tipi bir derecelendirme ile ölçmektedir. Ölçeğin kısa halinin Türkçe uyarlaması ise Özdemir (2010) tarafından yapılmıştır ve yine aynı tek boyutta 15 maddeden oluşmuştur. Ölçeğin orijinalinden farklı olarak Türkçe uyarlamasında 5'li Likert tipi bir derecelendirme kullanılmıştır. Ölçeğin tek faktörlü yapısı bu çalışma kapsamında da doğrulanmıştır ($\chi^2(2) = 1.85, p = .40, \chi^2/df = .93, RMSEA = .00$ (90% CI = .10

- .06, $p_{close} = .67$), CFI = 1.00, TLI = 1.00, & SRMR = .01). Ölçeğin iç tutarlılık değeri. 93 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

Değişime Bağlılık Ölçeği: Orijinali Herscovitch ve Meyer (2002) tarafından geliştirilen ölçek değişime bağlılığı duygusal, normatif ve devam bağlılığı olmak üzere 3 boyutta ölçmektedir. Ölçekte her bir boyutta 6 madde yer almaktadır ve 7'li Likert tipi bir derecelendirme kullanılmaktadır. Ölçeğin Türkçe uyarlaması Toprak ve Aydın (2015) tarafından yapılmıştır. Ölçeğin orijinalinden farklı olarak Türkçe uyarlamasında normatif ve devam bağlılığı boyutlarından 1'er madde atılarak 16 maddeden oluşmuş ve Türkçe uyarlamasında 5'li Likert tipi bir derecelendirme kullanılmıştır. Ölçeğin 3 boyutlu faktör yapısı bu çalışma kapsamında ortalama bir uyum göstermiştir. Görece düşük uyumun arkasındaki neden ise ölçeğin normatif bağlılık ve duygusal bağlılık boyutları arasındaki çoklu değişimin (multicollinearity) .84 olarak hesaplanmasıdır. Bu sebeple normatif bağlılık boyutu çalışmadan çıkarılmış ve duygusal ve devam bağlılığından oluşan iki boyutlu faktör yapısı test edilmiş ve gereken modifikasyonların yapılmasının ardından model doğrulanmıştır ($\chi^2(42) = 133.48$, $p = .00$, $\chi^2/df = 3.18$, RMSEA = .07 (90% CI = .06 - .09, $p_{close} = .00$), SRMR = .08, CFI = .96, & TLI = .95). Ölçeğin iç tutarlılık değeri duygusal bağlılık için .92, devam bağlılığı için .67 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

İş doyumunu Ölçeği: Tezer (1991) tarafından geliştirilen ölçek tek boyutta 10 maddeden oluşup katılım derecesini 4'lü bir skala kullanarak değerlendirmiştir. 2001 yılında Tezer tarafından ölçek yeniden ele alınmış ve aynı faktör yapısı aynı maddelerin yüklenmesi ile doğrulanmıştır. Ölçeğin orijinalindeki tek boyutlu faktör yapısı bu çalışma kapsamında da doğrulanmıştır ($\chi^2(5) = 10.16$, $p = .07$, $\chi^2/df = 2.03$, RMSEA = .05 (90% CI = .00 - .09, $p_{close} = .45$), SRMR = .02, CFI = .99, & TLI = .97). Ölçeğin iç tutarlılık değeri. 84 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

Yenilik Uygulama Davranışı Ölçeği: Choi (2000) tarafından geliştirilen ölçek tek boyutta 5 maddeden oluşmuştur. Ölçekte 7'li Likert tipi bir

derecelendirme kullanılmıştır. Ölçeğin Türk kültürüne adaptasyonu bu çalışma kapsamında gerçekleştirilmiştir. Adaptasyon sürecinde ölçek maddelerinin 4 uzman tarafından Türkçeye çevrilmesinin ardından seçilen maddeler tekrar orijinal diline çevrilerek test edilmiş ve son düzeltmelerden sonra Türkçe maddeler son haline getirilmiştir. Ölçeği geliştiren araştırmacılar tarafından ortaya konan tek faktörlü yapı yapılan modifikasyonlardan sonra bu çalışmada da doğrulanmıştır ($\chi^2(2) = .73, p = .69, \chi^2/df = .37, RMSEA = .00$ (90% CI = .00 - .07, $p_{close} = .88$), CFI = 1.00, TLI = 1.00, & SRMR = .01). Ölçeğin iç tutarlılık değeri .85 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

Demografik Bilgi Formu: Katılımcıların geçmişleri hakkında bilgi sağlamak için kullanılan formda katılımcılara cinsiyet, yaş, deneyim, öğretmenlik branşları, değişimle ilgili hizmet içi alıp almadıkları ve daha önce herhangi bir idari görev alıp almadıkları gibi kişisel soruların yanı sıra okul düzeyi, sınıflarındaki ortalama öğrenci sayısı ve okuldaki öğretmen sayısı gibi çalıştıkları okulla ilgili sorular yöneltilmiştir.

2.3. Veri Toplama Süreci

Veri toplama aşamasına geçilmeden önce Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulundan ve verinin ilk, orta ve lise kademesindeki devlet okullarından toplanması için Ankara ili Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğünden gerekli izinler alınmıştır. Çalışmanın pilot aşamasında 1, asıl veri toplama aşamasında 2 yüksek lisans öğrencisinin de yardımıyla seçilmiş okullar tek tek ziyaret edilmiş ve katılmaya gönüllü olan okullardaki öğretmenlerden veri toplanmıştır. Pilot çalışmanın verisi 2013-2014 eğitim öğretim yılının bahar döneminde, asıl çalışmanın verisi ise 2014-2015 eğitim öğretim yılının güz döneminde toplanmıştır. Çalışmaya katılmaya gönüllü olan öğretmenlere öncelikle çalışmanın amacı anlatılmış, gönüllü katılım formu imzalatılmış ve sonrasında anketler bir zarf ile birlikte verilmiş ve kapalı zarflar içinde toplanmıştır. Öğretmenlerin anketi cevaplama ortalama 25 dakika sürmüştür.

2.4. Verilerin Analizi

Çalışma kapsamında toplanan veri ile ön analizler betimsel istatistik yoluyla ve SPSS 21 ve 22 programları kullanılarak hesaplanmıştır. Çalışma kapsamında test edilecek model ise Yapısal Eşitlik Modellemesi (YEM) kullanılarak AMOS 18 programı kullanılarak test edilmiştir.

3. BULGULAR

Çalışma kapsamında asıl analizlere geçmeden önce okul düzeyi, katılımcıların daha önce 4+4+4 değişimiyle ilgili herhangi bir hizmet içi eğitime katılıp katılmadığı ve okulun öğretim şekli değişkenlerinin çalışmanın bağımlı değişkenlerinde anlamlı bir fark yaratıp yaratmadığı t-test ve ANOVA analizleri yapılarak test edilmiştir. Hizmet içi eğitimi değişkenini grup değişkeni olarak kullanarak yapılan t-testi sonuçlarına göre hizmet içi eğitim alan öğretmenlerin değişime bağlı olumlu duyguları daha fazla ($t(654) = 5.39, p = .00$) ve olumsuz duyguları ($t(654) = -2.40, p = .02$) daha az hissetleri, değişime yönelik daha fazla duygusal bağlılık ($t(654) = 3.77, p = .00$) ve iş doyumunu tutumları ($t(654) = 3.28, p = .00$) gösterdikleri ve daha fazla değişim uygulama davranışı sergiledikleri ($t(654) = 4.35, p = .00$) sonucu bulunmuştur. Bu anlamlı bulguların aksine okulun öğretim şekli grup değişkeni olarak kullanıldığında t-testi sonuçları hiçbir bağımlı değişken için anlamlı bir fark göstermemiştir. Fakat okul düzeyi değişkenini grup değişkeni olarak kullanarak yapılan ANOVA analizleri sonuçları olumlu duygu ($F(2, 659) = 8.46, p = .00$), olumsuz duygu ($F(2, 659) = 4.57, p = .01$), duygusal bağlılık ($F(2, 659) = 4.25, p = .02$), iş doyumunu ($F(2, 659) = 8.82, p = .00$) ve uygulama davranışı ($F(2, 659) = 3.41, p = .03$) değişkenleri için anlamlı fark göstermiştir. Fakat anlamlı bulunan her ilişkinin etki değeri sıfıra yakındır. Ayrıca hizmet içi eğitim değişkeni de anlamlı bir fark yarattığı halde gruplar arasındaki dengesiz büyüklük farkından dolayı sonuçların yanıltıcı olma ihtimalinin yüksek olması sebebiyle (Montgomery, 2001) bu değişkeniler modelde kontrol değişkeni olarak kullanılmamıştır.

Önerilen yapısal modelin test edilmesinden önce, ölçeklerin model içerisinde çalışıp çalışmadığı doğrulayıcı faktör analizi aracılığıyla 10 faktörlü ölçme modeli ile test edilmiştir. Yapılan modifikasyonlardan sonra ölçme modeli kabul edilebilir bir uyum göstermiştir ($\chi^2(4125) = 10615.11$, $p < .05$, $\chi^2/df = \text{of } 2.57$; RMSEA = .05 (90% CI = .048-.05, $p_{close} = .96$), SRMR = .05, CFI = .90, TLI = .90). Ölçme modelinde elde edilen tatmin edici sonuçlardan sonra yapısal model test edilmiştir. Yapısal modelde öncül değişkenler olan MEB'e ve müdüre güven, algılanan örgütsel destek ve değişim geçmişi hakkında inanç, duygu değişkenleri olarak değişime bağlı olumlu ve olumsuz duygular, tutum değişkenleri olan değişime bağlılık (duygusal ve devam bağlılığı), iş doyumu ve sonuç değişkeni olarak da değişim uygulama davranışı yer almıştır. YEM analizi sonuçları önerilen yapısal modelin uyum iyiliği indekslerinin kabul edilebilir olduğunu göstermiştir ($\chi^2(4132) = 10654.95$, $p < .05$, $\chi^2/df = \text{of } 2.58$; RMSEA = .05 (90% CI = .048-.05, $p_{close} = .95$), SRMR = .05, CFI = .90, TLI = .90). Yapısal modelde doğrudan ilişkiler incelediğinde anlamlı olması beklenen bazı ilişkilerin anlamlı bulunmadığı sonucuna varılmıştır. Kline (2011) tarafından da önerildiği gibi önerilen modelde anlamlı bulunmayan ilişkiler sırayla elenerek yeni bir model test edilmiştir. Test edilen yeni yapısal modelin sonuçları uyum iyiliği indekslerinde düşük bir katkı sağlamıştır ($\chi^2(4142) = 10669.37$, $p < .05$, $\chi^2/df = \text{of } 2.58$; RMSEA = .049 (90% CI = .048-.05, $p_{close} = .96$), SRMR = .05, CFI = .90, TLI = .90). Fakat istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bulunmayan ilişkilerin modelden çıkarılmasının ardından Kline (2011) tarafından önerilen eşit uyum hipotezi doğrulanmış ($\Delta\chi^2(10) = 14.42$, $p = .15$) ve son modelin önerilen ilk modele göre daha iyi bir model olduğu istatistiksel olarak doğrulanmıştır. YEM analizi sonuçlarına göre önerilen ilişkilerin neredeyse hepsi beklenen yödedir. Modelde bağımsız değişken olarak kullanılan değişkenlerden MEB'e güven, değişim geçmişi hakkında inancı ve algılanan örgütsel destek değişkenleri en az bir duygu değişkeni ile beklenen yönde ilişkili bulunmuştur. Benzer şekilde, sonuçlar MEB'e güven ve değişim geçmişi hakkında inanç değişkenlerinin değişime bağlı tutumlardan en az birini yordadığını göstermiştir. Müdüre güven değişkeni ise

sadece iş doyumunu tutumu ile ilişkili bulunmuş fakat bulunan ilişkinin beklenenin tam aksi yönde olduğu görülmüştür. Diğer taraftan algılanan örgütsel destek ve değişim geçmişi hakkında inanç değişkenlerinin de iş doyumunu olumlu yönde yordayan diğer değişkenler olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır. Değişime bağlı olumlu ve olumsuz duyguların ise hem iş doyumunu hem de değişime yönelik duygusal bağlılığı beklenen yönde yordayan iki değişken olmasının yanında yalnızca değişime bağlı olumsuz duyguların devam bağlılığını yordadığı sonucuna varılmıştır. Son olarak, tüm tutum değişkenlerinin değişim uygulama davranışı ile pozitif yönde ilişkili olduğu görülmüştür.

4. TARTIŞMA

Çalışmanın amacı öncül değişkenler, değişime bağlı duygular, değişime ve işe yönelik tutumlar ve sonuç değişkeni olan değişim uygulama davranışı arasındaki ilişkinin doğasını 4+4+4 değişim ortamında devlet okulu öğretmenlerinin gözüyle test eden bir model ortaya koymaktır. Bu modelin teorik çerçevesini, Oreg ve diğerleri (2011) tarafından ortaya konan çalışanların değişime yönelik tepkileri ile ilgili model ve Weiss ve Cropanzano (1996) tarafından ortaya atılan Duyuşsal Olaylar Kuramı oluşturmuştur. Bu çerçevede değişime bağlı duygular, öncül değişkenler ve tutumlar arasında aracı değişken olarak test edilmiş ve aynı anda tutumları doğrudan etkilediği yönündeki hipotezler de kontrol edilmiştir. Ayrıca, değişim uygulama davranışı, rasyonel bir davranış olarak tanımlanıp (Hornung & Rousseau, 2007) tutumların sonucu olarak değerlendirilmiştir.

Çalışmanın sonuçları genel olarak Weiss ve Cropanzano (1996) tarafından önerilen Duyuşsal Olaylar Kuramında duyguların tutumlar üzerindeki yordayıcı rolünü ampirik olarak desteklemiş ve değişime bağlı olumlu ve olumsuz duyguların değişime bağlılık ve iş doyumunu tutumları ile beklenen yönde ilişki kurduklarını ortaya koymuştur. Benzer şekilde, modelde test edilen tutumlar olan değişime yönelik duygusal ve devam bağlılığı ve iş doyumunun da değişim uygulama davranışı ile anlamlı ilişki göstermesi hem Weiss ve Cropanzano (1996) tarafından önerilen teoriyi Türk okul ortamında desteklemiş hem de

duyguların tutumların aracı rolüyle rasyonel kararları etkilediği yönündeki bulgular yapılan diğer çalışmalarla da paralellik göstermiştir (örn. Fugate ve diğerleri, 2011; Tenhiälä & Lount Jr, 2013). Diğer taraftan, alan yazında olumsuz duygulara yönelik yoğun ilgiye (Kiefer, 2002, 2005; Peeters, 2002) rağmen bu çalışmada değişime bağlı olumlu duyguların olumsuz duygulardan farklı yordayıcıları ve sonuçları olması pozitif duyguların da bireysel olarak değişim ortamındaki önemini göstermiştir. Bu bulgu, pozitif ve negatif duyguların farklı temel ve sonuçları olduğunu söyleyen Kiefer ve Briener'ı (2006) desteklemiş hem de Cameron ve McNaughtan (2014) gibi pozitif duyguların önemini ampirik olarak ortaya koyan çalışmalara bir yenisini daha eklemiştir.

Yordayıcılar açısından bakıldığında ise, çalışmanın sonuçları MEB'e yönelik güvenin duygu ve tutum değişkenleriyle en fazla ilişkili bulunan iç ortam değişkeni olması Oreg (2006) tarafından yapılan çalışmayı desteklemiş ve güvenin, özellikle üst yönetime güvenin, değişim sürecinde çalışanların duygu, tutum ve davranışlarını şekillendiren en önemli faktörlerden biri olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Aynı şekilde, çalışmanın sonuçları farklı düzeydeki yöneticilere duyulan güvenin farklı sonuçları olduğu (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Yang & Mossholder, 2010) tartışmasını da destekleyen ampirik sonuçlar ortaya koymuştur. Aynı zamanda çalışmanın bulguları, hiyerarşide çalışanlara daha yakın olan yöneticiye duyulan güvenin kısa vadede işe yönelik sonuçlar doğurduğu ve üst yönetime duyulan güvenin daha uzun vadede ve yöneticilerin başlattığı girişimleri destekleme konusunda etkilerinin olduğu yönündeki tartışmaları da desteklemiştir. YEM analizi sonuçlarına göre müdüre güven değişkeni, sadece çalışanların işlerine yönelik tutumlarını gösteren iş doyumunu doğrudan etkileyen bir değişken olarak bulunurken; MEB'e duyulan güven, doğrudan ve duyguların aracı rolü ile değişime yönelik tutumları etkileyen bir değişken olarak bulunmuştur. Bu bulgu oldukça merkeziyetçi bir yapıya sahip Türk eğitim sisteminde öğretmenlerin değişime bağlı duygularının ve tutumların oluşmasında müdüre güvenden çok değişimlerin karar verici organı olan MEB'e duyulan güvenin etkili olduğu işaret etmektedir. Dolayısıyla, çalışmanın bulguları

Hoy ve Tschannen-Moran (1999) ve Tschannen-Moran ve Hoy (2000) tarafından ortaya konan ve daha çok özerk okulların yönetiminde önemli olan müdüre güveni üst yönetime güven olarak işleyen güven modelinin Türk eğitim sistemi gibi merkeziyetçi yapıya sahip eğitim sistemlerinde sorgulanmasına neden olmuştur. Çalışmanın bulguları merkeziyetçi yapıya sahip eğitim sistemlerinde öğretmenler gibi değişimin uygulayıcıları olan müdürlere yönelik güvenden ziyade karar vericilere güvenin daha geçerli bir güven referansı olduğu tartışmasını (Zayim, 2010) desteklemiş ve karar vericilere güveni, oldukça kabul gören güven modelinin dördüncü referans grubu olarak önermiştir.

4.1. Öneriler

Çalışmanın sonuçları, öğretmenlerin değişime yönelik hizmet içi eğitim almasının onların duygu, tutum ve sonuçta sergiledikleri değişimi destekleme davranışlarını olumlu yönde etkileyen bir değişken olduğunu göstermiştir. Ancak betimsel analiz sonuçları her kadememden çoğu katılımcının 4+4+4 değişimiyle ilgili hizmet içi eğitim almadığını göstermiştir. Bu bulgular Türk eğitim sisteminde değişim uygulamalarında önemli bir açığa işaret etmiştir. Dolayısıyla üst yönetim sonraki değişim uygulamalarında, özellikle büyük ölçekli değişimler için, içeriği zenginleştirilmiş ve uygulama odaklı hizmet içi eğitimler sağlamalı ve bu eğitimlerin yaygınlığını arttırmalıdır. Benzer şekilde, değişimin içeriği ve teknik detaylarının yanı sıra uygulayıcıların tepkilerine de odaklanmalı ve olumlu duygu ve tutumlar geliştirmek için okul içinde destekleyici bir atmosfer geliştirilmesinin yanı sıra çalışanların geçmiş değişimlere yönelik algıları olumluya çevrilmeye çalışılmalıdır. Destekleyici atmosferin geliştirilebilmesi için okul örgütlerinin temsilcisi olarak görülen okul müdürlerine (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) büyük görev düşmektedir. Bu noktada okul müdürleri öğretmenlerin okul içindeki katkılarını teşvik edip onların başarılıнын takdir edildiği ve ödüllendirildiği bir ortam yaratılmalıdır. Benzer şekilde, öğretmenlerin değişime bağlı duygu ve tutumlarında önemli rol oynayan geçmiş değişimlere yönelik olumsuz inançlarını olumlu hale getirmek için Bordia ve diğerleri (2011) tarafından da önerildiği gibi

geçmiş deęişimlerin başarısını gösteren somut veriler ve istatistiksel gerçekler sunulup onların olumsuz algılarını yeniden sorgulamaları sağlanmalıdır. Deęişim sürecinde en büyük rollerden biri Türk eğitim sisteminin karar verici organı olan MEB'e düşmektedir. MEB'in öğretmenlerin güvenini kazanmak için planları konusunda açık, dürüst ve adil olması ve hata yaptığında geri adım atıp sonucu düzeltecek icraatlara vakit kaybetmeden başvurması gerekmektedir. Diğer taraftan çalışmanın sonuçları hem olumlu hem de olumsuz öğretmen duygularının bu süreçte önemli olduğunu gösterdiğinden deęişim sürecinde sadece negatif duyguların azaltılmasına yönelik icraatlar değil aynı anda pozitif duyguları arttıran icraatların da yapılması gerekmektedir. Deęişim uygulama davranışını yordayan tutum deęişkenlerine bakıldığında ise öğretmenlerin destekleyici davranışları arttırmak için uygulanan deęişimin okullar ve öğretmenler için faydası üzerinde durmasının onların üzerinde yaptırım tehdidi yaratılmasından çok daha etkili bir strateji olduğu söylenebilir. Aynı şekilde, öğretmenlerin iş doyumunu destekleyecek yatırımların yapılması da deęişimi destekleyici davranışların kazanılması için bir diğer etkili stratejidir. Çalışmanın bulgularına göre iş doyumunu ise öğretmenlerin deęişimi okullarında daha olumlu ve destekleyici bir ortamda yaşaması ve okullarında daha fazla değer gördüğünü hissetmesi, müdüre güvenmesi ve geçmiş deęişim girişimlerinden daha olumlu sonuçlar görmüş olması ile arttırılabilir.

4.2. Gelecek Çalışmalara Yönelik Öneriler

Yapılan çalışmanın teorik ve yöntemsel sınırlılıkları göz önünde bulundurularak gelecekte yapılması planlanan çalışmalara yönelik bazı önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Çalışma kapsamında toplanan veri özellikle duygu ölçeęi için geçmiş deneyimleri hatırlamayı gerektirdiğinden sonraki çalışmalarda öğretmenlerin gerçek zamandaki duygularının ölçülmesini sağlayacak deneyim örnekleme (experiential sampling methodology) gibi alternatif yöntemler kullanılabilir. Benzer şekilde, Kennedy ve Kennedy (1996) tarafından eleştirilen tutum ölçeklerinin öğretmenlerin gerçek uygulamalarını yansıtmaması ihtimalinden dolayı gelecek

çalıřmalarda arařtırmacılar etnografik arařtırma desenini kullanarak öđretmenleri gerek ortamlarında gözlemleyebilirler. Ayrıca, tek bir ölçüme dayanan bir veri setiyle gerekleřtirilen bu alıřmadan farklı olarak gelecek alıřmalarda boylamsal arařtırma yöntemi kullanarak öđretmenlerin tutum, duygu ve uygulama davranıřlarının zamanla deđiřimi de gözlemlenebilir. Diđer taraftan, alıřma kapsamında ok düzeyli YEM analizi kullanılması gerektiđi halde 4+4+4 deđiřiminden sonra öđretmen ve müdür rotasyonlarının oldukça fazla yařanması sebebiyle öđretmenlerden rotasyon öncesi uzun süredir alıřtıkları okulların ortamlarını ve müdürlerini deđerlendirmeleri istenmiřtir ünkü veri toplama ařamasında birok öđretmen için yeni olan okul ortamlarının deđerlendirilmesinin güçlüđü iç-ie bir veri seti (nested data) oluřturulmasına engel olmuřtur. Dolayısıyla gelecek alıřmalar, bireysel deđerkenler ile okul düzeyinde deđerlendirmesi gereken deđerkenleri bir arada alıřtıklarında ok düzeyli analizler kullanmalıdırlar.

Bu alıřmanın örneklemini Ankara ilindeki devlet okulları ile sınırlandırılmıřtır. Gelecek alıřmalarda daha genellenebilir sonuçlara ulařılması için daha geniř aplı bir veri toplama sürecine girilebilir. Aynı řekilde, özel okullarda müdürlerin daha fazla otonomisi olduđu ve özel okulların fiziksel ve insan kaynaklarının devlet okullarına göre daha zengin olduđu düşünöldüğünde aynı modelin farklı sonuçlar ortaya koyacađı düşünölmektedir. Gelecek alıřmalar bu varsayımları özel okullarda test edebilirler.

Ayrıca, deđerime bađlılık ölçęğinin normatif boyutu tutarlı bir řekilde kolektif kültürlerde diđer iki boyutla ok güçlü iliřkiler kurmaktadır. Dolayısıyla gelecek alıřmalarda deđerime bađlılık için Türk kültüründe yeni bir faktör yapısı geliřtirilmelidir.

alıřma kapsamında sonuç deđerkeni olarak deđerim uygulama davranıřı kullanılmıřtır. Fakat gelecek alıřmalar öđretmenler aısından deđerimin daha kiřisel sonuçlarına odaklanabilir veya deđerimin asıl hedefinde olan öđrenci

gruplarının başarısı üzerindeki etkisini belli zaman aralıklarında deęerlendirerek deęişim başarısına yönelik daha gerçekçi sonuçlara ulaşabilirler.

Son olarak, alan yazında kişilerin duygusal yatkınlıkları onların deęişime baęlı duygularını etkileyen bir faktör olarak ortaya konmuştur. Bu noktadan hareketle, gelecek çalışmaların duygusal yatkınlık, kontrol odaęı ve bilişsel stiller gibi kişilerin yatkınlık özelliklerini gösteren deęişkenleri kontrol deęişkeni ya da baęımsız deęişken olarak çalışmalarının duygular konusunda daha detaylı bir bilgi sunması beklenmektedir.

O. Curriculum Vitae

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EDUCATION

- September 2010 - ongoing **Ph.D.**
Middle East Technical University (METU),
Faculty of Education
Department of Educational Sciences
Major: Educational Administration and
Planning
- September 2008 –2010 **M.Sc.**
Middle East Technical University (METU),
Faculty of Education
Department of Educational Sciences
Major: Educational Administration and
Planning
- September 2003 - June 2008 **B.Sc.**
Middle East Technical University (METU),
Faculty of Education
Department of Elementary Education
Major: Elementary Science Education

WORK EXPERIENCE

- December 2008 - ongoing Research Assistant
Middle East Technical University (METU),
Faculty of Education
Department of Educational Sciences

PUBLICATIONS

Articles in SSCI Journals

Zayim, M., & Kondakci, Y. (2015). An exploration of the relationship between readiness for change and organizational trust in Turkish public schools. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 43(4), 610-625. doi:10.1177/1741143214523009

Kondakci, Y., Zayim, M., Beycioglu, K., Sincar, M., & Ugurlu, C. T. (submitted). The mediating roles of internal context variables in the relationship between distributed leadership perceptions and continuous change behaviors of public school teachers. *Educational Administration Quarterly*.

Articles in National Journals

Kondakçı, Y. Zayim, M., & Çalışkan, Ö. (2013). Development and validation of Readiness for Change Scale. *Elementary Education Online*, 12(1), 23-35.

Kondakçı, Y. Zayim, M., & Çalışkan, Ö. (2010). Investigating the relationship between readiness to change, teaching level, experience, and school size among school administrators. *Inonu University Faculty of Education Journal*, 11(2), 155-175 (in Turkish).

Book Chapters

Kondakci, Y., Zayim, M., & Beycioglu, K. (2015). Continuous Change in Educational Organizations. In P. Pashiardis & K. Beycioglu (Eds.), *Multidimensional Perspectives on Principal Leadership Effectiveness* (pp. 305-323). IGI Global: Hershey, USA.

Kondakci, Y., & Zayim, M. (2013). Yönetim süreçleri [Administrative processes]. In S. Özdemir, F. Sezgin, & S. Koşar (Eds.), *Eğitim Yönetiminde Kuram ve Uygulama* (pp. 9-57). Pegem Akademi: Ankara (in Turkish).

Presentations at International Conferences

Zayim, M., & Kondakçı, Y. (2015, June). *Factors that predict public school teachers occupational stress after a large-scale school change*. Paper accepted for oral presentation at the 2nd International Eurasian Educational Research Congress 2015, Ankara, Turkey.

Gokalp, G., Caliskan, O., Zayim, M., Ertem, H. Y., Kaya, S., & Çınar, R. (2015, April). *Experience of being a Faculty Development Program research assistant at a large university in Turkey*. Paper presented at the AERA Annual Meeting 2015, Chicago, United States.

Kondakci, Y., Zayim, M., Beycioglu, K., Sincar, M., & Uğurlu, C. T. (2015, April). *Faculty trust in colleagues and continuous change behavior: the mediating role of job satisfaction*. Paper presented at the AERA Annual Meeting 2015, Chicago, United States.

Zayim, M., Kondakci, Y., Beycioglu, K., Sincar, M., & Uğurlu, C. T. (2014, September). *The mediating roles of internal context variables in the relationship between distributed leadership perceptions and continuous change behaviors of public school teachers*. Paper presented at the European Conference on Educational Research (ECER), Porto, Portugal.

Zayim, M. (2012, September). *Attitudes towards plagiarism scale: Development and initial validation*. Paper presented at the European Conference on Educational Research (ECER), Cadiz, Spain.

Zayim, M. (2012, September). *What to change in change process: A qualitative study*. Paper presented at the European Conference on Educational Research (ECER), Cadiz, Spain.

Zayim, M., Serim-Yıldız, B., Koçer, E. (2012, September). *A qualitative study on change in educational system*. Paper presented at the Applied Education Congress, Ankara, Turkey.

Zayim, M., & Kondakci, Y. (2011, September). *The relationship between teachers' readiness for change and perceived organizational trust*. Paper presented at the European Conference on Educational Research (ECER), Berlin, Germany.

Presentations at National Conferences

- Kondakci, K., & Zayim, M. (2015, May). *Sosyal Adalet Liderliđi ve Etkili Okul*. Paper presented at the 10. Ulusal Eđitim Yönetimi Kongresi, Gaziantep, Turkey.
- Yılmaz, D., & Zayim, M. (2011, September). *İlköđretim ve ortaöđretim düzeyinde yapılan örgüt kültürü çalışmalarına eleştirel bir bakış*. Paper presented at the 20. Ulusal Eđitim Bilimleri Kurultayı, Burdur, Turkey.
- Kondakçı, Y. Zayim, M., & Çalışkan, Ö. (2010, May). *Okul yöneticilerinin deđişime hazır olma tutumlarının okulun öđretim düzeyi, yöneticilerin deneyimi ve okul büyüklüğü bağlamında incelenmesi*. Paper presented at the 5. Ulusal Eđitim Yöneticileri ve Eđitim Deneticileri Kongresi, Antalya, Turkey.

Projects

- Project Title: Predictors and outcomes of change-related negative emotions and resistance in Turkish educational system (2014).
Position: Researcher
Project code: METU- BAP-07-03-2014-002
- Project Title: Modeling of early identification and referral system: Model Evaluation (2013) / UNICEF Project
Position: Researcher
- Project Title: Analysis and Reporting data on Child Friendly Cities of Community Based Assessments in 9 Municipalities (2011) / UNICEF Project
Position: Researcher
- Investigating the relationship between organizational trust and readiness to change among teachers working in public schools in Ankara (2010).
Position: Researcher
Project code: METU-BAP-07-03-2010-116

P. Tez Fotokopisi İzin Formu

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enformatik Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>

YAZARIN

Soyadı : ZAYİM
Adı : MERVE
Bölümü : EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) : MODELING PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHERS' CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION BEHAVIOURS: INTERRELATIONS AMONG CHANGE ANTECEDENTS, CHANGE-RELATED AFFECT, COMMITMENT TO CHANGE, AND JOB SATISFACTION

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans Doktora

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
3. Tezimden bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz.

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ: