SCHOOL CULTURE AS PREDICTOR OF TEACHERS' ATTITUDES
TOWARDS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: MEDIATING ROLE OF
ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST

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ABSTRACT

SCHOOL CULTURE AS PREDICTOR OF TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: MEDIATING ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST

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Behaviors and attitudes of individuals cannot be thought separately from their groups or organizations. Each group or organization has a distinctive group culture which predicts values, norms, aims, attitudes and behaviors of group members. Within this respect, schools like any other organizations have cultures that stand for the organizational identity. The main purpose of this study is to investigate whether school culture predicts teachers' professional development attitudes and whether teachers' trust in their educational organization they are currently working at mediates this relationship. The study was conducted with randomly chosen 664 teachers working at state schools in İstanbul. Within this respect, participants were asked to complete School Culture Inventory, Organizational Trust Scale and Teachers' Professional Development Attitudes Scale. To analyze the data, SPSS 22.0 and AMOS 18.0 statistical software programs were used. Findings of the study revealed that

school culture that teachers perceive predicts their attitudes towards professional development significantly and their trust in their organization mediates this prediction partially. Also, five factors of School Culture Inventory, Teachers Collaboration, Collegial Support, Learning Partnership, Professional Development and Unity of Purpose, has indirect relationships with professional development attitudes of participants through factors of Organizational Trust, Trust in Principal, Trust in Colleagues, Trust in Stakeholders.

Keywords: school culture, organizational trust, professional development attitudes

ÖZ

ÖĞRETMENLERİN MESLEKİ GELİŞİME YÖNELİK TUTUMLARININ YORDAYICISI OLARAK OKUL KÜLTÜRÜ: ÖRGÜTSEL GÜVENİN ARACI ROLÜ

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Bireylerin davranışları ve tutumları, içinde bulundukları gruptan ya da kurumdan ayrı düşünülemez. Her grup ya da kurum, grup üylerinin değerlerini, normlarını, amaçlarını, tutumlarını ve davranışlarını yordayan kendine has bir grup kültürüne sahiptir. Bu bağlamda, tıpkı diğer kurumlar gibi, okullar da onların kurumsal kimliği yerine geçen bir kültüre sahiptir. Bu çalışmanın amacı, okul kültürünün öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişime yönelik tutumlarını ne kadar yordadığını ve kurumlarına duydukları güvenin bu ilişkide aracı rolünün olup olmadığını incelemektir. Çalışma, İstanbul ilinde tesadüfi olarak seçilen ve devlet okullarında çalışan 664 öğretmenle gerçekleştirilmiştir. Veri toplama amacıyla, katılımcılardan Kişisel Bilgi Formu, Okul Kültürü Envanteri, Çok Amaçlı T Ölçeği, Mesleki Gelişim Anketi ve Mesleki Gelişime Yönelik Tutum Ölçeği'ni doldurmaları istenmiştir. Elde edilen veriyi analiz etmek için, SPSS 22.0 ve AMOS 18.0 istatistik programları kullanılmıştır. Çalışmanın bulguları okul kültürünün öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişime yönelik tutumlarını anlamlı olarak yordadığını ve örgütsel güvenin bu ilişkide kısmi bir aracılık rolü

olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Bununla birlikte, okul kültürünün beş faktörü ile, Öğretmen İşbirliği, Meslektaş Desteği, Öğrenme Ortaklığı, Mesleki Gelişim ve Ortak Amaçlar, öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişime yönelik tutumları arasında örgütsel güvenin üç faktörü, Okul Müdürüne Güven, Meslektaşlara Güven, Paydaşlara Güven, dolaylı ilişkiler bulunmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: okul kültürü, örgütsel güven, mesleki gelişime yönelik tutum

To innocence and innocent people…

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Tez çalışmama başladığımda iş arkadaşım, yazarken nişanlım ve bitirdiğimde eşim olan çok sevgili Metin Kocatürk, sana da her şey için, ama en çok da "göğe birlikte baktığımız" için çok teşekkür ederim. Varlığın her zaman bana güç verdi.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

MoNE	Ministry of National Education
PD	Professional Development
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Teachers are fundamental elements of the educational systems so the greater importance is dedicated to education as a whole, the greater importance should be dedicated to teachers who are responsible for education (OECD, 1989). Barth (1990) proposes that nothing in a school has more influence on students' talent development, self-esteem or in-class behaviors than teachers' developing them both personally and professionally. Therefore, the only way to ensure quality in educational settings and to keep up with change for educators, who are life-long learners, is professional development.

We live in an environment where knowledge, facts, standards, technology, and even philosophy are constantly changing. As these changes affect educational systems deeply, keeping up with these changes has become vital for surviving, as it is in other settings. Teachers are at the center of all educational practices and that they do not adapt or develop themselves against these changes means collapse for educational systems. So, ongoing professional development stands for a core activity for teachers to prepare students and societies for future, which makes this process not a choice but requirement for them (Tom, 1997). In addition to that, improving educational standards will provide equal and sufficient learning opportunities for each single student and this is what the society expects from educators (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992).

Day (1997) defines professional development as unaided learning from experience thanks to which most teachers acquire knowledge of surviving, becoming competent and developing both classrooms and schools with the help

of learning opportunities such as in-service education and training activities generated internally and externally. Lindstrom and Speck (2004) highlights its life-long learning dimension and state that professional development continues life-long and includes collaborative learning through which growth of individuals, teams and schools nourish.

Teacher professional development is a topic Turkish researchers have started to focus in recent several decades although it is one of the basic components of quality in education. When features of professional development activities and attitudes are investigated in Turkish context, the first issue drawing attention is centralized educational system. When it comes to how MoNE conducts professional development programs or activities, firstly, specialists prepare a professional development program including activities on various topics such as material development, assessment and evaluation, project management, effective communication, smart boards, etc. and teachers are free to choose one or more of the topics they are interested in. If they are elected –due to limited capacity-, they participate within that activity (MoNE, 2016). Additionally, in their meta-analysis study, Bümen and her colleagues (2012) gather results of the studies which focus on reasons why teachers are not willing to develop their skills. Results of this study propose these activities' being low in quality and quantity is one of the major reasons that hinder their professional development. In addition to this, they list other major reasons and some of the reasons are teachers are not encouraged to develop themselves, teachers' needs or interests are not taken into consideration while designing professional development process, only conferences or seminars transferring knowledge are held as professional development activities, and there here is not a follow-up step which enables tracking teachers whether they can employ their newly-gained skills or what is the problematic issue.

Fullan and Hargreaves (1992) put forward that professional development is a complex and demanding process. The issue of supporting teachers and creating opportunities for them is questionable because professional development needs

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varies according to circumstance, personal and professional histories and current dispositions (Day, 1997). Also, determination or being aware of all these requires expertise and background knowledge on related context (Lindstrom and Speck, 2004). Hurst and Reding (2009) claim that school administration and other stakeholders have a critical role to encourage and direct colleagues for continuing to develop their skills.

Day (1997) indicates that being an adult learner requires reflecting upon purposes, practices, values and social contexts individuals belong to. Otherwise, learning process will be more challenging in terms of not only emotional and cognitive competencies of teachers, but also the personal and professional values which underpin these and which lie at the heart of professional practice. He also asserts that the greatest challenge for individuals and organizations is to ensure that both of emotional and cognitive competencies and personal and professional values are nurtured in systems designed to improve the quality of teaching and learning for teachers as well as students and proposes a professional development model or system in which all parties of the school are both addressed and valued. Any process within this system should be both teacher and school-driven. Parallel to this, Guskey (2007) claims that any kind of professional development effort should be initiated and directed by academic staff or related personnel.

A model which is similar to Day (1997) proposed was employed in 2007, too. The ministry conducted the pilot study with 240 teachers at 139 schools in 6 provinces. According to report (MoNE, 2008) presenting results of the process, the model had a significant effect for individual and professional development of the participants and the researchers suggested the model to be applied country-wide, however, the model was not employed since then.

Parallel to this, Mintzberg (1983) asserts that behaviors of a group cannot be foreseen or speculated by just examining each of the group members' personalities, When there is a group, it is inevitable that a distinctive culture

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that group has exists and behaviors of the group or individuals in the group cannot be thought separately from the group culture.

This distinctive group or organizational or school culture-for educational settings-which is defined as the whole of values, meanings, beliefs, ideology, norms, expectations, symbols, language and myths that are created or transferred by that group of people (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Şişman, 2007; Çelik, 2012) identifies common good and organizes subordinates to focus on common goals of the organization, in other words, it is a compass which directs members of the organization (Balcı, 2002; Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Related literature conducted on features of organizations whose culture is strong (Bakan et al, 2004; Balcı, 2002; Çolak, 2002; Eren, 2001; Kozlu, 1986; Okay, 2000; Peters & Waterman, 1987; Şişman, 2007; Vural, 2003) points out that school culture is a multi-function mechanism which increases motivation and commitment of teachers. In addition to this, it helps teachers to internalize the common goals and work accordingly individually or in teams. When it is considered that the ultimate aim of schools is student achievement, school culture presents teachers an ontological mission to continue to develop themselves for the organizational survival. Within this regard, it could be claimed that whether teachers favor professional development and wish to develop their skills depends on culture of school they are currently working at.

In her study, Seashore-Louis (1992) resembles teachers to Sisyphus, one the famous figures of Greek mythology. Every day, teachers work hard and long to accomplish the same things over and over again, however, they could accomplish partially or temporarily like Sisyphus who carries a huge stone to the top of the hill only to roll it down as soon as he reaches the top. Most of the teachers do not question what is wrong with this situation, on the contrary, we marvel this endless but unavailing effort like we admire Sisyphus' finding energy and motivation in himself to push the same stone every day without questioning. She also asserts that this never questioning what is missing for

their actions or why they keep failing situation creates an essential dilemma between perseverance and commitment of teachers' professional lives.

However, teachers are not alone unlike Sisyphus. They work in organizations, where they have colleagues, clients, supervisors, professional, experts, etc. They can ask for advice from their colleagues or supervisors, what is wrong or missing with their actions or what skills they need to develop to accomplish their goals. Several studies (Brewster & Railsback, 2003; Bryk & Schneider 2002; Hoy, Tarter, & Witkoskie, 1992; Kratzer, 1997; Short & Greer, 1997; Tarter, Sabo & Hoy, 1995, Tschannen-Moran, 1998) reveal that quality of instruction and school effectiveness is highly related to teachers' trust in their colleagues and principals and in schools where trust level is higher, it is observed that teachers are more willing to share their instructional strategies and materials and mentor their colleagues.

Trust is complex concept to define. Although there are various definitions, two dimensions of the concept are agreed on mostly, expectation and vulnerability. This means people who trust in someone becomes vulnerable against possible harms which could be encountered; however, they continue to trust because they believe that other party will work for benefit of them. Also, they expect something good or desired to happen when they trust the other side (Hosmer, 1995; Mishra, 1996; Rousseau et al., 1998). Therefore, in case of teachers' not asking for guidance, the reason could be lack of trust in their colleagues, principals or clients because they need to be sure that the other party whose guidance or collaboration is expected will provide assistance rather than harm, in other words, they need to trust them.

To sum up, no matter its type, level, position, etc. is, student achievement is ultimate ontological mission of any kind of educational organizations. To realize this, teachers as members of this educational structure are expected to develop their instructional skills and to develop professionally. Deal and Kennedy (1982) state that each organization has an identity created by its organizational culture and common organizational behavior depends on

organizational culture intensively, which is valid for educational institutions, too. As student achievement is the mission of every educational organization, whether or not teachers try to realize this mission depends on strong or weak school cultures which could or could not unite all stakeholders of the school for common good and encourage teachers to develop their professional skills. Based on this premise, it could be claimed that school culture could be an indicator of teachers' professional development attitudes and efforts in a certain school.

As mentioned before, professional development is not an individual but a collective process which requires enthusiasm, guidance, expertise, collaboration and cooperation, which are components of school culture that stems from trust-based relationships between members of the school community. Therefore, before functioning as a group, teachers need to believe that everyone else in the group will behave in a desired way, which indicates that trust in their relations and organization could improve this collective process.

Based on these premises, the main purpose of this study is to examine predictor role of teachers' school culture perceptions for their professional development attitudes and whether their trust in their organization improves this relationship.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

Like any other organizations, educational institutions which have distinctive characteristics and these characteristics generate school culture standing for the identity of that school. It also provides a framework composed of common assumptions, beliefs, attitudes, traditions, norms and values motivating instructors to work collaboratively to realize the mission of the school (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Therefore, school culture is the key factor which identifies organizational behavior at a school. Professional development attempts to increase student achievement, the mission of every school, is a collective

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process which requires teacher collaboration, unity of purpose, collegial support and learning partnership which are based on trust-worthy relationships between teachers. So, the main purpose of the study is to examine to what extend teachers' school culture perceptions predict their professional development attitudes and whether their level of trust improves this relationship. The main research question of the study is composed as follows:

"Does teachers' school culture perceptions predict their attitudes towards professional development significantly?"

Based on this main research question, another subsequent research question,

"Does teachers' trust in their organizations mediate this prediction?"

is going to be examined.

In addition to these, indirect relationships through organizational trust between school culture and professional development attitudes are going to be investigated.

1.3. Significance of Study

Day (1997) claims that teachers as adult learners and life-long learners need fellow travelers who will share their experiences through this learning journey. In terms of school context, teachers need to share, reflect and comment on their professional learning process with their colleagues to realize their common purpose, which requires a school atmosphere encouraging teachers to work collaboratively and to learn together and to create a professional learning community. This situation draws attention to culture of schools, more or less, each stakeholder of the school community behaves accordingly. Therefore, school culture stands as an important predictor of professional learning of teachers.

Another situation that draws attention to school culture during professional development planning process is that professional development efforts in

Turkey have been started to be planned school-based since 2014. Currently, schools, are expected to plan and conduct professional development process according to their needs or they are expected to turn into professional learning communities, which depends on trustworthy relationships between stakeholders of the school as much as it depends on school culture. In such a structure, teachers need to believe that each member of this professional learning community will work for benefit of the group, ensuring trust among colleagues and administrators will contribute to effectiveness of the group activities. Also, Whitener and his colleagues (1998) points out that organizational trust is closely related with many components of school culture and educational institutions such as teacher collaboration, organizational citizenship, decision-making, problem solving and more importantly risk taking. Without trusting other parties, teachers cannot be expected to take risks or initiatives. Each learning brings about change and what change brings about is unknown. Within this respect, teachers need to believe that their colleagues and other stakeholders of the school will help or support them in unknown process, which highlights trust and trustworthy relations among school members.

When social and contextual nature of professional development process mentioned above is considered, this study presents a practical view for teacher professional development efforts going on in Turkey as it goes beyond individual efforts of teachers. Professional development is a form of adult learning and adult learning requires a social context, fellowship, reflection and sharing. This study will investigate how to create and improve this social context for teachers as life-long learners within the school context. When the fact that professional development activities directed by the Ministry of National Education have been evolving to school-based model since 2014 is taken into consideration again, it could be claimed that this social context that motivates and supports teacher collaboration and learning partnerships is gaining more and more importance. However, the number of studies conducted on this issue in Turkish literature is scarce and do not provide satisfactory

information that will guide policy makers and practitioners. Therefore, this study is expected to draw the attention of researchers to the possible contextual predictors of successful professional development process. In addition to this, this study is one of the first ones which focuses on social and affective dimensions of professional development process by examining components of school culture such as collaborative leadership, having common purposes, collegial support, teachers' learning together or learning partnerships, professional development atmosphere of the school- whether teachers are encouraged or supported-, and trust as a response to requirements of teachers as adult and life-long learners.

School administrators are expected to plan and follow professional development of teachers by regulation defined by the Ministry of National Education, so they need to acquire certain information and skills that enable them to conduct this process successfully. From this point of view, this study will present a holistic framework for school communities- including school administrators, teachers and other stakeholders of school- trying to be professionally developing communities with regard to school culture and formal and informal structures at schools.

For researchers, this study may constitute for a starting point as professional development process in Turkey is examined in terms of quantity and quality only. It could draw attention of researchers to the fact that professional development is a complex and multi-dimensional process which has social, affective and contextual features which are distinctive for each school and teacher.

To sum up, what makes this study significant is that it is one of the very first studies that present a holistic view of teacher professional development process in terms of the whole school culture perception and components of school culture through organizational trust. Within the scope of this study, it is aimed to introduce and focus on basic factors that foster both learning of teachers as adults and life-long learners for policy makers and practitioners to conduct

more effective professional development plans and to increase student achievement that is the final output of the whole professional development efforts.

1.4. Definition of the Terms

There are several terms which are used within the scope of study and they are defined below.

School culture is sum of assumptions, beliefs, expectation, emotions, perceptions, interactions, symbols, norms and values developed by members of the school (Deal & Peterson, 1982).

Collaborative Leadership refers to a management style to what extent school managers set and maintain collaborative relations among stakeholders of school and support them to come up with ideas and novelties and share them, take actions and participate in decision-making process (Gruenert & Valentine, 1998).

Teacher Collaboration means that teachers engage in actions which improve educational activities going on in a school (Gruenert & Valentine, 1998).

Unity of Purpose refers to teachers work for a shared mission defined by the school administration, and they internalize, promote and perform parallel to this mission (Gruenert & Valentine, 1998).

Professional Development is the process teachers participate in some professional development events to further their current knowledge and skills for higher student achievement and school development (Gruenert & Valentine, 1998).

Collegial Support indicates to what extend teacher work together voluntarily and effectively to achieve organizational goals (Gruenert & Valentine, 1998).

Learning Partnership is a process through which stakeholders of the school, including staff, students and parents, take common actions for the sake of

common good and they have the same expectations in terms of improving current situation of schooling and services (Gruenert & Valentine, 1998).

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

Trust in principal is faith in school principal that he will keep his or her word and act in the best interest of the teachers" (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2009).

Trust in colleagues is believing that colleagues can depend on each other for risky situation and they expect that they will behave for common goals (Tschannen- Moran & Hoy, 2009).

Trust in clients refers to trusting in parents that they will keep their word and what they say is true. Also, it refers to trusting in students' competency and capacity in learning (Tschannen-Moran, 2009).

Attitude towards professional development to what extent teachers favor professional development and continue to develop themselves (Torff, Sessions & Brynes, 2005).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter of the study, related literature on organizational and school culture, trust in schools and teacher professional development is reviewed. It is organized under three main headings: in the first section, how cultures of organizations, including educational organizations, are perceived by stakeholders of organization; in the second section, faculty trust is discussed and in the third section, teacher professional development is examined in terms of planning and conducting. At the end of the chapter, relationships between school culture, faculty trust and teachers' attitudes towards professional development are discussed and summarized.

2.1. Organizational Culture

We all are members of some organizations or belonged to certain groups. In addition to personal behaviors, traits and attitudes, we also have authentic behaviors, traits and attitudes which are meaningful only to group members. Mintzberg (1983) suggests that each group has a unique group spirit which creates a distinctive culture of that group and behaviors of the group cannot be though separately form that distinctive group culture.

It is not new that researchers focus on informal structure of organizations. In 1930s and 1940s, both Elton Mayo and Chester Barnard tried to examine and define nature of informal structures and they concluded that emotions, values, beliefs and norms emerging from interactions between group members served as a hidden contract within the organizations (Barnard, 1938; Mayo, 1945). Selznick (1957) defines organizations with common values rather than technical necessities and existence of these values creates the distinctive

identity for the organization. In other words, organizations are foundations which have one of a kind of skills and characteristics, which means that organizations are cultures or they have culture that is unique to that specific organization

2.1.1. Definition of Organizational Culture

Like culture itself, organizational culture has a dynamic and complex nature within, because of this, it is hard to focus on a certain definition of culture or organizational culture. Leadership, subordinates, structure of the organization and interaction with stakeholders may determine how culture is defined and perceived. Within this context, organizational culture could be defined as the whole of values, meanings, beliefs, ideology, norms, expectations, symbols, language and myths within an organization (Arogyaswamy & Byles, 1987; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Moore, 1985; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Sathe, 1983; Smircich, 1985; Trice & Beyer, 1984). In addition to this broad and comprehensive identification of organizational culture, Ouchi (1981) claims that organizational culture is the sum of symbols, ceremonies and myths which transmit basic values and beliefs of the organization to employees while Mintzberg (1989) puts forward that organizational culture is composed of traditions and beliefs which separates the organization from the others. Parallel to aforementioned authors, Robbins (1998) and Schein (1999) defines organizational culture as the combination of basic premises that keep the members of the organization together to realize the ontological mission of that organization. Many anthropologists define culture as the way of living of a society, based on this, organizational culture could be assumed as the way of pursuing of organizations.

Organizations are composed of different identities that determine organizational behavior, so culture provides a framework to understand and manage organizational behavior and performance. As it compromises all of the common premises, beliefs and values, it helps to organize subordinates to focus

on common goals of the organization, in other words, it is a compass which directs members of the organization. Within this respect, it also serves as an informal control and evaluation mechanism (Balcı, 2002; Deal & Peterson, 1991).

Organizational culture is another way of socializing within an organization. According to Schein (1997), organizational culture helps to ensure adaptation to external environment and internal wholeness of the organization, so, it may be leading for newcomers about how to handle the tasks, solve problems and perceive things during organizational processes unconsciously and make the adaptation period easier for them.

With increasing numbers of international organizations and companies, issue of culture has become one of the important factors for managerial processes as people from different cultures and origins are to work together. Therefore, first studies conducted on organizational culture focused on sectorial and managerial dimension of the concept. Research dealing with comparative management has proven not only that social cultures are influential for managerial processes, but also that each organization has its own culture. At the beginning of 1980s, Corporate Cultures by Deal and Kennedy, In Search of Excellence by Peters and Waterman, Z Theory by Ouchi and The Art of Japanese Management by Pascal and Athos were published, thus, interest in culture and organizational culture increased.

Conclusively, with regard to social and technological developments in every area, change in structures of organizations, managerial processes, manpower, etc. has become inevitable and this situation make both researchers and managers to search for an alternative management style which addresses both social and occupational needs of subordinates and identifying and pursuing certain culture of the organization will contribute to this situation.

Research on features and functions of organizational culture (Balcı, 2002; Eren, 2001; Kozlu, 1986; Peters & Waterman, 1987; Şişman, 2007; Vural,

2003) suggest that it has certain influences both functional and dysfunctional for internal and external stakeholders. Dysfunctional influences of organizational culture could be pointed out as hindering change and differentiation, preserving conservativeness, eliminating organizational unity and loyalty while functional influences which enable to realize organizational goals could be listed as follows (Bakan, Büyükbeşe, & Bedestenci, 2004; Balcı, 2002; Çolak, 2002; Eren, 2001; Kozlu, 1986; Okay, 2000; Peters & Waterman, 1987; Şişman, 2007; Vural, 2003):

- Organizational identity and image are shaped according to organizational culture and, therefore, difference between organizations appears.
- It provides membership and belongingness for organization member, so, it eliminates demotivation and absenteeism.
- It ensures peace at work as it standardizes and rationalizes tasks, duties, responsibilities.
- In organizations which have a firm culture, employees know what is expected from them so they organize their way of working accordingly and they are motivated for what they do, which means that organizational culture also serves as a means of motivation.
- It increases commitment of employees and contributes to team work.
- It works as a filter for uncertainty and eliminates individual conflicts which affect organizational achievement.
- It also increases performance, quality, motivation and job satisfaction level of employees.
- Common values and beliefs are transmitted to next generations by organizational culture, so, it has an enormous effect for sustainability of organizations.
- It represents a secret control mechanism for operational processes and this replaces formality and bureaucracy which prevents members from

taking initiatives. Cultures could be perceived as unwritten regulations known and internalized by each member of the organization.

2.1.2. Organizational Culture Models

When related literature is reviewed, it is seen that researchers come up with many ideas and opinions about how to classify or model organizational culture based on certain components. In this part of literature review chapter, models of organizational culture proposed by Harrison (1972), Handy (1985), Sethia and Glinow (1985), Kono (1992), Pheysey (1993) and Chang and Lin (2007) are going to be presented.

Basically, organizational culture could be evaluated as strong or weak. Strong cultures foster commitment and consensus while weak cultures causes conflicts and miscommunication (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Members of the organization follow the common beliefs and values, which guide organizational behaviors if they experience a strong culture. In an opposite situation, there are not common beliefs and values and a continuous decline in success or profit is observed (Hoy & Miskel, 1996). Leaders of strong cultures know how to react to a particular situation and during decision-making process, they spend less time, energy or sources while decision-making may cause obscurity and conflict for weak cultures (Deal & Kennedy, 1982).

Composing a strong culture require various conditions and factors, such as organization members' being together for a long time, following a dominant culture which organized in accordance with organizational goals and interaction between managerial staff and employees (Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983). Strength of organizational cultures also depends on other factors, such as size and relations. The larger the size of the organization is, the weaker the organization culture will be as commonality and sharing decrease. In addition to this, close relations are another important factor that determines strength, in other words, interdependency and exchanging among the departments or sections contribute into organizational cultures. Organizations which are older

are expected to have more lasting cultures as culture evolves in time and cultural accumulation continues. Strong cultures are also expected to display a great harmony between organization assumptions, language, rituals and myths (Masland, 1985).

Özdemir (2000) summarizes features of a strong culture as follows:

1. It is distinctive, which means that culture of a specific organization distinguishes it from others. No one could be identical to another, so it is important to pursue differences.

2. It is both stable and open to change, which means that being open to change is one of the characteristics of strong cultures which last long.

3. It includes an organizational language, which means that stakeholders of the organization could communicate in a way that interlocutors could get the message only or in different manners, for example, sending e-mails only.

4. It includes symbols which are composed by former or present stakeholders of the organizations and these symbols are considered to be pre-approved or pre-accepted by next generations of the organization. They support to build and pursue an organizational identity.

5. It addresses all, which means that how much members of the organization are different from each other, they unite and try to realize organizational aims thanks to shared assumptions, beliefs and values.

6. It compromises commonality, which means that all members believe the same organizational reality.

7. It is the reflection of management, which means that how procedures are conducted in an organization depends heavily on management style of supervisors, so it requires managers to internalize and pursue culture to transfer it to next generations.

As both culture and organizational culture are unique to that specific community, classifications related to organizational cultures differ from each other notably. Although main discrimination is conducted based on culture's being strong and weak, leaders, employees, organizational climate and structure and values stand for a basis for a classification so it is inevitable for every researcher to focus on a different aspect of culture and come up with a new classification which is both different and similar to previous ones (Koşar, 2014). Comparing cultures or components of cultures with each other may be guiding and interpretative, however; classifying cultures as good or bad is not only wrong in terms of ethical considerations, but also it is not even a matter of discussion to rival them (Şişman, 2007). Also, older versions of classifications stand for a theoretical basis for former ones. Classifications below could lead to creating and pursuing a strong culture and cultivating process.

Harrison (1972) defines culture as characteristics of the organization and he suggest four different culture types, which are power, role, responsibility and individual culture. In power-centered organizations, leader is the one who has power. Generally, organization members face with control and benefit conflicts. It could be said that this kind of organizations are more traditional ones. For role culture, bureaucracy and policies are at the forefront and issues such as rationalism, rules, hierarchy, role, state, position and responsibility matters significantly. Source of the power is expertise and organizational functionality. For responsibility cultures, the main point is organizational goals and in organizations where this culture type is dominant, every process is evaluated to what extent it serves for organizational goals, so, organizational processes should be arranged in a way that organizational goals are fulfilled. Also, source of power is expertise like it is for role cultures. Lastly, for individual cultures, the main argument is that organizations are for individuals, which means that individual aims and benefits are more important than common ones. Unlike to responsibility culture in which individuals are seen as a means of realizing organizational goals, organizations are seen as a means of realizing individual goals.

Similar to Harrison's classification, Handy (1985) suggests a similar but new classification for organizational culture by being inspired from Ancient Greek Mythology. According to this, power (Zeus), role (Apollo), Responsibility (Athena) and individual (Dionysus) cultures compose subcultures of Harrison classification. As the name indicates, Zeus culture requires power to be centered and autarchy is dominant within general structure of the organization. Accordingly, supervision or inspection has an important place in managerial processes. Apollo culture could be observed in typical bureaucratic and formal organizations. As for Role Culture, expertise is the main concern and distinction between organization members and role, task, authority, rationality, hierarchy, rules and procedures are again main issues to be taken into consideration. Athena culture is the kind of culture in which project groups or teams who work together are highly valued. It is a kind of task-centered culture and the main concern is to complete tasks and duties. Experts are ones who lead the organization. Individual Culture, last one, is also similar to Harrison's Individual culture and it is individual-centered. Each member of the organization constitutes for a value and individual cultures are at the forefront.

Based on Harrison and Handy models, Pheysey (1993) develops a new framework and divides cultures into four, which are role, achievement, power and support culture. For Role Culture, roles and responsibilities have great importance like previous models. Roles, job definitions, rules and tasks are predetermined and rationality stands for a basis for this determination. Role cultures could be perceived as classic bureaucracies in which hierarchy and authority are main streams. For achievement culture, completing tasks and realizing goals are more important than anything else in the organization. Rather than classic bureaucracy understanding, a flexible structure is appreciated. Expertise and individual responsibility are highly important. In organizations which have Power culture, members are expected to act according to hierarchical borders. Power, position, inspection and obeying are important terms for managers who have authority. Support culture could be observed in organizations where everyone is appreciated and valued no matter

what she or he is responsible with. Relations, interaction, informality, sharing, trust and participative decision-making are keywords of such culture.

Schneider (1999) focuses on expertise and personal development, so, suggests a model including Control, Collaboration, Competence and Cultivation cultures. In Control culture which functions bureaucratically at all levels, realizing goals is the main mission. Organizational structure is composed of certainty, predictability, trust and truth, which enables to follow an analytical and critical way during decision-making. Concrete truth draws attention pretty much for this kind of culture. Collaboration culture is closely related to synergy. Organization members deal with clients closely and dedicate themselves to their wishes. Control Culture, on the other hand, it is based on an informal, organic and client-centered structure. When it comes to the Competence culture, it focuses on differentiation and aims to offer clients with unique and priceless product and services. For this kind of culture, realizing conceptual or theoretical aims is the main concern, therefore, creativity, conceptual understanding, alternatives designed and quality are very important. Cultivation culture is the one where values and beliefs matter much. Followers of this culture act in a value-oriented manner, because of this, realizing aims which are value-based stands for group behavior. In this type of culture, individuals can explain what they think or feel frankly.

Sethia and Glinow (1985) classify culture in terms of paying attention to employees and performance. Within this context, culture types are Apathetic, Caring, Exacting and Integrative. In Apathetic culture, employees and performance are generally not an issue, while individual interests mean much more. Unethical behaviors, demotivation and pessimism are identifiers of this type of culture because services or products are perceived as an obligation resulting from job contracts. Exacting culture emphasizes importance of performance while Caring culture requires to pay attention to employees. For Exacting culture, organizational benefits are more important than anything else in the organization while employees in Caring culture fulfill their

responsibilities because of that they are urged to obey. Integrative culture could be claimed to be the mixture of Exacting and Caring culture, as it deals with both employees and performance to an equally great extent. Employees are respected as they are and they are valuable as they contribute organizational performance. Awarding plays an important role to appreciate employees' achievements.

Kono (1992) suggests a new model which focuses on correlation between organizational culture and organizational effectiveness. According to Kono's model, culture is grouped into four, which are Vitalized (Type I), Follow-the-leader and Vitalized (Type II), Bureaucratic (Type III) and Stagnant (Type IV-1) and Stagnant and follow-the-leader (Type IV-2). While conducting this classification, Kono (1992) draws emphasizes that although the number of organizations which are Vitalized (Type I) culture-oriented is relatively high, shift from Type I culture to Bureaucratic (Type III) and Stagnant (Type IV) is usually experienced and to avoid such regression, it is suggested that culture should be ensured to be alive. Type I culture encourages employees to innovate and share in accordance with organizational goals and individual values. Hierarchy does not matter much for this kind of organizations and communication could be both vertical and horizontal. Relations with managerial staff are not so distant and employees could deliver their thoughts and wishes frankly. It is observed that in this culture, quality of products and services and effectiveness increases significantly. Unlike the dynamism of employees within Type I culture, urge to innovation and novelty comes from the leader of the organization, who is the role model of the entire organization for Follow-the-leader and Vitalized (Type II) culture. What leaders think or how they act matter significantly, as, employees follow his or her action. So, whether the organization is dynamic or stagnant depends on the deeds and attitudes of the leader heavily. Bureaucracy is the main point for Bureaucratic (Type III) culture, which involves following rules and regulations at all levels of management. As behaviors of employees are determined via rules and regulations beforehand, taking risks or initiatives is observed rarely in this

culture type, so it could be claimed that this type of culture is stable, conservative and precautious. To avoid mistakes, employees follow the procedural operations. However, if they adopt themselves for change and developments, then the culture may turn into Vitalized. For Stagnant (Type IV-1) culture, following previous practices is the way of organizing actions. Collecting and sharing knowledge is conducted within the organization, which makes the organization close to developments and novelties, because of this, employees do not come up with new ideas and plans work slowly. Like Stagnant (Type IV-1) culture, Stagnant and Follow-the-leader culture displays a stable and unchanged structure. For Type IV-2 culture, source of information is the leader while Type IV-1 culture source of information is previous procedures. Even if attitude or decision of the leader is wrong, employees tend to follow him or her, which means that the longer the leader works, the more stable operations of that organization will be.

Chang and Lin (2007) develop a new model which is based on previous models and differentiates culture types according to internal/external orientation and flexible/control orientation. Then, they classify these two types into four groups which are Cooperativeness, Innovativeness, Consistency and Effectiveness culture. Cooperativeness culture displays an internal and flexible structure in which employees are encouraged to cooperate, share information, trust, authorize and work in teams. Thanks to trust and sharing responsibility, organization members work in harmony and in a hospitable environment. Externalization and flexibility are basic features of Innovativeness Culture. Organizations experiencing such culture are expected to be open to innovation and novelty. Within this respect, it could be claimed that work environment in innovative culture depends on creativity and dynamism. In Consistency culture, regulations, rules, laws, monotony and productivity are very important. This kind of organization seeks for consistency and stability at all levels. What is crucial for Effectiveness culture is product. In this culture, which is external and control-oriented, members focus on rivalry, realizing aims, production, benefit and profit, so, it could be claimed that such organization profit-driven.

Apart from these specific and detailed classifications, to decide on whether certain culture is strong or weak requires intense effort and observation as culture is a concept which could be perceived and experienced both individually and in groups. So, focusing on components of cultures will help researchers to get the whole picture. However, it could be claimed that efforts to label cultures make organizational values could also cause cultures to be approached as concrete materials as they could make organizational beliefs and relations more obvious, refine cultural transmissions and make explicit all of the features of the organization regardless of it is a characteristic feature or not. Because of that, many researchers like Duncan (1989), Stooner (1989), Meek (1988), choose to classify cultural components into objective and subjective ones, which could be observed or perceived. According to these researchers, observed components of culture, which are physical features, symbols, ceremonies or stories comprise physical culture, while perceived components of culture, which are assumptions, values or beliefs, comprises spiritual culture. Although focusing on labeling or naming cultural components makes them more materialistic and alienates from its social and psychological foundations, it provides a framework to conceptualize and pursue culture, also.

2.1.3. Components of Organizational Culture

Culture is a complex structure which is composed of various components related to each other. Although it is not possible to identify all of the components of culture, analyzing cultures via components provides valuable information about structure and operation of an organization. Based on cultural framework, components of organizational culture may vary form one organization to another. Regardless, researchers try to come up with common components which could be observed in every organization. Duncan (1989) classifies components of culture in terms of objectivity and subjectivity. Within this respect, objectives components are symbols, ceremonies and stories, while subjective components are assumptions, beliefs, values and conceptions. Stoner and Wankel (1986) and Sathe (1983) suggest a different classification

including shared objects, sayings, actions/behaviors, emotions/assumptions. Kozlu (1989) identifies three dimensions, basic values and assumptions; leaders and heroes; and ceremonies, stories and myths.

2.1.3.1. Assumptions

In general terms, assumption means judgments which are true or false, beliefs and generalizations. For organizational culture, anything that organizational members accept as true without doubt for issue related to the organization (Şişman, 2007). In other words, assumptions which stand for the core of the organization could be also defined as the way organization members perceive and evaluate themselves, others and the things. So, these assumptions may stem from both individual experiences and organizational procedures (Schneider, 1988).

Assumptions may constitute a background for a group to perceive, feel, evaluate and judge various situations and relations within an organization. While analyzing the culture of a specific organization, assumptions which are accepted as shared perceptional foundations and valid for every member, should be examined first as they reflect core and deeper levels of culture. Şişman (2007) suggests that assumptions should be analyzed according to premises of them on person-environment, truth, person, actions of people and personal relations.

2.1.3.2. Basic Values and Norms

Individuals organize their lives according to what they value or consider, so, as it is in social life, values and norms play a significant role in work life. They provide a basis for decision-making and arrange organizational goals and aims as they identify what is valuable for that particular organization. Also, they are key to solve problems within an organization, in other words, they are the criteria to judge what is right or wrong. So, basic values and norms constitute for a basis of decision making mechanism of the organization and they are like

a social glue which holds them together. Values also reflect purposes, ideals and standards, so, what is valuable to an organization changes from one to another and this situation contributes into uniqueness and identity of organizations. Based on these, values could be defined as the criteria which indicate what is desired, not the present situation the organization is in while norms serve as the guidelines to reach the valued situation. So, it could be claimed that values are abstract and spiritual while norms are observed, experienced and acquired (O'Reilly, 1989).

Values and norms could be classified in various ways, however, in terms of organizations, Wiener (1988) mentioned two kinds of values: functional and elitist. Functional values focus on service or products that an organization presents while elitist values compromise issues such as authority, state or unity.

Source of organizational values is matter of discussion. They could be a reservoir since the organization has been found or they could reflect what the leaders value. However, according to Schein (1984), they appear as a result of organizational assumptions emerged from interactions between individuals and environment. These assumptions stand for common right for each member of the organizations, so they affect how members respond to others or certain circumstances. Therefore, they connect stakeholders and ensure organizational unity. Organizational values may change within time, however, their being absent causes conflicts and failure.

Basic values and norms are the cultural components that ensure coherence, resolution and conjecture. So, they are crucial to have and pursue unity, stability and organizational trust and to motivate subordinates to realize organizational goals. It could be claimed that they could be more effective to establish and endure organizational behaviors than laws and legislations (Şişman, 2007).

2.1.3.3. Organizational Symbols

Organizational symbolism is an issue which gains importance with organizational culture studies. It provides a cultural and predictive point of view for organizations because people have a tendency to identify their environment through symbols they make up. Depending on intensity of symbols shared, people in groups display similar behaviors. So, symbols could be defined as anything that mean something special for people who experience the same culture and they are the most comprehensive cultural components that stand for privacy (Barley, 1983). They may be both changeable and transferrable. They play a significant role during socialization process of newcomers of the organization by serving as a social learning device.

Organizational symbols could be examined under two main categories: physical and oral-behavioral according to Şişman (2007).

Physical symbols refer to objects that could be seen and observed. These objects point out different and private meanings for the stakeholders of the organization. Architectural features, workplace, offices, materials, uniforms, logos, emblems, posters, etc. are among the examples of physical symbols of organizations may have. So, just by a quick look at the organization, someone could get certain amount of information related to the organization.

Oral-Behavioral symbols refer to more abstract division of symbols. Organizational language is one of the most important ones among them. Any organization may have an organization-specific communication system which includes work-related concepts and terminology, which could be both oral and written. Analyzing an organizational language may provide important clues for understanding organizations. In addition to that, organizational languages could help managers to direct and impress subordinates as Beyer (1984) suggests that managers should be good preachers rather than being good accountants.

Stories and myths take place among the oral symbols. They are generally about he founders, heroes, success and fame of the organizations. They help

subordinates or newcomers to grasp organizational culture and behavior. They also motivate employees and help them internalize organizational aims. Whether they are true or not, they are effective bridges that bring stakeholders together. Stories and myths may also serve as important and useful clues for managers. They can foresee results of their actions if they happened in the past and therefore, they prevent themselves from taking wrong actions. They also benefit from stories and myths as a control mechanism because they do not tell events only, they also explain justification, position status, role and power structures within an organization (Şişman, 2007).

Ceremonies, one of oral-behavioral symbols, are gatherings to celebrate or commemorate a particular historical or cultural event during certain times at certain places (Terzi, 2000). The main function of ceremonies, in terms of organizations, is to inform all stakeholders about organizational emotions that connect them and ensure organizational unity. So, it could be claimed that ceremonies are means of transferring organizational culture and traditions (Özkalp & Kırel, 2001). Ceremonies are also indicators of organizational values, so, they reflect what is important for the organizations. Ceremonies or gatherings include meetings, memorials, celebrations, retirement, graduation, rice days, etc. Şişman (2007) suggests that ceremonies stand for all organizational deeds and actions in an organization. The way an employee talks to his superior or saying an anthem together are also ceremonies that are not obvious. Therefore, ceremonies reinforce organizational cultures and its symbolic components.

Heroes, another oral-behavioral component of organizational cultures, are people who have standing features and have done extraordinary deeds for the sake of the organization. They may have died or be alive, may be real or imaginary (Şişman, 2007). Heroes represent the features and attitudes that other members of the organization should have, in other words, they are role models for them. Organizations which have strong and effective cultures try to keep heroes and their heroic actions alive because they are aware of the fact that they motivate people and imply desired behaviors. Also, for newcomers,

they could be a source of inspiration (Deal & Kennedy, 1982).

2.1.4. Culture in Educational Organizations

The main difference that sets apart educational organizations or schools from all other organizations is that their input and output are both human beings. Therefore, educational organizations aiming to change students' behaviors in a desired way and aiming enculturation, have and should have their own organizational way of surviving or simply culture (Şişman, 2007).

According to Sergiovanni (1994), every school has its own character and values, which could be motivational of sources of organizational actions. Also, Leithussad (1996) defines school culture as sum of rules, beliefs and values which guide organizational behaviors of principals, teachers and students. According to Deal and Peterson (1999), school culture is composed of values and assumptions evolved within the history of school. Parallel to Leithussad (1996), Heckman (2006) focuses on beliefs which all members of a school have and behave accordingly while defining school culture. Gaziel (2004) claims that school culture is character of a school as it reflects traditions, beliefs and values that exists with the school itself.

School culture as character of school reflects shared mission and aims of the school, so members will be aware of what is expected from them. It also provides a framework about how to accomplish these aims, therefore, it increases motivation, coherency, commitment, harmony and productivity (Atay, 2001).

According to Deal (1985), strong school culture should have features mentioned below:

1. Shared values and reconciliation in terms of organizational actions
2. School principal as a hero who represents basic organizational values
3. Ceremonies which commemorate organizational values and assumptions
4. Employees as situational heroes
5. Acculturation and cultural renewal rituals

6. Celebrating and transforming core values
7. Conducting innovation and tradition and autonomy and control in a balanced way
8. Broad participation for these rituals

In addition to features of strong school cultures mentioned above, it could be claimed that school culture is an important predictor of school effectiveness and effective school research (Ayık, 2007, Baroud-Nabhani, 2003; Bhengu & Mthembu, 2014; Cemaloğlu, 2007; Floyd, 1999; Lee & Li, 2015; Mfoloe, 2012; Ndlovana, 2012; Pieterse, 2012; Şahin, 2010; van Houtte & van Maele, 2011) indicates a strong perceived culture which is internalized by all stakeholders of schools. Change efforts and educational reforms conducted without taking into consideration uniqueness of school cultures will be in vain, which emphasizes a school-based change process.

Studies (Deal, 1985; Deal and Peterson, 1990) suggest that understanding culture is a prerequisite to making schools more effective. Also, many researchers (Ayık, 2007; Çelik, 2002; Peterson, 2002; Schein, 2004; Wilson, 2008) claims that school culture is one of the most effective ways to ensure success of educational organizations as it is in any kind of organizations.

Among components of school cultures, collaboration is one of the main aspect that contributes to school culture and teacher professionalism (Barth, 2006; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Little, 1982; Saphier & King, 1985). Collegial support and learning partnerships and common understanding are expected to be observed intensively at schools where collaboration is high (Gruenert, 2005). Collaboration, also, requires working together for shared aims (Bryk, Camburn, & Louis, 1999). When teachers and other members of the school work together, their interactions include discussing, planning, designing, conducting, analyzing, evaluating and experimenting (Little, 1982).

Collegiality is another aspect or component of school culture that is related to teacher growth significantly (Barth, 1990; Deal & Peterson, 1999; Little, 1982; Saphier & King, 1985; Sergiovanni, 1994). Parallel to collaboration,

collegiality is defined as teachers' working and sharing together and assisting each other Also, it refers to what extent joint effort of teachers is valued and supported (Fullan, 1990). Therefore, collegiality could be considered to be associated with continuous improvement and professional learning. When collegiality is high in school cultures, teachers are expected to be more motivated and dedicated to professional development (Barth, 1990).

Gruenert and Valentine (1998) developed School Culture Survey that measures school cultures based on nature of collaboration and collegiality among school members. They identified six school culture components that are derived from collaborative school cultures. The first factor is Collaborative Leadership and it measures to what extent school administrators establish and pursue collaborative relationships with school members. This factor focuses on whether school administrators value opinions, ideas, needs, and judgements of teachers during decision-making and planning processes. The second factor is Teacher Collaboration, which aims to measure to what extent teachers engage in activities collaboratively to realize the mission of the school. During these activities, teachers are expected to discuss and plan educational and instructional processes. The third factor is Professional Development, which measures professional development atmosphere at the school. It gives idea, whether teachers are encouraged and supported to continue to develop themselves professionally. The fourth factor is Collegial Support which examines whether teacher work together for common aims effectively, share ideas, help each other and trust each other while engaging in such activities. The fifth factor is Unity of Purpose, which focuses whether teachers try to understand and internalize the mission of the school and work effectively to realize this. The sixth factor is Learning Partnership, which refers to degree of joint work of all stakeholders of the school, including parents and students for common good. Detailed description of the survey is presented in Chapter 3.

There are many studies employing this scale and one of them belongs to Gruenert (2005), designer of the survey. He investigates the relationship

between school culture and student achievement in this study conducted at 81 schools. Findings of the study indicate that the higher collaboration culture at schools is, the higher student achievement is observed. In addition to this, findings of the study also revealed that Professional Development, Unity of Purpose and Learning Partnership factors are significantly associated with student achievement. Another study conducted by Farley (2007) examines the relationship between school culture and student achievement at 127 schools. Findings of this study show that student achievement is highly and significantly associated with Collaborative Leadership. In addition to this, Learning Partnership was another factor that has positive and significant relationship with student achievement. In her study, Curtis (2005) used School Culture Survey and she aimed to investigate organizational efficacy through school culture. The results of the study reveals that Collaborative Leadership and Teacher Collaboration predicted teacher retention significantly. Also, Curtis (2005) reports that trustworthy and collegial relationships are quite influential to satisfy needs of newly assigned teachers and to increase teacher retention.

Studies also indicate that the relationship between school culture and student achievement as an indicator of school effectiveness stands as the core element in effective schools. In his study conducted at primary schools to investigate relationship between school culture and student achievement, Demirtaş (2010) conclude that there is a positive and strong relationship between school culture and student achievement. In addition to this, findings of the study indicate that collaborative leadership, teacher collaboration and unity of purpose dimensions of school culture predict student achievement significantly. Another study conducted at high schools by Demirtaş (2010) reveals that unity of purpose dimension of school culture predicts high school students' academic achievement more than other dimensions of school culture. Also, in their case study his case conducted at a middle school, Elizondo (2016) finds a strong relationship between achievement and culture and proposes that at schools whose culture presents a common vision, allows healthy communication

systems, enables behavior management and ensures that students feel safe and cared, students are expected to be more successful.

In terms of organizational levels, studies find strong relationships between teacher commitment (Çakır, 2007), organizational trust (Yüksek, 2009) and school culture. In his study conducted at middle schools in Kentucky, Hatchett (2010) uncover that there is a strong relationship between teacher satisfaction and student achievement and school culture, which implies that as teachers' satisfaction increases, they work harder for student achievement depending on their school culture perceptions. Also, in their study, Ayık and Şayir (2015) turning into learning organizations depends on cultures of schools and collaborative leadership, collegial support and common goals components of school culture predict this composition higher.

2.1.4.1. School Culture Models

Like organizational culture models, there are several school culture models proposed by researchers. In this section, Culture of Efficacy, Culture of Trust and Culture of Academic Optimism as school culture models are going to be discussed.

Culture of efficacy. Bandura (1997) asserts that collective teacher efficacy, teachers' believing that efforts of the whole organization will have a positive impact on students, is a critical component which forms organizational perspective. That teachers and administrators have common thoughts on capacity and ability strengths collective efficacy at schools and provides them a unique identity. Hoy, Miskel and Tarter (2012) lists sources of collective efficacy as "*mastery experience, vicarious experience, social persuasion and emotional arousal*".

Schools may experience both success and failure; success support collective efficacy while failure hinders it. As learning occurs at organizations with experience, successful experiences motivate stakeholders to accomplish their goals. Therefore, mastery experiences are influential elements of collective

efficacy cultures (Huber, 1996). In addition to direct experience, school personnel can also listen and learn from their colleagues, which is vicarious experience and take as model their way of planning and conducting organizational work. To be motivated, teachers may need verbal persuasion of their colleagues. Through chatting, workshops, reflection and professional development activities conducted in teams, they could be convinced that they are capable enough to realize organizational aims, which contributes to collective efficacy. Stress and pressure are inevitable in organizations, too. How organizations react to them depends on their efficacy level; the more efficacious they are, the more successful they are while confronting them. Affective states of organizations also determine how to deal with challenges.

Bandura (1993) uncovers two key findings related to teacher efficacy and student achievement; student achievement is highly related with collective teacher efficacy and collective teacher efficacy is more effective in student achievement rather than socioeconomic status of students. Parallel to it, Goddard and his colleagues (2000, 2004) finds out that collective efficacy cultures has a positive effect in increasing student achievement and ensuring strong organizational effort as it unites stakeholder for common goals and against challenges.

Culture of trust. Tschannen-Moran (2001) puts forward that organization trust, teachers' believing in the school, is crucial as it determines interdependence, which is vital for teachers as they cannot be successful without relying upon each other. In schools which have culture of trust, all three main parties, administrators, teachers and clients – students and parents-, are expected to trust the others. To create such culture, firstly, teachers need to trust their principals. They need to know that the principal will behave for common good in a competent, open and honest way. Then, teachers and school members need to believe that teachers will not betray to their colleagues even in course of difficult situations. Lastly, schools as a whole need to believe in students and parents that students are willing and skillful learners and students and parents

are honest, open and authentic during their interactions with school members (Hoy, Miskel & Tarter, 2012).

At schools experiencing culture of trust, collaboration and cooperation (Tschannen-Moran, 2001) and professionalism are expected to be higher than the schools which are lack of trust-based relationships. In addition to this, research findings (Goddard, Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001; Hoy, 2002; Tschannen-Moran, 2004) indicate that there is positive and strong relationship between student achievement and trust in school. Also, in their study conducted at Chicago schools, Bryk and Schnedier (2002) report that schools which are based on trust culture are more likely to be successful in mathematics and reading than those which are not.

Culture of academic optimism. Academic optimism refers to set of administrators' and teachers' assumptions about strengths and capabilities of schools in which optimism is the umbrella construct that unites efficacy and trust with academic emphasis (Hoy, Miskel and Tarter, 2012). According to academic optimism model put forward by Hoy and his colleagues (2009), efficacy enables school members to believe that they have necessary qualifications while faculty trust provides cooperation and collaboration for student achievement. Academic emphasis, which stemmed from these beliefs, ensures that focus is on academic success. Therefore, in a school whose culture is academic optimism oriented, stakeholders of the school have a strong belief that students can achieve.

These three components of academic optimism have reciprocal relationships with other and they function simultaneously to build academic optimism culture in educational institutions (Hoy, Miskel and Tarter, 2012). Hence, in a school whose culture is academic optimism oriented, school members are expected to believe in themselves and their collagues that they are capable enough to increase academic achievement and their colleagues and clients will not disappoint them. Studies (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Forsyth, Adams & Hoy, 2011) find positive relationships between academic optimism and student

achievement. Also, it is an effective strategy for school improvement (Seligman, 2011).

There are some other school culture models proposed, however, it could be claimed that there are many other ways to examine schools as they are such distinctive organizations. In the following section of this chapter, organizational trust as a crucial component of relationships and educational processes and school cultures is going to be examined.

2.2. Trust

The most common opinion among trust studies is that trust is a comprehensive concept which is difficult to be defined. The reason for that is it plays a key role in explaining many processes such as relations among individuals, group behavior, management, change and building cultures. Even, for the most routine interactions, it is an important identifier. Hence, it has become an issue for different branches of Social Sciences, Psychology, Sociology, Political Sciences, Economics, Anthropology and Management (Gambetta, 1988; Lewicki & Bunker,1996; Worchel, 1979) and, moreover, each discipline approaches trust concepts in different terms.

Although there are many definitions as mentioned, it is observed that researchers concentrate on two explanations of trust broadly: expectations from others and wish to be vulnerable against others. To be more specific, Rousseau and his colleagues (1998) who focus "expectation" dimension, define trust as urge to believe that others will work for benefit of someone or common good or they will not harm him or her at least. Also, Hosmer (1995) points out that trust is based on expectation that the group who are trusted will behave in a proper and ethical way and Moorman and his colleagues (1993) assert that people trust as they expect benefit rather than harm. So, in terms of expectation point of view, trust could be defined as wish to believe others to behave in an expected way. Mishra (1996), who draws attention to "vulnerability" dimension of trust, defines trust as wish to become vulnerable against the belief

that a group of people will be open, competent, concerned and reliable for the other group of people while Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) defines trusting as someone's becoming vulnerable by their own free against the belief that the other group of people will act as expected – benevolent, reliable, competent, honest and open- in a situation that she or he cannot control or observe. Apart from these, Cowles (1997) claims that trust emerges when someone believes that the other person or group risks something valuable to achieve common aims. When various definitions of trust are taken into consideration together, it could be concluded that trust is a way of maintaining actions, based on expectation that people trusted will endeavor to be beneficial for people trusting and pre-acceptance of possible risks which will show up in case of failure of people trusted.

Rousseau and his colleagues (1998) and Chiles and McMackin (1996) suggest trust is situation-based. One of those situations is taking risks. Lewis and Wiegert (1985) claim that taking risks forces people to trust others, so, if there is no risk, there is no need to trust. In addition to this, if there is dependency among profits, then, people tend to trust each other, so level of dependency determines level of trust. In his study, McAllister (1995) points out that people from the same ethnic group trust each other more and concludes that similarity among people increases level of trust.

During building trust, there is a social experience that two or more parties create together. These parties use or develop similar interpretative schemas to identify this social experience, so, they create a rapport based on similarity of their assumptions and values, which leads up to trust each other (Jones & George, 1988). Parallel to this, Lewis and Weigert (1985) state trust as a social experience has three dimensions - namely, cognitive, emotional and behavioral. Trust based on a cognitive process helps to discriminate parties and organizations that are "trustworthy, distrusted and unknown". So, someone may choose whom to trust under which condition and in which respect. Complementary to its cognitive dimension, emotional dimension of trust

includes people's affective bonds such as friendship and love, which may increase of decrease level of trust. Behavioral dimension of trust emerges in case of undertaking of risks. As mentioned above, in such cases, people wish to be sure that each individual taking place in the action will behave in a competent and dutiful way, which indicates that the behavioral dimension of trust is mutually related to its cognitive and emotional dimensions.

In terms of establishing and maintaining professional or organizational relations in business context, Shapiro, Sheppard, and Cheraskin (1992) identifies three types of trust, deterrence-based, knowledge-based and identification-based. Deterrence-based trust is the result of consistency of behavior, which means that people will behave in a way that they say they are going to do so. If that person does not behave promised, then, she or he is threatened by punishment. So, trust based on consistency alone and requiring punishment in case of inconsistency refers to deterrence-based. While deterrence-based trust requires people to act how they promise, knowledge-based trust is based on behavioral predictability. Therefore, this kind of trust merges when someone predicts possible behaviors of trustees. It is not punishment-oriented unlike deterrence-based trust and it depends on trusters' deeds, beliefs and assumptions to predict how the trustee will behave most likely. Identification-based trust could be defined as combination of two previous types of trust as both sides, trusters and trustees, understand, know and predict intentions and expectations. So, it could be claimed that there is a win-win situation for identification-based of trust (Lewicki & Bunker, 1995).

According to Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000), trust is a multifaceted construct which has different bases and level and these variations of trust relations are context-dependent. By drawing attention to vulnerability dimension of trust, they identify five facets of trust, namely benevolence, reliability, competency, honesty, and openness to establish trust-based relationships. As mentioned before, trustors expect that trustees will act for benefits, not for harm, and this confidence which makes them vulnerable to

trustees' action is called benevolence. Degree of benevolence is expected to be high when intentions and actions of trustees are predictable, which stems from consistency which refers to reliability. So, it could be claimed that benevolence and reliability are important predictors of trust-based relations. Another facet which is vital is competency, which refers to how competent trustees are to realize expectation. Competency level is positively correlated with trust; as competency level decreases, then trust level decreases inevitably. Honesty, the fourth facet, is related to character, integrity and authenticity of people. Integrity refers to someone's corresponding his or her actions and expressions while authenticity refers to taking responsibility and consequences of his or her actions. When they, character, integrity and authenticity, are taken into consideration together, they constitute for honesty, a crucial facet of trust-based relations. Openness, last but not the least, stands for an obvious characteristic. It represents the belief that neither of parties are going to be betrayed.

2.2.1. Organizational Trust

Baier (1994) mentions that we mostly notice a given form of trust after an unexpected destroy or severe harm. Therefore, he resembles trust to air, we notice its existence only when it is scarce and polluted although we live in a climate of trust as we live in an atmosphere.

All of us are bound to organizations, which are expected to establish networks, relations, strategic connections, partnerships, etc. to function effectively. These new forms forces organizations move forward a more interconnected structure than traditional hierarchal structure. They also make organizations more sensitive and congruent to change, motivate for entrepreneurship, improve communication and problem solving among departments and sections (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). However, working within this modern structure of organizations and interconnectedness and interdependence among members and units of organizations make essential for them to have faith between them, in other words, they need to believe that their colleagues or stakeholders spend

their effort for that their common expectations come true rather than violating them. Therefore, becoming a "believer of the organization" requires existence of organizational trust.

Organizational trust is an important issue for business and management settings. In his study, Driscoll (1978) finds out that trust in manager during decision-making process predicts overall satisfaction level of organization better than participative decision-making. Also, in their study studying changes in trust in colleagues, Serva et al. (2005) state that believing in competency of colleagues functions as a basis for trust in colleagues for risk-taking situation.

2.2.2. Trust in Educational Organizations

Schools are organizations whose input and output are both human beings and they are social structures societies become vulnerable against both willingly and obligatorily as they expect a better future. In other words, schools are organizations people need to believe in as they invest the future - children. Dealing with human beings is one of the most characteristic features of schools which differentiates them from other mechanical organizations and this requires intensive effort, planning, sources and many other processes, so in addition to physical and intellectual capital schools have, social capital composed of trust, collaboration, cooperation, connectedness, understanding and common goals plays a significant role not to disappoint trustors of schools (Çelik, 2012).

Özer and his colleagues (2006) state that schools need to function in collaboration and harmony to be effective and productive, to realize educational aims of both the state and the school has and to offer a quality instruction. Also, Cohen and Prusak (2001) mention that trust is one of the most crucial factors which enhances this collaborative functioning, otherwise, directing people to collective activities will be very difficult.

Rotter (1967) asserts that trust is a vital component of human learning. In terms of school effectiveness, trust and trust-based relationships play a critical role.

Studies (Bryk & Schneider, 1996; Spillane & Thompson, 1997; Kochanek, 2005; Yılmaz, 2005) conducted on benefits of trust-based relationships among stakeholders show that,

•   School systems become more open to change and more innovative,

•   Teachers are expected to develop their academic knowledge and skills and they encourage their colleagues to learn collaboratively,

•   Teachers and administrators become more open and sincere to each other as they are sure that they will empathize one another,

•   Organizational trust functions as control-mechanism that indicates whether duties are fulfilled,

•   Higher level of trust in school encourage school members to unite for common mission, vision and values.

According to Cunnungham and Gresso (1993), trust is the core element of school effectiveness. When finding that one of the most important indicators of effective schools is student achievement is considered, it would not be wrong to assume that presence and level of trust predicts student achievement (Goddard, Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

According to Bryk and Schneider (2002), to create a sustainable trust atmosphere at schools, staff should have professional capacity and capability required to perform their job, relations should stem from honesty and openness and there should be transparency between the principal and the staff. On the other hand, taking wrong and inexplicable decisions, dysfunctional communication, not supporting projects or ideas for school improvement, distributing school sources in an unfair manner, constant change in academic and managerial staff and alienation of teachers are listed as obstacles that prevents from ensuring trust at schools (Brewster & Railsback, 2003).

Level of trust in school depends on many factors such as school culture, school climate, school size, teacher characteristics, location, etc. (Yaşar, 2005).

According to Nooderhaven (1992), as organizational trust represents trust in organizational identity, it stems from culture of the organization mostly. In addition to this, Mishra and Morrissey (1990) claims that organization trust functions as a basis for all vertical and horizontal relations within a school. Based on these premises, school culture could be claimed as one of most influential predictors of trust in school (Bruhn, 2002; Louis, 2006). Bryk and Schneider's (2003) study indicates that principals are another predictors of trust in culture, which implies that their respect and regard for teachers, competence and integrity are highly related to level of trust among all stakeholders of school. Another study conducted by Bryk and Schneider (2002) finds out that at school where 350 or less students are taught, trust among colleagues is higher and this situation contributes to trust atmosphere.

Related literature suggests that trust in organization cannot be ensured in a short-term, on the contrary, it requires long-term effort and devotion. Especially, for teachers who are newly-hired, necessary activities such as meetings or study groups should be conducted (Demircan & Ceylan, 2003).

Hoy and his colleagues (2002) discuss that there are important parties while developing trust-based relationships within a school and they are principals, colleagues and clients-parents and students. They assert that trust in parties mentioned are irrevocable constituents of effective schools. In following sections, trust in principal, trust in colleagues and trust in clients are going to be discussed.

2.2.2.1. Trust in Principal

School principals are at the center of managerial processes within a school. Planning and conducting every single activity related to curriculum and instruction, using resources of the schools effectively and properly, ensuring cooperation, collaboration and coordination within the school are some of the responsibilities of the school principal (Şişman, 2000). Also, they are negotiators among teachers and parents (Kochanek, 2005). While fulfilling

their responsibilities, school principals are expected to follow ethical issues such as honesty, neutrality, justice and responsibility (Taymaz, 2003). In addition to this, they need to be competent and skillful enough that members of the school community should believe that principal will solve the problem (Tschannen-Moran, 2004).

During building and sustaining trust at schools, principals have to perform as leading actors. They need to ensure a trust atmosphere built based on ethical standards which help to realize educational and organizational aims and increase teachers' level of trust in the principal. In such schools, stakeholders are expected to participate more with school events such as decision-making, taking responsibilities, meetings, committees and parent-teacher associations (Buluç, 2008). The study conducted by Tarter et al. (1989) points out that teachers' engagement and commitment are highly correlated with trust in principal and the more teachers trust in their principal, the more they trust in their colleagues, which implies that trust in principal can predict trust in colleagues indirectly.

Supportive leadership behaviors are also highly connected with trust. In her study, Louis (2007) discusses that at schools in which trust is high, collective decision-making, reform initiatives and improvement in student learning are expected to be observed as school members are aware that they will be supported in such actions rather than being refused. Therefore, it could be claimed that leadership is also a key factor in school effectiveness and student achievement (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Forsyth et al., 2011) The study conducted on how teachers perceive leadership behaviors of their principal and how this affects their instruction, Wahlstrom and Seashore-Louis (2008) find out that supportive leadership behaviors and shared leadership affects positively their teaching practice. However, if professional learning community or shared leadership are already present at school, more or less teachers trust in their principals becomes less influential.

2.2.2.2. Trust in Colleagues

Trusting in colleagues is an important component of trust at schools as it essentially identifies quality of relationships among academic staff (Bryk & Schnedier, 2002). Also, Tschannen-Moran (2014) resembles trust in colleagues to "glue" that holds things together and a "lubricant" that reduces friction and encourage collaborative activities among staff.

Tschannen-Moran (2001) puts forwards that teacher collaboration and trust in colleagues are reciprocal processes that depend on each other and contribute to one another. As collaboration requires spending time and energy, sharing knowledge and resources and taking responsibility, it is very unlikely it will occur when one of the parties do not trust the other party (Mattessich & Monsey, 1992).

When teachers have more faith in their colleagues, they are expected to be more productive and collaborative to realize goals of the school (Geist & Hoy, 2004). Therefore, Tschannen-Moran (2001) suggests that faculty trust in colleagues is also predictor of teacher professionalism and collective teacher efficacy. As teacher professionalism requires to work in tandem groups or collaboratively, teachers are expected to respect their professional knowledge and skills and try to improve them to enhance student achievement (Furlong, 2001). Also, collective teacher efficacy, which refers to how teachers perceive efforts of the organization will affect student achievement positively, include mastery and vicarious experiences, social persuasion and affective states (Goddard, Hoy & Hoy, 2000). Studies (Tschannen-Moran et al., 2006) conducted find out that how much teachers trust their colleagues mediates their professionalism and collective efficacy, and therefore, student achievement.

Developing trust-based relationships among colleagues depends on how school principals act in managerial processes. For example, in schools, shared leadership and participative decision-making are employed, teachers are observed that they trust their colleagues and their job satisfaction is higher

(Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000). Trust in clients is another factor that is associated with faculty trust in colleagues. The study conducted by Tschannen-Moran (2001) indicates that teachers tend to work collaboratively when they have common aims with parents and students. In addition to these, in their study conducted on measures and operationalizations which reflect trust conceptualization of employees, Dietz and Den Hartog (2006) conclude that organizational support and justice are important predictors of trust in colleagues and characteristics that makes a trustee trustworthy are competence, benevolence, collectivity and predictability.

2.2.2.3. Trust in Clients

Throughout this study, it was emphasized for several times that the main aim of all educational organizations is student achievement and how teachers and principals should act to enhance student achievement were also mentioned. Another predictor of student achievement is going to be introduced in this section, trust-based relationships among teachers and clients, namely parents and students. In addition to trusting their principals and colleagues, teachers need to be sure that their students will work hard to success and their parents will support them to reach high student achievement rates (Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

Teachers' trusting in clients is reciprocal construct that requires both sides need to believe each other. The study conducted by Goddard and his colleagues (2001) finds a positive relationship between students' eagerness to learn and level of trust between students and teachers. Additionally, the study indicates that whether teachers and parents share the same educational aim is one of the critical factors that determines trustworthiness of both parties. In such schools, parent-teacher associations are expected to function more effectively (Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

Other studies conducted on relationship between academic achievement and trust (Goddard et al., 2009; Hoy, 2008; Lee, 2007) also confirm that in schools

ensuring trust-based relationships between teachers and clients, higher student achievement, academic optimism and efficacy culture are observed. Based on these findings, it could be claimed that trust in clients is one of the predictors of student achievement and school effectiveness.

To ensure trust in clients, school principals need to act as negotiators between two parties and they need to introduce aims of the school to students and parents and organize meetings and provide environments families and teachers can communicate and identify common behavior and attitude (Buluç, 2008).

2.2.2.4. Distrust in Educational Organizations

Like trust, distrust is also a difficult construct to be defined. While Schoorman and his colleagues (2007) examine trust and distrust as two opposite parts of the whole and therefore define distrust as absence or scarce of trust, Lewicki and his colleagues (1998) examine trust and distrust as separate but related concepts and define distrust as under expecting for acts of the other side. Studies (Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Mayer et al., 1995) conducted on predictors of distrust in organization conclude that absence of predictors of trust, such as competency, honesty, openness, etc. cause distrust. In addition to them, how stakeholders perceive justice in their organization may result in distrust, too (Colquitt et al., 2001). In their meta-analysis study, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) list relational justice, principal support, organizational rewards and positive working atmosphere are predictors of both trust and distrust in organization.

Culture and organizational culture predict organizational trust and distrust. In their study conducted in different cultural and organizational contexts, Wasti and her colleagues (2013) conclude that cultural and organizational cultural variables differentiate organizational goals, management systems and cooperation. Therefore, organizational trust and distrust depends on how employees perceive organizational culture.

Like any other organizations, members of educational institutions may experience distrust for several reasons such as governmental policies, scarce resources and reform implementations (Peterson, 2008). In addition to these, manners of school principals while applying rules and regulations may cause distrust (Fox, 1974). No matter what is the reason, distrust in educational organizations hinders achievements of schools to a great extent. In their study, Kramer and Cook (2004) find out that teachers and students have lower levels of commitment and loyalty, which results in higher levels of dishonesty and cheating. Also, in her study examining communication at schools where school members experience distrust, Tschannen-Moran (2004) points out that lower levels of faculty trust may lead to miscommunication, which causes suspicion and gossip among members of the school.

2.3. Teacher Professional Development

In this section, firstly, teacher professionalism is going to be discussed to clarify that what is aimed with professional development. Then, teacher professional development process, its predictors and components, professional development models and teachers professional development in Turkey are going to be presented.

2.3.1. Teacher Professionalism

The main purpose of educational systems is to raise qualified individuals for benefit of the countries. To achieve this aim, each educational system is organized according to what is desired in a certain country based on philosophy and politics (Karagözoğlu, 2003). As one of basic social institutions, school are the leading organizations for other social processes and therefore, teachers are key actors of this phenomena (Balcı, 2007). Parallel to this, Seashore Louis (2007) suggests that teachers are at the center of educational systems and if educational systems are desired to be improved, then teachers are change agents who can realize this aim.

Cerit (2013) defines professionalism as the multi-dimensional construct including individuals' efforts and attitudes to be more successful in their jobs or to increase quality of their services, which indicates that professionalism is closely related to productivity, quality and attitudes towards to the job (Boyt et al., 2001; Calgren, 1999). Parallel to this statement, teacher professionalism is defined as teachers' continuous efforts of inquiry and development to improve quality of instructional processes. Day (1999) proposes that quality in instruction is the indicator of teacher professionalism. Also, Demirkasımoğlu (2010) highlights importance teacher professionalism for school effectiveness as it focuses on increasing student achievement.

Day (2000) proposes that teacher professionalism is highly connected with content knowledge, acting according to job ethics, spend effort to fulfill needs of stakeholders, higher levels of commitment being autonomous while satisfying vocational requirements. In addition to this, Kincheloe (2004) puts forward that professional teachers can identify their professional needs and develop strategies to fulfill them and offer more quality instruction. Sachs (1999) points out that professionalism enables teachers to perceive themselves as an active representative of their jobs. In that way, they can go through a life-long learning process, work collaboratively with internal and external stakeholders of the school to realize common aims by developing a common language related to educational and instructional processes. When all of the premises above are taken into consideration together, it could be concluded that collaboration, effective communication, professional learning, commitment and collegial support could be counted as dynamics of teacher professionalism (Koşar, 2015; cited in Tschannen-Moran, Parish & DiPaola, 2006).

In a world full of change and uncertainty, meaning or content of teaching profession and professionalism has become flu. Both educational systems and teachers are confronted with contradictory demands. Day (2007) claims that teachers are expected to present higher commitment to their students, to be life-long learners, to prepare students for life rather than just presenting theoretical

knowledge or providing vocational training, to be sensitive for environmental and social issues, to work collaboratively with their colleagues. However, at the same time, there are increasing inequalities between schooling standards of students, new problems with student absenteeism, especially adolescents, influence of media and social conditions, child abuse and employment and an increasing gap between working conditions of teachers, which all make teaching profession harder to handle.

Sachs (2009) put forwards "five core values" that stand for basic principles of teaching professionalism; learning, participation, collaboration, co-operation and activism. In this respect, teachers should continue to learn individually or with their colleagues, they should act as active agents of educational systems, they need to work in teams composed of both internal and external stakeholders of schools, they are expected to develop a common understanding or a professional culture which allows them to discuss and improve their teaching practices and they are to be active participants of educational and schooling processes.

2.3.2. Teacher Professional Development

Teachers are at the center of all educational and instructional processes, so, their skills and needs cannot be ignored to ensure quality in educational systems (OECD, 1989). Barth (1990) proposes that personal and professional development of teachers has the highest impact on students' academic achievement, self-esteem or classroom behaviors. When it comes to the conceptual meaning of professional development, Day (1997) defines it as unaided learning from experience thanks to which most teachers acquire knowledge of surviving, becoming competent and developing both classrooms and schools with the help of learning opportunities such as in-service education and training activities generated internally and externally. Lindstrom and Speck (2004) highlights its life-long learning dimension and state that professional

development continues life-long and includes collaborative learning through which growth of individuals, teams and schools nourish.

Garet and his colleagues (2001) classify professional development into two sub-groups, which are traditional and reform type. Traditional professional development refers to activities such as workshops, seminars, courses, conferences which are organized during school time while reform type professional development refers to professional development efforts such as study groups, mentoring, coaching, committees, peer observation, internship or resource centers which go along with the classroom practice. Although traditional version of professional development is very common and directed by the Ministry of National Education in Turkey, most of the time, it is observed that they are insufficient in terms of providing necessary knowledge and experience for teachers to increase their skills. When it comes to reform type professional development activities, they are more efficient to fulfill needs of teachers because they are organized by schools or institutions based on current status of teachers including their needs, abilities, practices and resources. In addition to these, reform type professional development provides more participation and permanent learning as they are pursued with classroom practice.

Change in any area, knowledge, facts, standards, technology, and even philosophy, etc., is inevitable including education, itself. Keeping up with constantly changing situations and educational systems has become a requirement for educators, which is a complex and demanding process (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992). An alternative way to adapting educational settings for educators, who are life-long learners, is professional development. As mentioned above, teachers are core of education and educational leaders who seek for more quality in teaching and learning should support their staff to develop themselves. However, the issue of supporting teachers and creating opportunities for them is questionable because professional developments needs varies according to circumstance, personal and professional histories and

current dispositions (Day, 1997) and determination or being aware of all these requires expertise and background knowledge on related context (Lindstrom and Speck, 2004). Ensuring equality and quality at the every stage of instructional processes for all students means continuous improvement in teaching skills for teacher, which means professional development is not a choice to improve instruction and to be able to provide this, the school principal has a critical leadership role (Hurst and Reding, 2009).

Professional development may occur in many ways and in the following section professional development models are going to be introduced.

2.3.3. Teacher Professional Development in Turkish Context

In Turkey, teacher professional development activities have been directed by MoNE since 1960. Every year, MoNE saves a certain amount of budget for planning and conducting professional development process of teachers. As it is defined by regulations of MoNE, teachers need to develop their instructional skills as nature of the teaching profession.

In Turkey, professional development activities are mainly centralized and individually guided. Teachers who are in need of development are expected to attend seminars or conferences held by MoNE in different provinces. Also, if they want to improve their skills on some issues such project development, smart board usage, computer-based instruction, etc., they apply some courses offered by Professional Development Institutes in several provinces. These implementations could be considered as the indicator of that professional development policies or efforts in Turkey are based on individually-guided professional development model.

The process is planned by MoNE In-Service Training Directorate and conducted by Governorships. Accordingly, teachers working at primary schools have to attend to seminars held at their schools three times in a year obligatorily. Attendance to other activities apart from seminars depends on teachers' choice.

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2.3.4. Professional Development Models

Although professional development activities are conducted through seminars or conferences mostly in Turkey, there are several other professional development models which are developed for teachers (Guskey, 2000; Sparks & Loucks-Horsley, 2007). Based on needs and resources, the appropriate professional development model should be preferred, so, it could not claimed that one model is better than the other.

Individually-Guided Staff Development. It is based on the perception that adults who plan and conduct their own professional development process will be more attentive and autonomous. Teachers identify their own capabilities and incapabilities, they attend related activities and evaluate their learning process, again, on their own.

Observation/Assessment. In this model, teachers are observed and assessed based on their performance in classroom. The process consists of three steps; meeting before observation, observation, meeting after observation and assessing the process.

Involvement in a Development/Improvement Process. This model is based on the assumption that adults learn best when there is a gap or requirement. So, teachers' involvement during various processes such as curriculum development, planning instruction contributes to their learning.

Training. It is the most common traditional way of professional development. Teachers are trained through seminars and courses on the fields they need to develop themselves

Inquiry. Teacher conduct inquires related to problems they encounter during instruction. These inquires could be conducted to fulfill experience or knowledge gap.

2.3.5. Effective Professional Development Process

The central components of educational reconstruction are "high standards, curriculum framework and new approaches to assessment attributed to those standards" and all of these components create newer expectations from students, including increased classroom performance and student achievement. It is observed that pre-service teachers are not prepared well to fulfill these standards. Many prospective teachers are taught to utilize several teaching techniques and they lack deeper understanding of content knowledge. It is the common saying that "teaching is no exception" and they need to shift to a more balanced instruction in terms of pedagogy, content and pedagogical content knowledge. To manage this, teachers are expected to be experts of the content they teach, to be able to deliver basic knowledge and to develop advanced thinking and problem solving skills of all students (Garet et al., 2001).

When main purpose of all professional development process is taken into consideration, it is clear that higher student achievement is the basic motivation source and professional development is considered critical and necessary to pursue effective teaching practices and to acquire a deeper content and pedagogical content knowledge. There are many studies conducted to determine basics of effective professional development (Garet et al., 2001; Hiebert, 1999; Loucks-Horsley et al., 1998) and common high-quality features of effective professional development process and these characteristics could be listed as;

•   comprehensive learning opportunities in which teachers are expected to be active

•   setting up high standards

•   participative decision-making

•   duration as needed

•   collaboration and collectivisim.

According to Hiebert (1999), to continue an effective teacher learning, professional development activities must have several basic features. These features could be listed as continous collaboration with clear and common goal of increasing student achievement focused on students' thinking, curriculum and pedagogy by providing opportunities to create alternative ways to develop both individually and at the organization level.

There are several studies conducted to determine importance of some features of professional development. Some of them revealed that intensity and duration of professional development is highly associated with quality of teacher change (Shields, Marsh, & Adelman, 1998; Ridgway, & Bond, 1998; Weiss, Montgomery,) while some of them indicated that professional development based on content knowledge, which are aimed to improve students' conceptual knowledge, are more effective than professional development based on general pedagogy (Cohen & Hill, 2002; Fennama et al., 1996). In their study, Desimore, Porter, Garet, Yoon and Birman (2002) tried to determine "structural features" of high-quality professional development and their findings indicated that how it is organized, how long it takes, how it is conducted, how it is delivered and what is delivered should be main questions to ask while designing professional development activities. Therefore, type, duration, collective participation, active learning, coherence and content focus with respect to professional development need should be elaborated carefully. Results of their study revealed that these six structural features are positively related with efficiency of professional development and unless teachers experience high-quality professional development, teacher change would not happen. Their findings also indicated that typical professional development offered by schools or the government does not have high quality and this creates a great variation in professional development experiences. Teacher should follow professional development that reallocated resources and combined funding and coherent professional development strategies otherwise programs offered would not be sustained. Another important finding revealed by the study is that professional development and teaching practices vary from

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teacher to teacher, not from school to school, which means that schools, indirectly school principals, are unable to provide a coherent and coordinated approach to professional development and instruction. Participation, that is proposed to be one of the structural features of effective professional development, is another indicator of success; participating in professional development is up to teachers most of the time and their regular and willing participation will increase their success. However, it should be noted that professional development is not the sole solution to get rid of variation between school as teachers choose to develop or not to develop themselves. So, a provisioned policy on professional development determined by school staff does not guarantee increased student achievement unless teachers are voluntary to pursue professional development activities such as in-service trainings, a study group, teacher networks, mentoring, internship, action research, workshops, conferences, etc.

2.3.6. Professional Development and Teacher Attitudes

In addition to factors that make professional development process more effective, Torff and Sessions (2008) claim that success of professional development efforts also depends on characteristics features of the teachers and one of them is their attitude. They state that among design features of the process, teachers' attitudes towards professional development stands for the factor that explains most of the variance of effectiveness. So, in this section relationship between teacher attitudes and professional development is going to be examined. Attitude is defined as concluding favorable or unfavorable for something or someone after an evaluation process (Myers, 2008). Donerlson (2008) and Wilkins (2008) claim that teachers attitudes could be positive and strong and they impact of teachers' instructional practices. When teachers have more positive attitudes for instructional practices, they are expected to utilize it more often. Similarly, if teachers observe positive results with their implementations, they tend to have more positive attitudes towards them (Guskey, 2002; Knight, 2009).

One of the earliest studies examining relationships between teacher attitudes and professional development was conducted by Brimm and Tollett (1974). In their study, they tried to identify teachers' attitudes towards in-service programs in Tennessee. Teachers participating within the study express that they should be allowed to choose what kind of professional development activity they were going to engage in and most of the topics presented in the program were not relevant. So, they concluded that professional activities should address some individual needs and should be planned school-based and develop "team-spirit".

On the other side, there are also studies (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009; Guskey, 2000; Singh & Shifflette, 1996) that put forward that even if effective professional development is crucial for teacher success, most of the teachers do not experience such a learning process and feel that they waste their time, so, they develop negative attitudes towards professional development. Torff, Sessions, and Byrnes (2005) developed an instrument, Teachers' Attitudes about Professional Development (TAP) scale, which examines teachers' professional development attitudes. The statements taking place in the scale are designed to collect data from larger samples and populations. Detailed description of the scale is mentioned in the Chapter 3.

The Teachers' Attitudes about Professional Development (TAP) instrument was applied in many studies. In the study conducted by Torff, Sessions, and Byrnes (2005), the findings reveal that experience is the most significant predictor of professional development attitudes. Especially, newly-assigned teachers have more positive attitudes towards professional development while teachers with experience more than 3 years. However, another study conducted by Spencer-Chapman (2008) finds out that teacher with more experience have a clearer point of view related to professional development. Also, finding of the study of Torff, Sessions, and Byrnes (2005) indicate that attitudes are decreasing gradually. Also, teachers working at elementary schools are more

motivated than teachers working at secondary schools. Lastly, there is no significant difference in terms of gender and educational status of teachers.

Another goal of professional development efforts is to improve the overall attitudes of teachers (Guskey, 2000; Sparks & Loucks-Horsley, 1989) because teachers' attitudes could impact what is going on in the classroom (Donerlson, 2008; Wilkins, 2008). Findings of the study conducted by Wilkins (2008) indicates that how much teachers are trained on some course makes no difference in terms of instructional quality, however, it is indirectly related to attitudes of teachers. The study also showed that roots of attitudes of teachers are norms and values of school and school culture.

Knight (2009) suggests that attitudes towards professional development improve when teachers implement what they have learned successfully and observe increase in student achievement depending on new implementation. Parallel to this, Guskey (2002) claims that attitudes of teachers improve immediately after improvement in student achievement. These findings lead to a professional development model that starts and concludes in the classroom, which means starting with teachers' and students' instructional needs and concluding in student achievement.

Another study examining attitudes toward professional development of teachers professional learning teams by Gwin (2008) indicate that engaging in professional learning communities fosters teachers' attitudes and improve their professional learning. He asserts that teachers have more positive attitudes towards professional development professional learning communities because what teachers learn is determined among their needs and directly related to classroom practice. Also, such communities increase teacher collegiality and collaboration, they are directly associated with classroom practices and daily work of teachers and they improve quality of relationships among teachers are among other findings of the study.

2.3.7. School Principal as Professional Development Leader

Teacher knowledge and continuous professional development are the most influential factors that increase student achievement (Darling-Hammond, 1997). There is great variability between classrooms within a school and school principals are required to provide necessary support to address this variability so they must have a comprehensive conceptualisation of how to improve teaching and learning (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992)

To ensure the vision of increased quality in education for each student, school principals must have a sophisticated comprehension and necessary skills to guide and direct professional development plans of teachers in their schools. Researchers focusing on professional development consider it as the "key leverage point" as it for provides a basis for improving educational practices happening at schools (Lindstrom & Speck, 2004). School improvement is expected to be observed when a school develops a professional learning community that focuses on student achievement, high standards, student's skill development and improving teaching and learning processes. According to Fullan (1999), for a successful school improvement plan, all stakeholders within the school consider professional development of teachers as "a cornerstone strategy".

According to Garet and his colleagues (2009), school could create their own way of professional development with the help of a mentor, or school principal, for all teacher and these models could be listed as peer observation and coaching, local study groups and networks for developing teaching within specific subject matter areas, teacher academies that offer continuous seminars and courses related to classroom practice, partnerships that foster collaborative or action research, visiting other schools and other learning opportunities that enable all members of schools, including teachers and principals.

When it comes to how schools should manage the professional development process of teacher, Lindstrom and Speck (2004) puts forwards a model named

"principal as professional development leader". According to this model, firstly, school principals need develop a clear understanding on increasing students' learning and skill development. To realize this aim, ongoing professional learning efforts within the school creates "the context, process and content" that ensures improvement in teachers' instructional skills and school culture. Principals should be able to question themselves with intended questions to direct their thinking and responses that help professional developments going on. The school learning community, through shared leadership and ownership with the principal, sets the direction and carries out the professional development work. In this model, as well as being aware of the needs and setting the goals to reach, school principals have other responsibilities such as building the capacity of the professional learning community, developing focus, plans and resources, taking action and evaluating results.

According to the study conducted by Karamahmutoğlu (2014) to figure out how school principals contribute to professional development efforts of teachers, it was observed that school principals;

• support teachers to accomplish their goals,

• support teachers to utilize modern instructional strategies,

• accommodate change and aim to change,

• are aware of requirement of self-development,

• lead life-long learning,

• inform teachers about professional development activities,

• organize professional development activities within the school.

Another study conducted by İnceler (2005) to search for leadership behaviors of school principals directed to professional development of teachers revealed

that school principals often present professional development leader behaviors stated as

- building an environment stimulating professional development

- sparing time for professional development activities

- informing teachers about professional development activities

- organizing in-service trainings and

- providing resources for professional development.

In addition to professional leadership behaviors of school principals, teachers claimed that they were more successful to apply what they learn through professional development programs when they were supported by principals and other colleagues.

In her study, Rüzgar (2010) tried to figure out contributions of principals in professional development of teachers and the results of the study showed that principals were effective in providing enough support and resources, organizing professional development activities, being a role-model as a life-long learner, making teachers aware of the professional development programs held by the Ministry of National Education, encouraging teachers to utilize modern instructional strategies and developing a school climate stimulating professional development. She also found that private school principals were more effective while presenting behaviors mentioned above than state school principals but in both of cases, teacher felt more competent while applying their knowledge into classroom practice as they were motivated by the school principals.

Another study conducted by Kraimer and his colleagues (2010) showed that organizational support for development has a critical role for employees' enthusiasm. Another important finding of the study revealed that organizations should consider employees' perceptions before planning career development or training programs as all efforts are addressed to them. Also, there is a positive

relationship between career development theories and success of training programs. When the programs are designed according to basic scientific facts and individual care for each employee, it is unlikely to end up with failure. Implications of this study for educational organizations could be interpreted as that planning and designing professional development and training programs requires both theoretical and practical expertise so teachers could be directed by a supervisor, namely the school principal, in terms of their personal status and needs.

To sum up, professional development of teachers is a must rather than an option to be able to ensure the quality of education at schools. Teachers are not the only ones who are responsible for this improvement, school principals should act as a guide and facilitator during this process.

2.4. Summary of the Literature

We live in an environment where knowledge, facts, standards, technology, and even philosophy are constantly changing. Keeping up with these changes is not a necessity; has become vital for surviving, as it is in educational settings. Dealing with change and adapting it into current education system has become a requirement for educators, which is a complex and demanding process. As it affects the educational systems deeply, ongoing professional development stands for a core element for teachers for the sake of the quality of teaching and education, which makes professional development not a choice but requirement for teachers (Tom, 1997).

There are many other reasons why teachers should continue to develop themselves professionally, and another of the most important ones is ensuring quality of education. Each student, class, school or educational setting, in short, is unique and there is no way to address this uniqueness with certain several instructional methods. So, to ensure quality of instruction and achieve educational and organizational goals, teachers are expected to be life-long learners (Hurst & Reding, 2009).

According to Hargreaves and Fullan (1992), improving educational standards will provide equal and sufficient learning opportunities for each single student and this is what the society expects from educators. Otherwise, students who are taught by teachers underperforming are going to be disadvantaged when they are compared to students who are taught by teachers who develop and adapt themselves. Therefore, improving instruction and school in general contributes to ensure equality in education.

Although teacher professional development is crucial for future of educational systems, studies reveal that teachers do not spend much effort and time to develop their professional skills based on several reasons. The first one of these reasons, they are lack of knowledge and experience related to how they develop professionally and the second one is that they are not willing to try harder because of several reasons, such as current work hours, salary, absence of professional identity and support, etc. In sum, schools and conditions at which they are working affect their professional development directly.

Deal and Kennedy (1982) state that each organization has an organizational culture which creates the organizational identity. So, organizational behavior depends on organizational culture heavily and this situation is valid for educational institutions. This distinctive group or organizational or school culture-for educational settings-which is defined as the whole of values, meanings, beliefs, ideology, norms, expectations, symbols, language and myths that are created or transferred by that group of people (Peters & Waterman, 1982; Moore, 1985; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Şişman, 2007; Çelik, 2012). It identifies common good and organizes subordinates to focus on common goals of the organization, in other words, it is a compass which directs members of the organization. (Balcı, 2002; Deal & Kennedy, 1982). With regard to this, it could be claimed that whether teachers favor professional development and wish to develop their skills depends on culture of school they are currently working at.

As mentioned before, professional development is a complex and demanding process (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992). The issue of supporting teachers and creating opportunities for them is questionable because professional developments needs varies according to circumstance, personal and professional histories and current dispositions (Day, 1997) and determination or being aware of all these requires expertise and background knowledge on related context (Lindstrom and Speck, 2004). Also, Hurst and Reding (2009) claim that school administration and other stakeholders have a critical role to encourage and direct colleagues to continue to develop their skills, therefore, professional development process is the product of a certain group including administrative staff, colleagues, students and parents who desire to realize the common aim, increasing student achievement. Therefore, effective professional development process depends on collegiality, high expectations, support, confidence, appreciation, recognition, involvement in decision making, honest and open communication systems and trust as Saphier and King (2012) propose. In addition to this, Day (2006) proposes that professional development activities should be conducted in groups rather than individually as it requires feedback and reflection. Parallel to this, in the Turkish context, teachers claimed that they cannot continue their professional development process as they are not observed or evaluated after they acquire new skills. They also claim that professional development activities would be more effective when school context is taken into consideration (Bümen et al., 2012).

To set and pursue such relationships and interdependence among themselves, colleagues and school members need to be sure that all members of the group will work for common good and they will not harm the other party, in other words, they need to trust each other. Rotter (1967) puts forward that trust is a crucial component of human learning. Also, Whitener and his colleagues (1989) claims that collegial trust is the core of collective professional development process. Another study conducted by Li and his colleagues (2016) postulates that school atmosphere that builds trustworthy relationships among teachers and administrators, healthy communication and teacher collaboration

stand for essentials of teacher professional development. Also, in their study conducted with 970 teachers in Hong Kong schools, they recommend that school principals need to create school cultures and conditions that enable and motivate teachers to learn. In addition to this study, there are many other studies (Quicke, 2000; Hargreaves, 1994a, 1994b) emphasize importance of trust-based relationships among school stakeholders as it is the way exchanging knowledge and resources to ensure quality and improvement in education (Cook & Friend, 1991, 1995; Ebers, 1997; Tschannen-Moran, 2000). When all of these premises are taken into consideration together, it could be claimed that trust facilitates the association between school culture and professional development attitudes of teachers.

Conclusively, we all live in certain groups which have distinctive characteristics. For educational settings, these characteristics generate school culture. Teachers as members of this structure are expected to develop their instructional skills to ensure quality and equality in education and to keep up with change in every area, however, professional development is a complex and demanding process which requires collaboration, cooperation, collegiality, enthusiasm, expertise and resources, which all depend on trust-worthy relationships among school members.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Within the scope of this study, whether school culture perceptions of teachers predict their professional development attitudes significantly and the role of organizational trust for this relationship is going to be examined. Based on this purpose, in this chapter, design, sample, instruments administered, data collection techniques, data analysis and limitations of the study are going to be discussed.

3.1. Design of the Study

For overall design of the study, firstly, it could be said this study is a quantitative one, inquiring for deduction and employing instruments to collect data and to test hypotheses built at the beginning of the study unlike to qualitative studies which established hypotheses at the end of the study (Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun, 2011).

In this study, identifying relationship between school culture and attitudes towards teacher Professional development, and identifying mediator role of organizational trust comprises the main purpose of the study. Based on this statement, it could be claimed that this is an associational study which examines variables which cannot be manipulated. Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun (2011) suggest that there two main purposes of associational research – either to explain relationships among variables or to predict possible outcomes when the score of one variable is known. As literature suggests, school culture could predict to what extend professional development is favored by teachers, in other words, schools culture is the predictor of attitude towards teacher

professional development. In addition to this, organizational trust, which is defined as the mediator, may contribute to degree or direction of the possible relationship between school culture and attitude toward teacher professional development. So, it is another associational component of the study design. To sum up, this is an associational study which aims to identify degree and direction of possible relationships between organizational culture and attitude towards teacher professional development and organizational trust as a mediator.

3.2. Research Question

This study is based on one main research question, which is

"Does school culture perceptions of teachers predict their attitudes towards professional development?"

and there is one other sub-question:

"Does organizational trust mediate this relationship significantly?".

3.3. Population and Sample Selection

One of the benefits of quantitative research is its applicability for large samples of populations and collecting data from large samples, determined randomly, increases generalizability of results of the study (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2011). Based on this suggestions, firstly, the targeted population of the study is identified as all teachers working at state schools in Turkey. However, as this is a very large population and it is quite difficult to reach each teacher in Turkey. İstanbul province, where the highest number of teachers work, is chosen as a close representative of the whole population. According to İstanbul Directorate of National Education reports (2016), there are 3025 state educational institutions and more than 10,000 teachers are currently working in these institutions. As it is a quite large population, cluster random sampling and two-stage random sampling were employed in the study. At the first stage of sampling, districts in İstanbul where data were going be collected were determined, namely, Fatih, Üsküdar, Bayrampaşa, Esenler and Kartal, which

are the most crowded districts in terms of the number of teachers and central ones. Then, schools to be visited in these districts to collect data were identified randomly. When schools were visited, as many as possible teachers working in the school were asked to participate randomly within the study.

In total, data were collected from 664 teachers at 71 schools. 23 of these school were primary; 22 of them were secondary and 26 of them were high schools. 217 of the participants were working at primary schools; 205 of them were working at secondary schools and 242 of them were working at high schools.

3.4. Data Collection Instruments

To collect data, three data collection instruments are employed in this study in addition to demographic characteristics and professional development activities questionnaires. Demographic characteristics questionnaire was designed to gather information related to participants' age, gender, branch, educational status, experience in total and in their present school, school type, union and tenure status. Professional development activities questionnaire was also developed by the researcher to gather information related to why and how participants continue or not to develop themselves professionally.

School Culture Inventory was developed by Gruenert and Valentine (1998) to measure school culture perceptions of teachers working in a certain educational institution and gather information related to organizational behavior, relations, values and assumptions of that school. The scale is composed of 35 items defining six dimensions, which are collaborative leadership, teacher collaboration, unity of purpose, professional development, collegial support and learning partnership and Gruenert and Valentine (1998) reported the internal consistency coefficient of the scale between .65 and .91. It is a 5-Likert-type scale ranging from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree).

Adaptation studies of the scale were conducted by Ayık (2007) by test-retest method and construct validity is examined through factor analyses. Ayık (2007) reported that items were loaded for six factors and factor loadings ranged between .62 and .89. Table 3.2 displays reliability scores of the scale

for adapted version and for this study.

Table 1

Reliability Scores of Factors of Adapted and Observed School Culture Inventory

	Adapted Version		Observed	
Dimensions	Items	α	Items	α
Collaborative Leadership	11	.89	11	.91
Teacher Collaboration	6	.76	6	.83
Unity Of Purpose	5	.78	5	.82
Professional Development	5	.75	5	.87
Collegial Support	4	.67	4	.80
Learning Partnership	4	.62	4	.66

School culture is the independent predictor variable which predicts attitude degree. It is the indicator of how teachers perceive organizational culture in their schools. Also, it is a continuous variable and its level of measurement is interval. It is measured by a 5-point-likert type instrument ranging from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1) and composed of 35 items. The total score reveals the degree of perceived school culture, while sub-scores gathered from its dimensions reveals the degree of each dimension. Six dimensions that compose the scale are defined below.

1. *Collaborative Leadership:* It indicates to what extent school managers set and maintain collaborative relations among stakeholders of school and support them to come up with ideas and novelties and share them, take actions and participate in decision-making process. This dimension is composed of 11 items, so the highest score one could get is 55 and the higher score is, the higher level of collaborative leadership is expected. (.91)

2. *Teacher Collaboration:* This dimension reflects whether teachers engage in actions which improves educational activities going on in

school. These educational activities include planning curriculum and instruction, observing and discussing present teaching methods and trying to improve them. This dimension is composed of 6 items, so the highest score one could get is 30 and the higher score is, the higher level of teacher collaboration is expected. (.83)

3. *Unity of Purpose:* It reveals to what extent teachers work for a shared mission defined by the school administration, and they internalize, promote and perform parallel to this mission. This dimension is composed of 5 items, so the highest score one could get is 25 and the higher score is, the higher level of unity of purpose is expected. (.82)

4. *Professional Development:* It points out the degree to which teacher appreciate professional and school development, and they participate in some professional development events to further their current knowledge and skills. This dimension is composed of 5 items, so the highest score one could get is 25 and the higher score is, the higher level of professional development is expected. (.87)

5. *Collegial Support:* It gives information related to whether teacher work together voluntarily and effectively to achieve organizational goals. This dimension is composed of 4 items, so the highest score one could get is 20 and the higher score is, the higher level of collegial support is expected. (.80).

6. *Learning Partnership:* It indicates whether stakeholders of the school, including staff, students and parents, take common actions for the sake of common good and they have the same expectations in terms of improving current situation of schooling and services. This dimension is composed of 4 items, so the highest score one could get is 20 and the higher score is, the higher level of learning partnership is expected. (.66)

Organizational Trust scale or Omnibus T-scale was originally developed by

Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003) to measure teachers' perceived organizational trust towards their institutions they work for. It is composed of three dimensions, which are Trust in Principals, Trust in Colleagues, and Trust in Clients, namely students and parents. This scale includes 20 items such as " The scale was adapted to Turkish by Özer, Demirtaş, Üstüner and Cömert (2006) through back translation method. The pilot study of adaptation was also conducted to ensure validity and reliability of the scale and exploratory factor analysis was run to check factor loadings of items and confirmatory factor analysis was run to ensure three-factor structure of the scale. Table 3.3 presents reliability scores of the scale for adapted version and for this study.

Table 2

Reliability Scores of the Scale for Adapted Version and Observed Version

	Adapted Version		Observed	
Dimensions	Items	α	Items	α
Trust in Principal	5	.86		.91
Trust in Colleagues	7	.82		.89
Trust in Clients	8	.70		.85

Organizational trust is the mediator variable which indicates the level of perceived organizational trust of teacher for their schools. It is a continuous variable and its level of measurement is interval. It is measured by a 5-point-likert type instrument ranging from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1) and composed of 20 items. The total score reveals the degree of perceived organizational trust, while sub-scores gathered from its dimensions reveals the degree of each dimension. The highest score which could be obtained is 100 and higher scores are associated with higher levels of organizational trust. Three dimensions that compose the scale are defined below.

1. *Trust in Principal:* This dimension indicated to what extent participants trust their principal's words and actions. It is composed of 5 items, so the highest score one could get is 25 and the higher score is, the higher level of trust in colleagues is expected.

2. *Trust in Colleagues:* This dimension puts forward the level participants trust their colleagues working in the same school. It is composed of 7 items, so the highest score one could get is 35 and the higher score is, the higher level of trust in colleagues is expected.

3. *Trust in Clients:* This dimension shows the level participants and other participants working they work with trust their clients, namely students and parents. It is composed of 8 items, so the highest score one could get is 40 and the higher score is, the higher level of trust in clients is expected.

Teachers' Attitudes About Professional Development (TAP) scale was developed by Torff, Sessions and Byrnes (2005) to assess teachers' attitudes towards professional development activities. The scale has one-factor structure including 6 items. It is a continuous variable and its level of measurement is interval. It is measured by a 5-point-likert type instrument ranging from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1) and composed of 6 items, which comprises the total score, 30. Torff, Sessions and Byrnes reported a high score of reliability and construct validity to ensure utility of the scale.

The scale was adapted through back translation method by Özer and Beycioğlu (2010). Their study indicated that factor loadings range between .43 and .83 while internal consistency coefficient was .78. In addition to that, their study supported one-factor structure of the scale.

Lastly, professional development activities survey composed by researcher is included. With the help of this survey, whether teachers involve in professional development activities, if so, what kind of professional development activities they prefer and who motivate them for professional learning are investigated.

3.5. Data Collection Procedure

Data collection is a progressive process and the first step of this process is to get approval of Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Ethics

Committee. After the Committee approved that this study contains no physical or psychological harm for participants, permission was requested from İstanbul Directorate of National Education to collect data from schools which are directed by Ministry of National Education. The mentioned Directorate allowed conducting the study at every school in İstanbul, which contributed to random sampling.

The data collection instruments explained in the previous section were administered by the researcher. Participants, firstly, were informed about the purpose and content of the study and then they were asked to complete questionnaires. Participants who participated in the study voluntarily signed the consent form and gave permission to their answers to be used only for academic purposes. The data were collected between April and June, 2015 by visiting schools chosen randomly.

3.6. Data Analysis

The main purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between school culture and teachers' attitudes towards professional development. Also, whether organizational trust mediates this relationship is another issue to be examined. So, multiple regression analyses and Sobel test was conducted after ensuring that all assumptions were satisfied. Lastly, structural equation modeling is going to be conducted to investigate possible direct and indirect relationships between latent variables.

To ensure that items included in the scales have satisfied factor loadings and factors composing the scales are loaded, Confirmatory Factor Analysis is conducted. These procedures are run via IBM SPSS 22 and AMOS 18 statistical programs. Lastly, to check whether there is a significant difference observed after analyses, the alpha level is determined .05, which is an appropriate level for social sciences and it provides a lower risk of error (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

In this section, findings obtained from several statistical tests are going to be presented. Firstly, descriptive statistics related to demographic variables and total scores gathered from each scale are going to be summarized and then, results of confirmatory factor analyses run to check validity and reliability of data collection instruments are going to be explained. Based on Baron and Kenny (1986) approach, the main research question of the study is going to be examined and results of several single and multiple linear regressions are going to be reported. Then, hierarchical regression analysis is going to be conducted to examine which sub-dimensions of school culture predicted professional development attitude more. Lastly, structural equation modeling is going to be employed to examine direct and indirect relationships between latent variables.

4.1. Demographic Characteristics of Participants

The sample of the study consists of 664 participants, who are teachers working at state schools. 60.4% (*N*=401) of them are female while 39.6% (*N*=263) of them are male. Age of participants ranges from 22 to 62. 38.9% (*N*=258) of participants who are between the ages 30-39 constitute the largest group in terms of age variable, while the second largest group represents 35.7% (*N*=237). 19% (*N*=126) of the participants who are between the ages of 40 and 49 and 6% (*N*=40) of the participants' ages are between 50 and 59. Only 3 participants are older than 60 and they constitute 3% of the sample.

In terms of educational status, teachers who have bachelor degree make up the largest proportion of the sample, 96.2% (*N*=639) and 3.6% (*N*=24) of the participants have Master's degree while only 1 participant has PhD degree.

The participants working at high schools comprises 36.1 % (*N*=240) of the participants while 33.6 % (*N*=223) of the participants work at primary schools. The rest 30.3% (*N*=201) of the participants work at secondary schools.

In terms of experience, parallel to age variable, participants who have worked for more than 30 years stand for the smallest group, 2.3% (*N*=15), of the sample while participants who have up-to-five-year-experience stand for the largest group, 40.7%(*N*=270), of the sample. Participants who have worked for between 6 and 10 years (*N*=179), participants who have worked for between 11 and 20 years (*N*=167) and participants who have worked for between 21 and 30 years (*N*=33) constitute 27%, 25.2% and 33% of the sample respectively. Participants were also asked how many years they have been working at the school they are currently working for. Majority of the participants, 82.8% (*N*=550), reported that they have been working at the same school for less than 6 years. Participants who have been working at the same school for more than twenty years constitute .06 (*N*=4) of the sample. Participants reported that they have been working for the same school for between 6 and 10 years comprise 11.9% (*N*=79) of the sample, 3% (*N*=20) of the participants reported that they have been working for the same school for between 11 and 15 years and 1.7% (*N*=11) of the rest of the participants reported that they have been working for the same school for between 16 and 20 years.

Participants are also asked whether they are a member of a union. Participants who are a member of a union compose 61.7% (*N*=410) of the sample while 38.3% (*N*=254) of them are not a member of a union. Table 3 presents demographic characteristics of participants.

Table 3

Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Variables	Category	*Frequency*	*Percent (%)*
Gender			
	Female	401	60.4
	Male	263	39.6
Age			
	20-29	237	35.7
	30-39	258	38.9
	40-49	126	19.0
	50-59	40	6.0
	60 >	3	.5
Educational Status			
	PhD	1	.2
	Master's	24	3.6
	Bachelor	639	96.2
School type			
	Primary	223	33.6
	Secondary	201	30.3
	High School	240	36.1
Experience			
	0-5	270	40.7
	6-10	179	27.0
	11-20	167	25.2
	21-30	33	5.0
	31+	15	2.3
Job duration			
	0-5	550	82.8
	6-10	79	11.9
	11-15	20	3.0
	16-20	11	1.7
	21+	4	.6
Union membership			
	Yes	410	61.7
	No	254	38.3

4.2. Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statics related to school culture perceptions, organizational trust levels, attitude scores for professional development and professional development activities are going to be presented in this section.

4.2.1. Descriptive Statistics for School Culture Inventory

Mean scores and standard deviations of dimensions of School Culture Inventory are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Mean and Standard Deviations of Dimensions of School Culture Inventory

Dimensions	M	SD
Collaborative Leadership	3.15	.84
Teacher Collaboration	3.05	.77
Professional Development	3.37	.76
Unity of Purpose	3.38	.82
Collegial Support	3.32	.82
Learning Partnership	3.06	.85
Overall School Culture Perception	3.22	.86

As presented, mean score for overall school culture perception of participants is 3.22 while the standard deviation is .86, which indicates that school culture perception of participants is high and positive (Grunert & Valentine, 1998). Among dimensions of the scale, Unity of Purpose (*M*=3.38, *SD*=.82) has the highest mean score while Teacher Collaboration (*M*=3.05, *SD*=.77) has the lowest mean score. In addition to this, Professional Development (*M*=3.37, *SD*=.76), Collegial Support (*M*=3.32, *SD*=.82), Collaborative Leadership (*M*=3.32, *SD*=.82) and Learning Partnership (*M*=3.06, *SD*=.85) dimensions follow Unity of Purpose dimension respectively.

Participants' school culture perceptions are investigated in terms of demographic characteristics of participants, too. According to these statistics, female participants (M=3.21, SD=.69) have slightly higher mean scores of school culture perceptions than male participants (M=3.19, SD=.71). Mean scores of participants who are 50 or more (M=3.39, SD=.76) have the highest score, while participants who are between 40 and 49 (M=3.30, SD=.73) have the second highest score. There is a slight difference between score of participants who are 20 and 29 (M=3.18, SD=.64) and score of participants who are between 30 and 39 (M=3.14, SD=.71).

Participants who work at primary schools have the highest mean score for school culture perceptions (M=3.35, SD=.71) while participants who work at high schools have the lowest mean score (M=3.03, SD=.69). Mean score of participants who work at secondary schools (M=3.24, SD=.69) is between those two scores.

In terms of experience, score of participants who have experience of 31 years or more have the highest score (M=3.29, SD=.70) while participants who have experience of between 20 and 30 years has the second highest score (M=3.28, SD=.76). Participants who have between 11 and 20 years of experience has the third highest score (M=3.24, SD=.71) and there is a slight difference between score of participants who have between 6 and 10 years of experience (M=3.21, SD=.67) and participants who have up-to-5-year experience (M=3.16, SD=.70). For how many years participants have been working at that school is another important variable for school culture perceptions. In this regard, participants who have been working in the same school for 21 years or more has the highest score (M=3.90, SD=.72), while participants who have been working at the same school for between 16 and 20 years has the second highest score (M=3.56, SD=.60). Participant who have been working at the same school for between 11 and 15 years (M=3.26, SD=.84) follow them and there is a minor difference between scores of participants who have been working at the same school for between 6 and 10 years (M=3.21, SD=.68) and score of participants

who have been working at the same school for less than 5 years (*M*=3.18, *SD*=.69).

Union membership is another variable to be mentioned. There is not a dramatic difference between mean scores of participants who are members of a union (*M*=3.19, *SD*=.71) and who are not (*M*=3.21, *SD*=.68). Table 5 presents descriptive statistics results for participants' school culture perceptions in terms of demographic characteristics.

Table 5
Mean and Standard Deviations in terms of School Culture

Variable		M	SD
Gender			
	Female	3.21	.69
	Male	3.19	.71
Age	20-29	3.18	.64
	30-39	3.14	.71
	40-49	3.30	.73
	50+	3.39	.76
Educational Status			
	PhD	3.25	.
	Master's	3.30	.66
	Bachelor	3.19	.70
School Type			
	Primary	3.35	.71
	Secondary	3.24	.69
	High School	3.03	.69
Experience			
	0-5	3.16	.70
	6-10	3.21	.67
	11-20	3.24	.71
	21-30	3.28	.76
	31+	3.29	.70
Tenure			
	0-5	3.18	.69
	6-10	3.21	.68
	11-15	3.26	.84
	16-20	3.56	.60
	21+	3.90	.72
Union membership			
	Yes	3.19	.71
	No	3.21	.68

4.2.2. Descriptive Statistics for Organizational Trust Level

Mean scores and standard deviations of dimensions of Omnibus-T Scale are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

Mean and Standard Deviations of Dimensions of Organizational Culture

Dimensions	M	SD
Trust in Colleagues	3.14	.75
Trust in Principal	3.26	.67
Trust in Clients	3.33	.70
Trust in Organization	3.24	.72

As seen in Table 6, overall mean score of participants for trust in organization 3.24 and standard deviation is .72, which indicates that participants' level of trust in their organizations is high (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003). When dimensions of the scale are examined, participants trust their clients (*M*=3.33, *SD*=.70) most. In addition to this, their level of trust in principal (*M*=3.26, *SD*=.67) is higher than their level of trust in colleagues (*M*=3.13, *SD*=.75).

In terms of demographic variables, descriptive statistics show that male participants (*M*=3.31, *SD*=.65) have higher mean score than female participants (*M*=3.19, *SD*=.69). In terms of age variable, mean score of participants who are between 40 and 49 (*M*=3.38, *SD*=.67) is the highest and the second highest mean score is of the participants who are 50 or more (*M*=3.36, *SD*=.71). Participants who are 30 and 39 (*M*=3.23, *SD*=.68) and participants who are between 20 and 29 (*M*=3.16, *SD*=.65) followed them respectively.

In terms of educational status, participants who have bachelor degree (*M*=3.36, *SD*=.73) has the highest mean score for organizational trust. However, the number of participants who have Master's (*M*=3.29, *SD*=.68) and PhD

(*M*=3.09, *SD*=nd) degrees are too low to compare the groups in terms of educational status.

Participants who work at primary schools (*M*=3.40, *SD*=.67) have the highest mean score for organizational trust while participants who work at high schools (*M*=3.05, *SD*=.65) have the lowest score of mean. Organizational trust level of participants who work at secondary schools (*M*=3.29, *SD*=.66) is between previous two groups.

In terms of experience, score of participants who have experience between 11 and 20 years have the highest score (*M*=3.38, *SD*=.66) while participants who have 31 years or more experience has the second highest score (*M*=3.33, *SD*=.74). Participants who have 21 and 30 years of experience have the third highest score (*M*= 3.31, *SD*=.75). Participants who have between 6 and 10 years of experience (*M*=3.23, *SD*=.65) follow them and participants who have up-to-5-year experience have the lowest mean score (*M*=3.15, *SD*=.69) in terms of organizational trust. When it comes to duration during which participants have been working at the same school, participants who have been working at the same school for 21 years or more have the highest mean score (*M*=3.81, *SD*=.58), while participants who have been working in the same school for between 16 and 20 years have the second highest mean score (*M*=3.61, *SD*=.32). Participants who have been working at the same school for between 6 and 10 years (*M*=3.37, *SD*=.63), participants who have been working at the same school for between 11 and 15 years (*M*=3.22, *SD*=.75) and participants who have been working at the same school for 5 years or less followed them respectively.

According their union membership, there was a little difference between mean scores of participants who are members of a union (*M*=3.24, *SD*=.67) and who are not (*M*=3.23, *SD*=.68). Results of descriptive statistics in terms of demographic variables are given in Table 7.

Table 7

Mean and Standard Deviations in terms of Organizational Trust

Variable		M	SD
Gender			
	Female	3.20	.69
	Male	3.32	.66
Age			
	20-29	3.16	.66
	30-39	3.23	.69
	40-49	3.38	.68
	50+	3.37	.71
Educational Status			
	PhD	3.09	.
	Masters'	3.29	.68
	Bachelor	3.36	.73
School Type			
	Primary	3.40	.67
	Secondary	3.30	.67
	High School	3.05	.66
Experience			
	0-5	3.15	.69
	6-10	3.23	.65
	11-20	3.39	.66
	21-30	3.32	.75
	31+	3.33	.74
Tenure			
	0-5	3.22	.69
	6-10	3.37	.64
	11-15	3.22	.76
	16-20	3.62	.32
	21+	3.81	.59
Union membership			
	Yes	3.25	.68
	No	3.24	.69

4.2.3. Descriptive Statistics for Teachers' Attitudes about Professional Development (TAP) Scale

Participants' attitude towards professional development is measured with TAP Scale, which has one dimension. Overall mean score for participants' attitudes about professional development is 4.01 and standard deviation .62, which indicates that participants have positive attitudes towards professional development (Torff, Sessions & Brynes, 2005).

In terms of demographic variables, descriptive statistics show that female participants have higher mean score (M=4.12, SD=.69) than male participants (M=3.99, SD=.76). In terms of age variable, participants who are 50 or more have the highest score (M=4.38, SD=.58), while participants who are between 40 and 49 have the second highest mean score (M=4.19, SD=.70). Participants who are 20 and 29 (M=4.04, SD=.73) and participants who are between 30 and 39 (M=3.97, SD=.71) followed them respectively.

In terms of educational status, participants who have bachelor degree has the highest mean score (M=4.50, SD=.71) for professional development attitude. However, the number of participants who have Master's (M=4.14, SD=.76) and PhD (M=4.06, SD=nd) degrees are too low to compare the groups in terms of educational status.

Participants who work at primary schools have the highest mean score (M=4.17, SD=.66) for professional development attitude while participants who work at high schools have the lowest score of mean (M=3.97, SD=.75). Organizational trust level of participants who work at secondary schools (M=4.07, SD=.72) is between previous two groups.

In terms of experience, score of participants who have experience of 21 and 30 years have the highest score (M=4.38, SD=.54) while participants who have experience of 31 years or more has the second highest score (M=4.20, SD=.62). Participants who have experience of 11 and 20 years have the third highest score (M=4.09, SD=.76). Participants who have up-to-5-year experience

(*M*=4.05, *SD*=.72) follow them and participants who have between 6 and 10 years of experience have the lowest mean score (*M*=3.99, *SD*=.70) in terms of professional development attitude. When it comes to duration during which participants have been working at the same school, participants who have been working at the same school for between 16 and 20 years have the highest mean score (*M*=4.42, *SD*=.54), while participants who have been working in the same school for between 11 and 15 years have the second highest mean score (*M*=4.30, *SD*=.67). Participants who have been working at the same school for between 6 and 10 years (*M*=4.18, *SD*=.68), participants who have been working at the same school for 5 years or less (*M*=4.03, *SD*=.72) and participants who have been working at the same school for 21 years or more (*M*=3.92, *SD*=.73) followed them respectively.

According their union membership, there was a little difference between mean scores of participants who are members of a union (*M*=4.05, *SD*=.72) and who are not (*M*=4.10, *SD*=.70). Results of descriptive statistics in terms of demographic variables are given in Table 8.

Table 8

Mean and Standard Deviations in terms of Professional Development Attitude

Variable		M	SD
Gender			
	Female	4.12	.69
	Male	3.99	.76
Age			
	20-29	4.04	.73
	30-39	3.97	.71
	40-49	4.19	.70
	50+	4.38	.58
Educational Status			
	PhD	4.5	.
	Master's	4.14	.76
	Bachelor	4.06	.71
School Type			
	Primary	4.17	.66
	Secondary	4.07	.72
	High School	3.97	.75
Experience			
	0-5	4.05	.72
	6-10	3.99	.70
	11-20	4.09	.76
	21-30	4.38	.54
	31+	4.20	.62
Tenure			
	0-5	4.03	.72
	6-10	4.18	.68
	11-15	4.30	.67
	16-20	4.42	.54
	21+	3.92	.73
Union membership			
	Yes	4.05	.72
	No	4.10	.70

4.2.4. Descriptive Statistics for Professional Development Activity Survey

In addition to their attitudes towards professional development, participants are also asked about professional development activities.

Firstly, they were asked whether they continued to develop themselves professionally; 494 of participants answered "yes", while 170 of them answered "no". Figure 1 displays their answers in a bar chart.
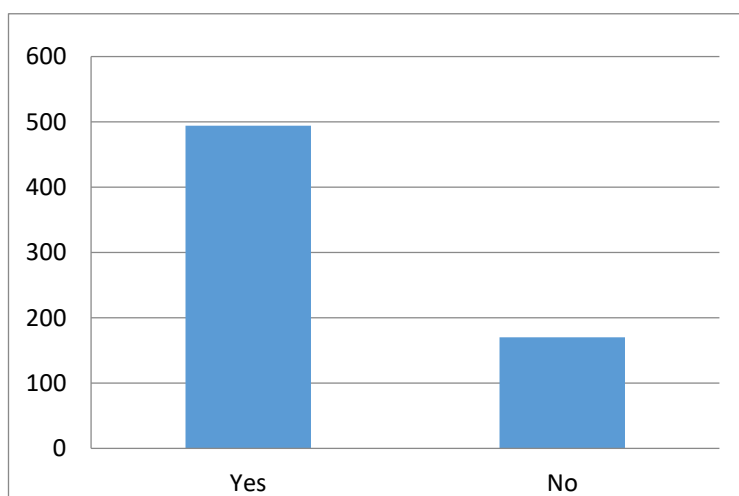
Figure 1. Bar Chart Presenting Participations' Professional Development Attainment.

For participants who answered "yes" for the first question, the second question was about sources of motivation for professional development. 334 of them reported that they continue to develop themselves because they need this, 107 of them were motivated by their principals while 47 of them were motivated by their colleagues. Another option was obligation proposed by the regulations of MoNE. 115 of them reported that they attended professional development activities because they had to. Figure 2 displays participants' sources of motivation for professional development.
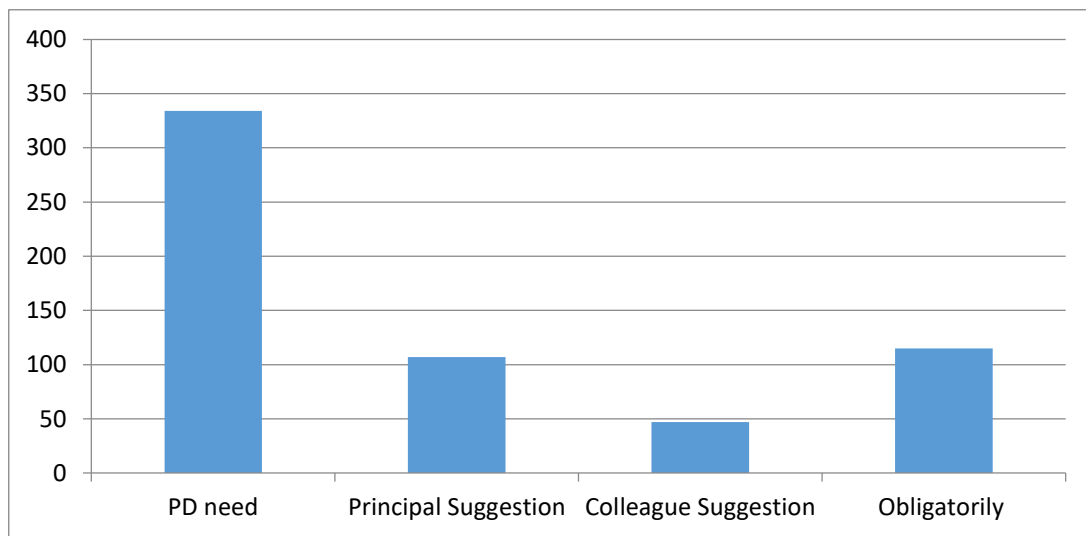
Figure 2. Bar Chart Presenting Participants' Sources of Motivation for Professional Development.

Lastly, participants, who favor professional development, were asked what kind of professional development activities they conduct. 379 of the participants report that they attend various seminars; 254 of the participants reported they follow a journal or proceedings; 240 of them reported they prefer researching with their branch and 241 of them reported that they attend certain courses to increase their instructional skills. In addition to this, 151 of the participants observe their colleagues while 90 of the participants claim that they conduct action research to develop their professional skills. 48 of the participants report that they attend some workshops and 50 of them claim that they attend internship programs to develop their skills and content knowledge. 13 of the participants claim that they conduct other types of professional development activities but they did not mention what it was. Figure 3 presents participants' professional development activity choices.
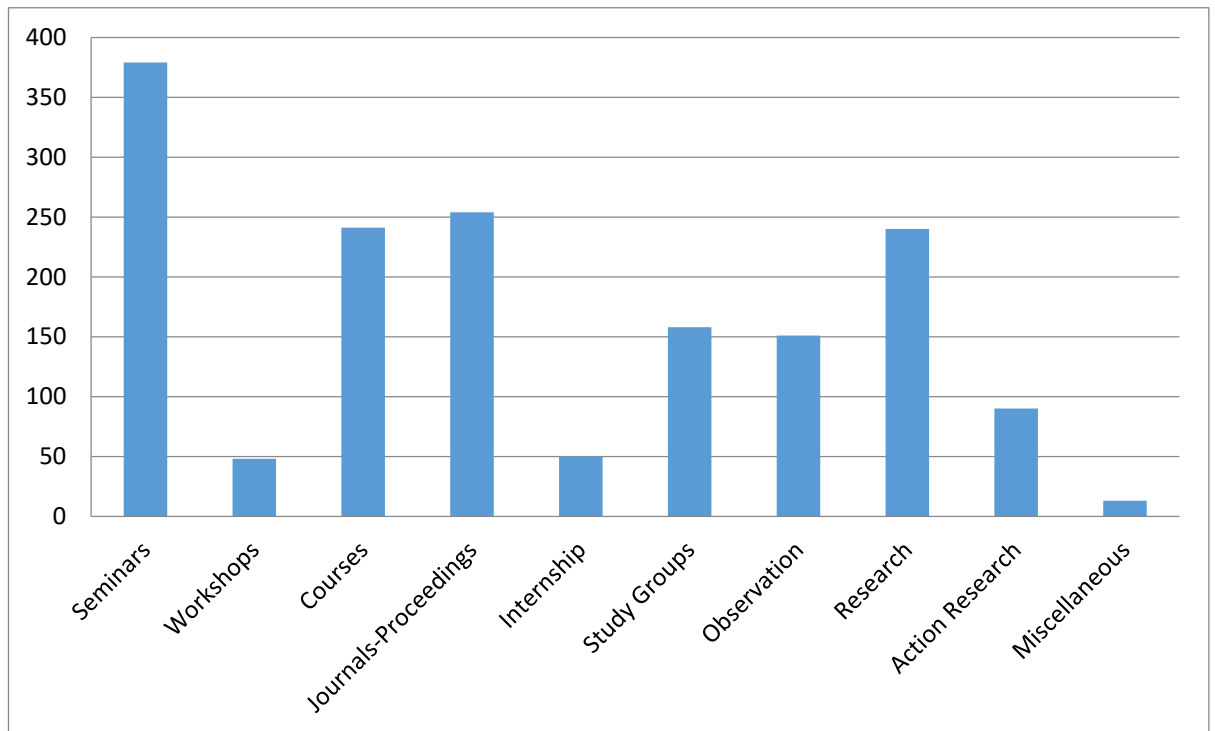
Figure 3. Participants' professional development activity choices.

4.3. Confirmatory Factor Analyses

In this section, results of confirmatory factor analyses conducted to check reliability and validity of each scale.

4.3.1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for School Culture Inventory

To test six-factor structure and to ensure content validity of School Culture Inventory, confirmatory factor analysis was run. Results of the analysis indicated significant chi-square value (x^2=1906.77, *p*=.00) with the comparative fit index (CFI) .89, non-normed fit index (NNFI) .861 and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was .06, which concluded a poor model fit. To increase model likelihood, modification indices were visited and higher error covariances (ε5- ε6, ε5- ε9, ε29- ε30) were detected and they were related. The result of the second analysis indicated better results presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Basic Model of School Culture Inventory

	CMIN/DF	CFI	NNFI	RMSEA
Basic Model	2.654	.93	.916	.055

Overall CFA analyses for School Culture Inventory concluded that items were loaded for the related factors significantly. Figure 4 presents six-factor CFA model of school culture with the standardized estimates.
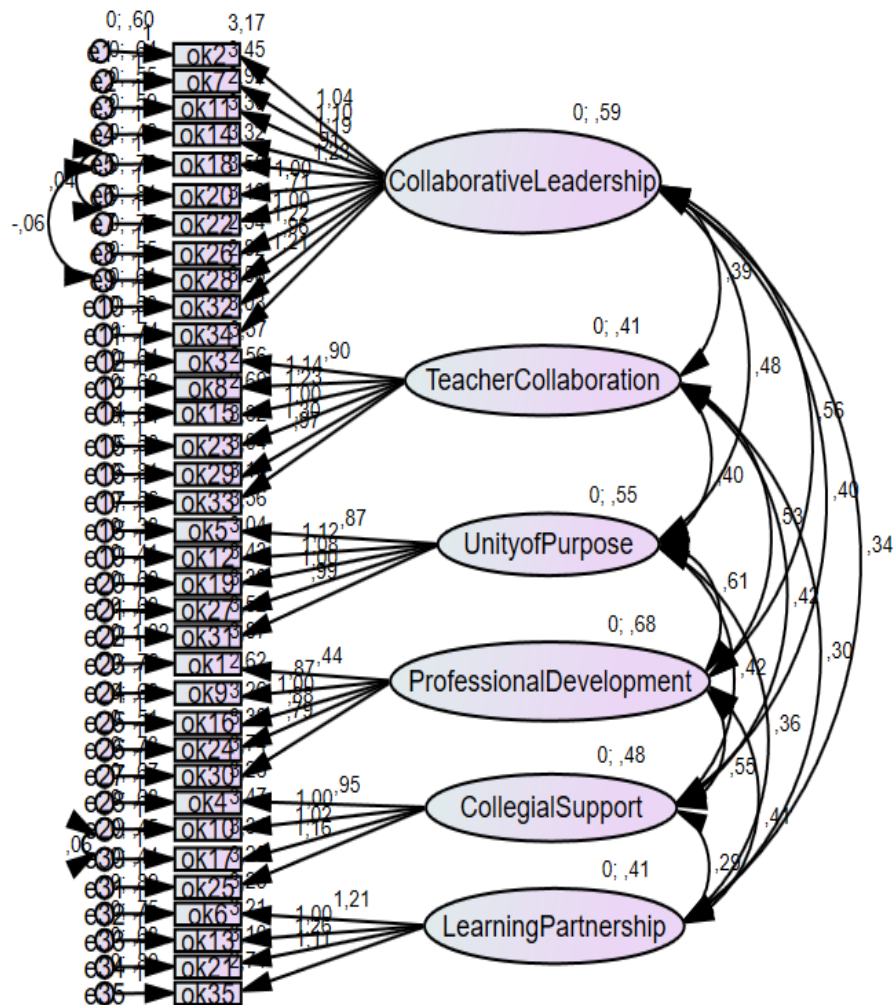
Figure 4. Six-Factor CFA Model of School Culture Inventory with Standardized Estimates.

4.3.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Omnibus-T Scale

To test three-factor structure and to ensure content validity of Omnibus-T Scale, confirmatory factor analysis was run. Results of the analysis indicated significant chi-square value (x^2=2016.77, p=.00) with the comparative fit index (CFI) .84, non-normed fit index (NNFI) .82 and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was .07, which concluded a poor model fit. To increase model likelihood, modification indices were visited and higher error covariances (ε1- ε2, ε1- ε5, ε3- ε4, ε3- ε5, ε4- ε5, ε10- ε12 , ε16- ε17, ε16- ε18, ε17- ε18, ε19- ε20) were detected and they were related. The result of the second analysis indicated better results presented in Table 10.

Table 10

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Basic Model of Omnibus-T Scale

	CMIN/DF	CFI	NNFI	RMSEA
Basic Model	2.241	.96	.958	.042

Overall CFA analyses for Omnibus-T Scale concluded that items were loaded for the related factors significantly. Figure 5 presents three-factor CFA model of school culture with the standardized estimates.
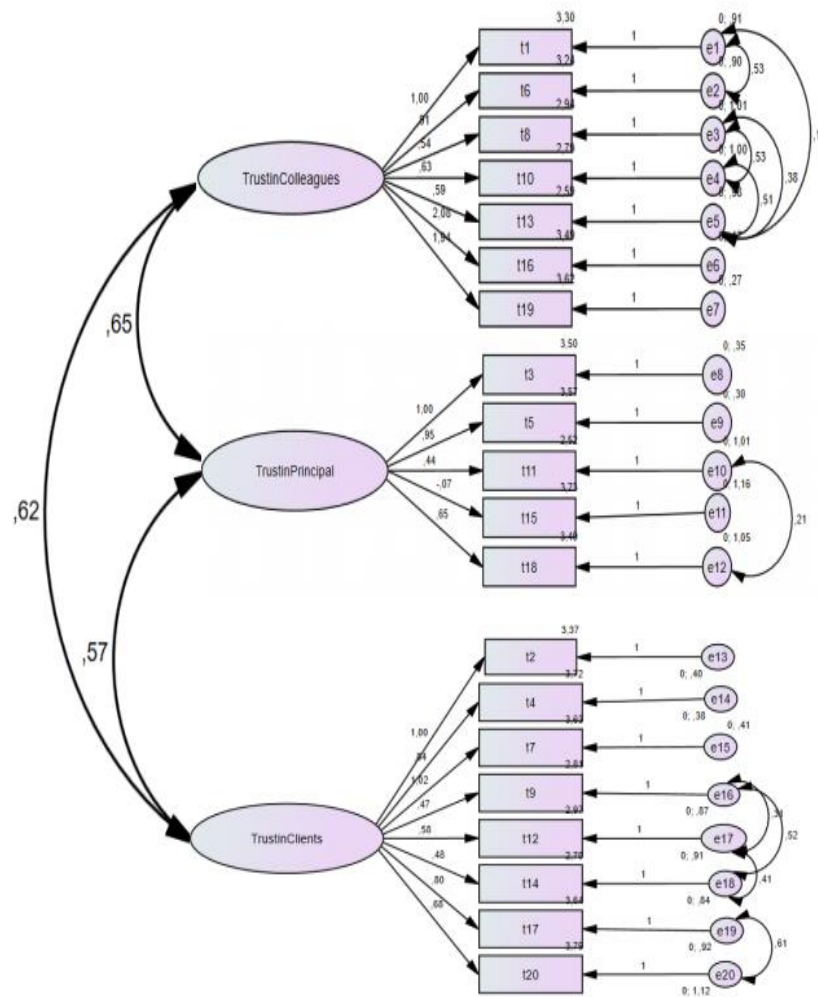
Figure 5. Three-Factor CFA Model of Omnibus-T Scale with Standardized Estimates.

4.3.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for TAPP Scale

To test one-factor structure and to ensure content validity of TAP Scale, confirmatory factor analysis was run. Results of the analysis indicated significant chi-square value (x^2=2016.77, *p*=.00) with the comparative fit index (CFI) .84, non-normed fit index (NNFI) .82 and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was .07, which concluded a poor model fit. To increase model likelihood, modification indices were visited and higher error

covariances (ε1- ε6, ε4- ε5, ε4- ε6) were detected and they were related. The result of the second analysis indicated better results presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Basic Model of TAP Scale

	CMIN/DF	CFI	NNFI	RMSEA
Basic Model	2.341	.994	.990	.045

Overall CFA analyses for TAP Scale concluded that items were loaded for the related factors significantly. Figure 6 presents one-factor CFA model of the scale assessing professional development attitudes with the standardized estimates.
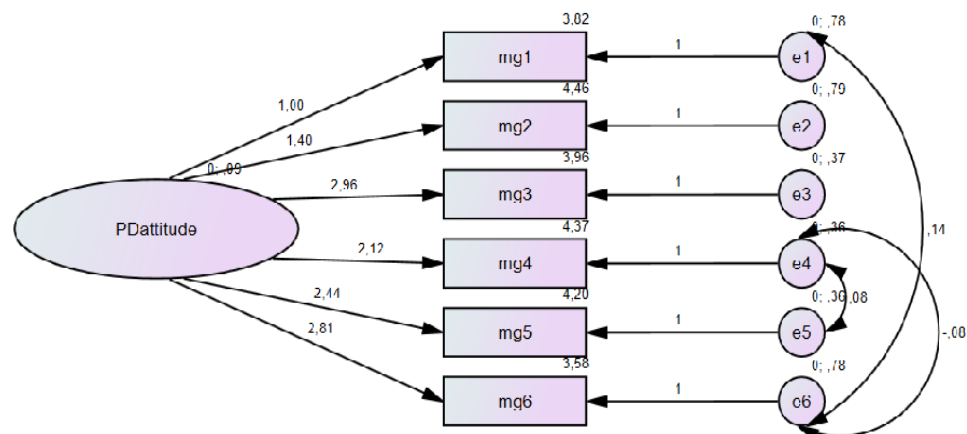
Figure 6. One-Factor CFA Model of TAP Scale with Standardized Estimates.

4.4. Testing Mediation

In this section, results of mediation analyses related to the main research question of the study are going to be presented, so, whether school culture perceptions of participants predict their attitudes towards professional development significantly and their trust mediates this relationship is main issue to be examined. Within this respect, the school culture perception is independent variable while professional development attitude is the

independent variable and organizational trust level stands for the mediator. Figure 7 displays the hypothesized model.
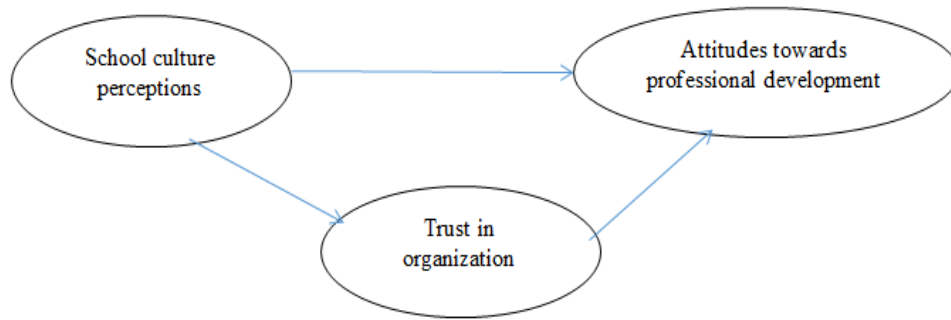
Figure 7. Hypothesized model

To investigate such relationships, Field (2013) mentions that there are several approaches explained in works of Baron and Kenny (1986), MacKinnon (2008) and Preacher and Kelly (2011). Among them, the approach proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) provides a comprehensive mediation testing model including several steps to investigate direct and indirect relationships between dependent, independent and mediator variables. According to this four-step approach, there are three assumptions to be satisfied before testing mediation. Firstly, they suggest that the independent variable must predict the dependent variable significantly. Secondly, the independent variable must predict mediator variable significantly. Thirdly, mediator variable must predict dependent variable significantly. After these three-step assumptions are satisfied, mediation could be tested through multiple regressions.

Based on the suggestions of Baron and Kenny (1986), single linear regressions between teachers' school culture perceptions and teachers' attitudes towards professional development, between teachers' school culture perceptions and trust in their organization and between trust in their organization and teachers' attitudes towards professional development must be run. Afterwards, multiple regressions must be run to test whether teachers' school culture perceptions

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predict teachers' attitude level towards professional development and their organizational trust level mediates this relationship.

4.4.1. Single Linear Regression for Professional Development Attitude

There are several assumptions of regression tests to be satisfied, namely, addivity and linearity, independent errors or no autocorrelation, normally distributed errors and homoscedasticity. In addition to this, multicollinearity must be checked before conducting multiple regressions (Field, 2013).

The first step of Baron and Kenny approach is to test whether the independent variable predicts the dependent variable significantly. So, before conduction a single linear regression between teachers' school culture perceptions and teachers' attitudes towards professional development, assumptions related to the analysis were checked. Firstly, linearity and homoscedasticity assumptions were checked through the scatter-plot of standardized residuals against standardized predicted values. Figure 8 presents this scatter-plot of standardized residuals against standardized predicted values for dependent variable, participants' professional development attitudes.

Figure 8. Scatter-plot of Standardized Residuals against Standardized Predicted Values for Participants' Professional Development Attitudes.

As dots in the scatter-plot do not display a curved model or they are not cumulated, it could be claimed that the relationship between participants' school culture perception and professional development attitude is linear and there is no homoscedasticity violation.

Regression tests require no or littler auto-correction, which means independence degree of residuals from each other. To check this, Durbin-Watson test was conducted and the test statistics (1.373) results confirmed independence of errors.

Normality is another assumption to be checked. Field (2013) suggests that for the estimates of the parameters that define a model to be optimal, the residuals in the population must be normally distributed. Therefore, standardized residual was examined to check normality. Figure 9 represents standardized residual histogram of regression for professional development attitude as the dependent variable.
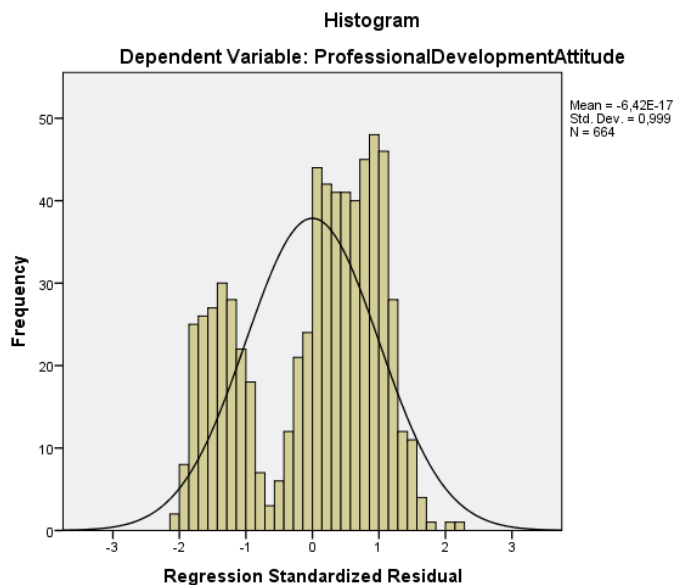
Figure 9. Histogram of Standardized Residuals.

As it could be understood from the histogram, although there was not a perfect normal distribution, it could be claimed that normality assumption was satisfied.

After it was concluded that all assumptions were satisfied, a single linear regression was conducted to examine to what extent paticipants' school culture perceptions predict their   professional development attitudes. Table 12 presents the simple regression results.

Table 12

Summary of Single Linear Regression for Professional Development Attitude

Predictor	*B*	*SE B*	β	*t*	*p*
School Culture	.46	.007	.26	25.56	.00*
R^2		.78			
F		47.95			

*$p<.05$, two-tailed

As shown with the Table 12, a significant portion of the total variation in teachers' professional development attitudes is predicted by their school culture perceptions ($F(1,662)=47.95$, $p<.05$). Also multiple R squared (R^2) indicates that approximately 78% of the variation in teachers' professional development attitudes is predicted by their school culture perceptions. Cohen (1988) suggests that it is a large effect size.

4.4.2. Single Linear Regression for Organizational Trust

The second step of Baron and Kenny approach is to examine whether independent variable predicts the mediator variable. Therefore, a single linear regression was conducted for school culture perceptions and organizational trust after required assumptions were met. Again, firstly, linearity and homoscedasticity assumptions were checked through the scatter-plot of standardized residuals against standardized predicted values. Figure 10

presents this scatter-plot of standardized residuals against standardized predicted values for dependent variable, participants' organizational trust level.
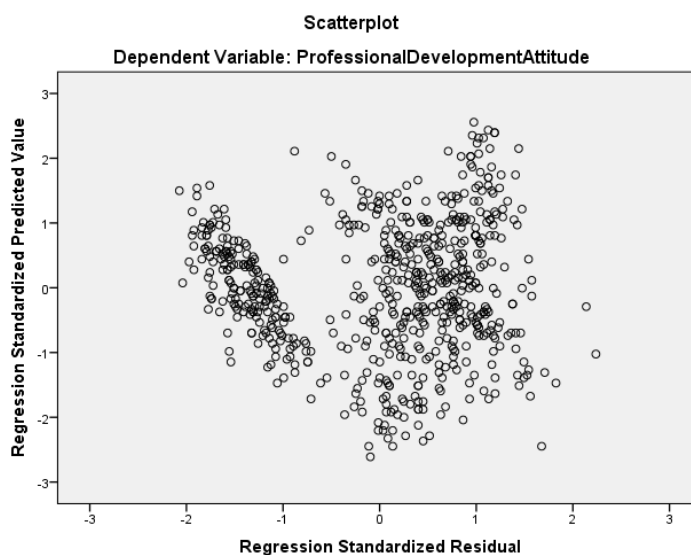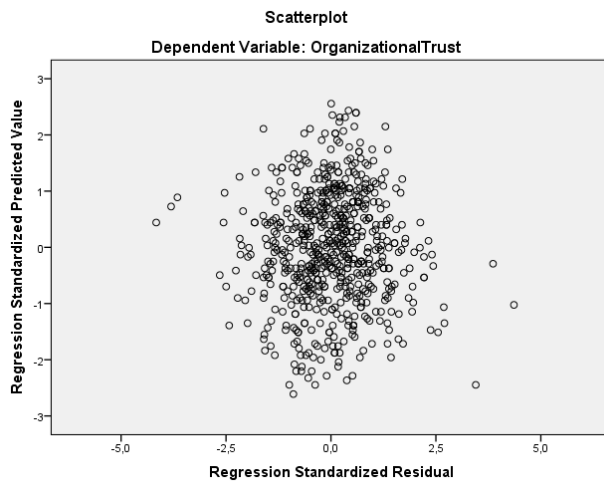

Figure 10. Scatter-plot of Standardized Residuals against Standardized Predicted Values for Organizational Trust.

As dots in the scatter-plot do not display a curved model or they are not cumulated, it could be claimed that the relationship between participants' school culture perception and level of organizational trust is linear and there is no homoscedasticity violation. Durbin-Watson test was conducted to check autocorrelation and the test statistics (1.858) results confirmed independence of errors. For normality assumption, standardized residual histogram of organizational trust was examined and it displayed no normality violation. Figure 11 represents the residual histogram of regression for organizational trust as the dependent variable.
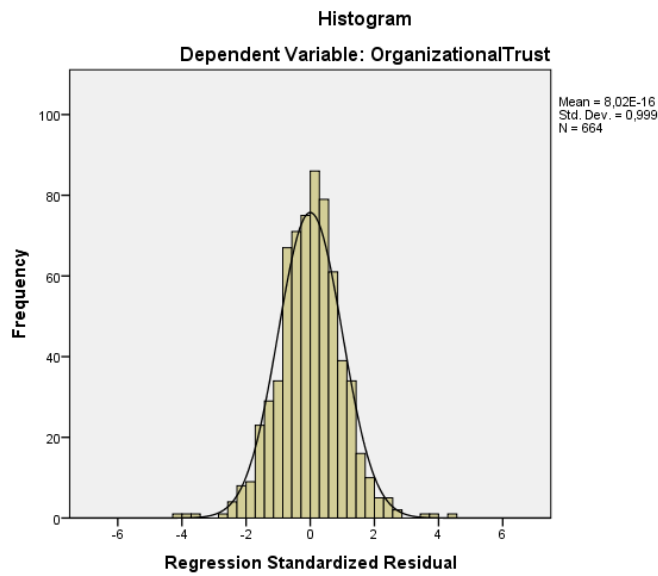
Figure 11. Histogram of Residuals of Regression for Organizational Trust as the Dependent Variable.

After it was ensured that all assumptions were met, a single linear regression was conducted to whether participants' school culture perceptions predict their organizational trust level significantly. Table 13 presents results of this test.

Table 13

Summary of Single Linear Regression for Organizational Trust

Variable	B	$SE\ B$	β	t	p
School Culture	.44	.013	.80	34.85	.00*
R^2		.65			
F		1215.09			

*$p<.05$, two-tailed

As displayed with the Table 13, a significant portion of the total variation in teachers' organizational trust level is predicted by their school culture perceptions ($F(1,662)=1215.09$, $p<.05$). In addition to this, Also multiple R squared (R^2) indicates that approximately 65% of the variation in teachers'

organizational trust level is predicted by their school culture perceptions. Cohen (1988) suggests that it is a medium effect size.

4.4.3. Single Linear Regression for Professional Development Attitude

The third step of Baron and Kenny assumption is to examine whether the mediator variable predicts the dependent variable significantly. There, a single linear regression was conducted between participants' organizational trust level and their professional development attitudes after all assumptions were ensured to be satisfied.

Linearity and homoscedasticity assumptions were the first assumption checked through the scatter-plot of standardized residuals against standardized predicted values. Figure 12 presents this scatter-plot of standardized residuals against standardized predicted values for professional development attitudes as the dependent variable.

Figure 12. Scatter-plot of Standardized Residuals against Standardized Predicted Values for Professional Development Attitudes

As dots in the scatter-plot do not display a curved model or they are not cumulated, it could be claimed that the relationship between participants'

organizational trust level and professional development attitudes is linear and there is no homoscedasticity violation. Durbin-Watson test was conducted to check autocorrelation and the test statistics (1.943) results confirmed independence of errors. For normality assumption, standardized residual histogram of professional development attitude was examined and it displayed no normality violation. Figure 13 represents the residual histogram of regression for professional development attitude as the dependent variable.

Figure 13. Histogram Residual of Regression for Professional Development Attitude as the Dependent Variable

After all assumptions were proved to be satisfied, a single linear regression was calculated to examine to what extend teachers' organizational trust level predicts their professional development attitude. Table 14 presents results of this analysis.

Table 14

Summary of Single Linear Regression for Professional Development Attitude

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	p
Organizational Trust	.08	.012	.25	6.46	.00*
R^2		.60			
F		41.81			

*$p<.05$, two-tailed

When the findings are examined, it could be concluded that a significant portion of the total variation in teachers' professional development attitude is predicted by their organizational trust level ($F(1.66)=41.81$, $p<.05$). In addition to this, Also multiple R squared (R^2) indicates that approximately 60% of the variation in teachers' professional development attitude is predicted by their organizational trust level. Cohen (1988) suggests that it is a medium effect size.

4.4.4. Multiple Regressions for Professional Development Attitude

To conduct the multiple regressions to examine mediator role of organizational trust for school culture perceptions' predicting professional development attitudes, all three assumptions proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) were ensured. Therefore, as the final step of the approach, multiple regressions were conducted after all assumptions of multiple regressions were ensured to be satisfied. Accordingly, linearity and homoscedasticity assumptions were checked through the scatter-plot of standardized residuals against standardized predicted values. Figure 14 presents this scatter-plot of standardized residuals against standardized predicted values for professional development attitudes as the dependent variable.

Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: ProfessionDevelopmentAttitude
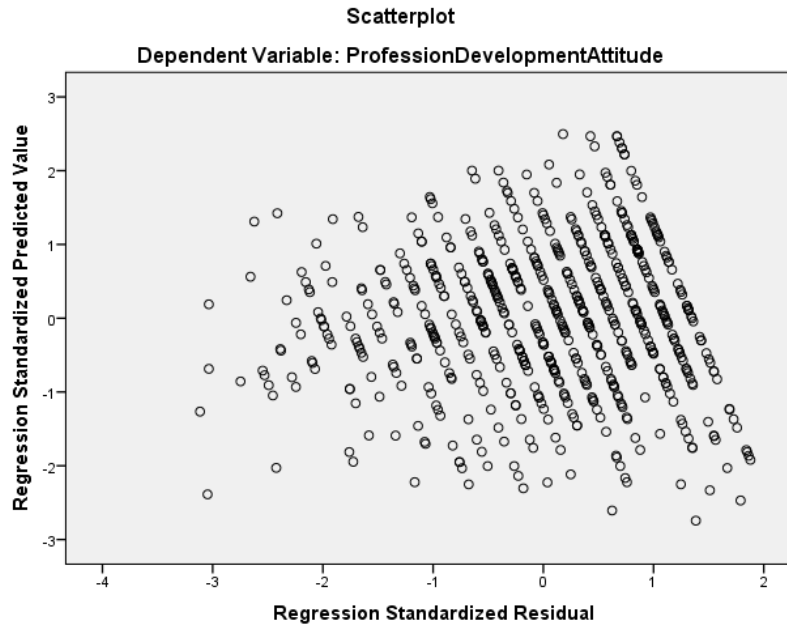
Figure 14. Scatter-plot of Standardized Residuals against Standardized Predicted Values for Professional Development Attitudes as the Dependent Variable.

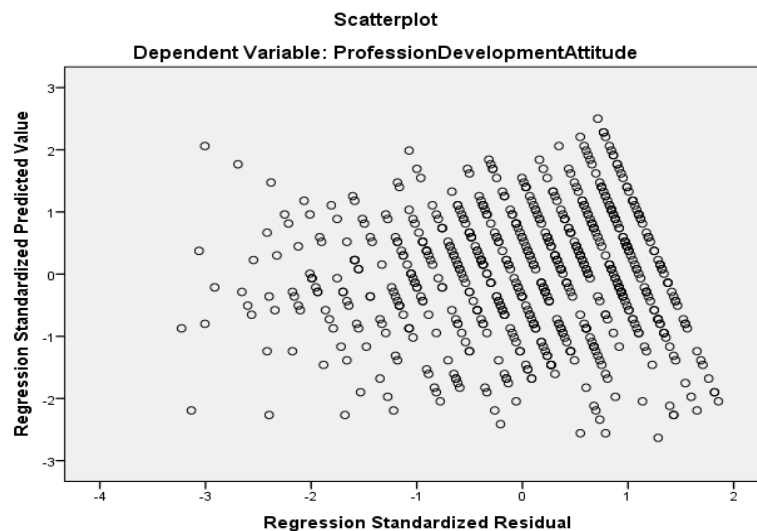As dots in the scatter-plot do not display a curved model or they are not cumulated, it could be claimed that the relationship between participants' school culture perceptions, organizational trust level and professional development attitudes is linear and there is no homoscedasticity violation. Durbin-Watson test was conducted to check autocorrelation and the test statistics (1.948) results confirmed independence of errors. For normality assumption, standardized residual histogram of professional development attitude was examined and it displayed no normality violation. Figure 4.15 represents the residual histogram of regression for professional development attitude as the dependent variable.
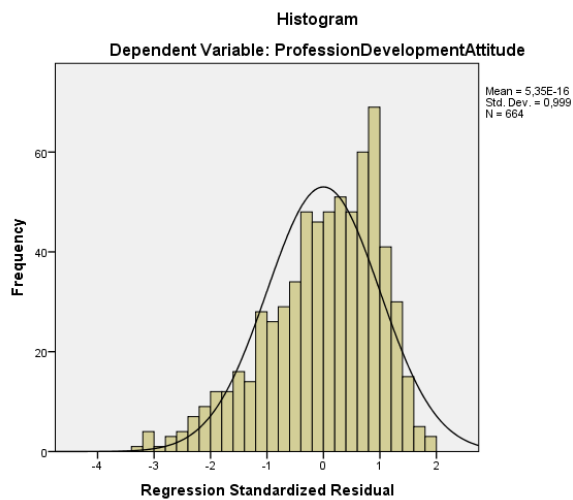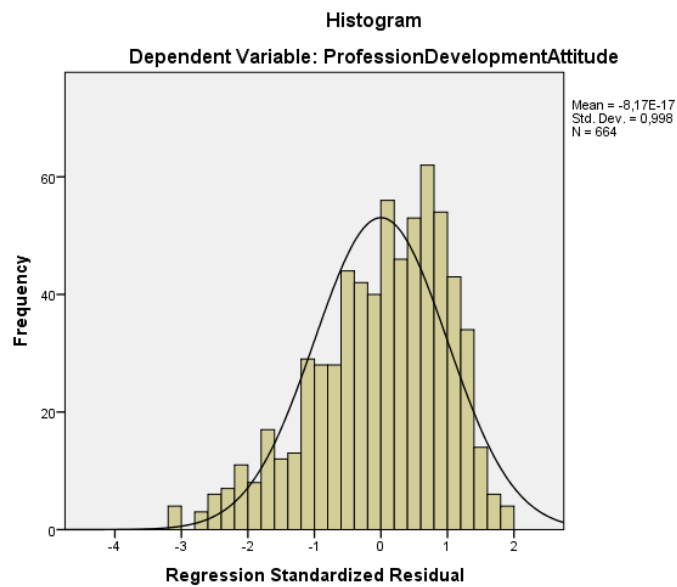
Figure 15. Histogram Residual of Regression for Professional Development Attitude as the Dependent Variable

In addition to assumptions of a simple regression mentioned and satisfied above, multicollinearity assumption was checked for multiple regressions as Field (2013) suggested. Multicollinearity, which means that two or more separate predictor variables measure the same thing, is the last assumption to be checked. Bowerman & O'Connell (1990) suggest that if the highest Variance inflation factor (VIF) value is higher than 10, there may be violation while Menard (1995) proposes that tolerance lower than 0.2 stands for a potential problem. Based on these suggestions and test statistics and test statistics (VIF=2.83, Tolerance=.35), it could be claimed that there is no multicollinearity violation.

After three steps of the approach proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) were validated and all assumptions of multiple regressions were satisfied, the final step, conducting multiple regressions to test mediator role of organizational trust for the relationship between teachers' school culture perceptions as the

predictor and their professional development attitude as the dependent variable. Table 15 presents test results.

Table 15

Summary of Multiple Regressions for Professional Development Attitude

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	p
School Culture	.032	.011		2.87	.000*
Organizational Trust	.031	.020	.25	1.56	.004*
R^2		.71			
F		25.23			

*$p<.05$, two-tailed

The multiple linear regressions conducted with the enter method indicate a significant regression equation is found ($F(2,661)=25.23$, $p<.05$, $R^2 = .71$, R^2 adjusted$= .68$). The analysis indicates that both school culture perceptions (β $=.18$, $t(663)=2.86$, $p<.05$) and organizational trust level predicts (β $=.09$, $t(663)=1.55$, $p<.05$) teachers' attitude level towards professional development. When R^2 value is considered, it could be claimed that there is a large effect size (Cohen, 1988).

In their mediation assumption, Baron and Kenny (1986) suggest that mediation is supported completely if the predictor variable is no longer significant after mediator variable control it and they add that mediation is supported partially if the predictor variable is still significant after mediator variable controls it. In this case, based on multiple regression analyses results, participants' school culture perceptions still predict their professional development attitudes after it is controlled by their organizational trust level, the mediator variable. In this case, the results of series of regressions indicate that participants' organizational level mediates partially the relationship between teachers'

school culture perceptions as the predictor and their professional development attitude as the dependent variable.

However, MacKinnon et al., (2007) claim that results of test based on the Baron and Kenny approach may be misleading and cause Type II error as they do not calculate the significance of indirect pathway (from organizational trust to professional development attitude). Therefore, to increase reliability of results, Sobel (1982) test was conducted and the results of the Sobel test find out significant indirect effect for organizational culture ($p<.05$) by using bootstrapping as data do not have normal distribution based on 1000 samples. Within this respect, it is concluded that there is a significant indirect relationship between school culture and professional development attitudes through organizational trust.

Table 16

Summary of Sobel Test for Indirect Relationships

	Test Statistics	*SD*	*p*
Sobel Test	3.35	.05	.00*

*p<.05

4.5. Structural Equation Modeling

The main purpose of the study is to examine whether school culture perceptions of participants predict their attitudes towards professional development and their trust in their organization mediates this relationship. Based on this purpose, Baron and Kenny approach was employed to test relationships between these variables with total scores obtained from each scale. In this part of the study, whether dimensions of school culture predict attitudes towards professional development through dimensions of organizational trust is going to be tested with the help Structural Equation Modeling.

4.5.1. Assumptions

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).

4.5.1.1. Sample size

Sample size is one of the important assumptions for SEM. According to Kline (2011), the samples with more than 200 cases are appropriate to conduct SEM analyses. As the number of cases in this study is 664, it could be claimed that sample size assumption is satisfied.

4.5.1.2. Missing value analysis

During data collection, participants were asked to answer all items in the instruments, however, some of them did not answer all of them. The number of the cases was 693 at the end of data collection. As 29 of the participants did not answer many of the questions, they were left out, so, the number of the cases decreased to 664. After this process, Missing Value Analysis was conducted. The results of Little's MCAR test revealed that the data set satisfied Missing Value assumption ($x^2 = 112.63$, *df*: 86, significance .029, p>.05).

4.5.1.3. Influential observations

To check whether there were any potential outliers in the data set, both univariate and multivariate outliers tests were conducted. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggests that cases that have z-scores more than 3.29 (*p*<.001, two-tailed test) are treated as potential outliers. Based on this suggestion, z-scores were calculated and there were not any cases with z-scores more than 3.29, so, it is concluded that there were not any univariate outliers in the data

set. Then, Mahalanobis distance was computed to check multivariate outliers for independent variables. The results revealed that there were five cases which had unusual combined scores ($p<.001$). Field (2013) suggests that if there is not a dramatic change in sum of standard error scores of variables with and without outliers, they may be kept rather than deleting them. Therefore, as there is a minor difference between the data set with outliers (for M=64.90, SE= .52) and the data set without outliers (for M= 64.94, SE=53), they were included during SEM analyses.

4.5.1.4. Normality

Univariate normality was checked through skewness and kurtosis values. Kline (2011) suggests cut-offs 3 for skewness and 10-20 for kurtosis scoress. As there is not any skewness and kurtosis scores exceeding these cut-offs in the data, it could be claimed that univariate normality is not violated.

After univariate normality checks, Mardia's test was run to check multivariate normality. The result of the test indicated severe multivariate normality violation. Bryne (2011) suggests employing bootstrapping technique, which means drawing multiple subsamples of the actual sample randomly. As sample size is large, bootstrapping was employed to deal with multivariate normality violation.

4.5.1.5. Normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity of residuals

Normality, linearity and homoscedasticity of residuals assumptions were examined through the histograms, normal p-p plots, scatter plots, and partial regression plots of residuals. To obtain these plots, regression analyses were conducted with each dependent and independent variables. For normality, histograms and normal p-p plots display random fashion for distribution. Scatter plots indicate that there is not a specific pattern for homoscedasticity assumption, which could be concluded that there is no violation. Lastly, partial plots of residuals present linearity as dots do not scatter around very much. So,

it could be concluded that all of three assumptions related to residuals were satisfied.

4.5.1.6. Multicollinearity

Multicollineraity, which means that two or more separate predictor variables measure the same thing, is the last assumption to be checked. To check it, variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance scores were calculated by taking each independent variable as dependent each time through multiple regressions. According to the results of analyses, VIF scores range between 3.45 and 6.36 and tolerance scores ranged between .24 and .89. Kline (2011) suggests that if VIF is greater than 10.0 and tolerance is greater than .10, the variable becomes redundant. Based on this suggestion, it could be claimed that there is no multicollinearity violation in the data set.

4.5.2. Structural Equation Modeling Results

In this section, structural equation model results are going to be reported. Firstly, results for the measurement, then, results of the structural equation modelling results are going to be presented.

4.5.2.1. Results for the measurement model

To explore the relationships between latent variables and their indicators, measurement model as CFA was employed. Figure 16 displays latent correlations with standardized estimates.
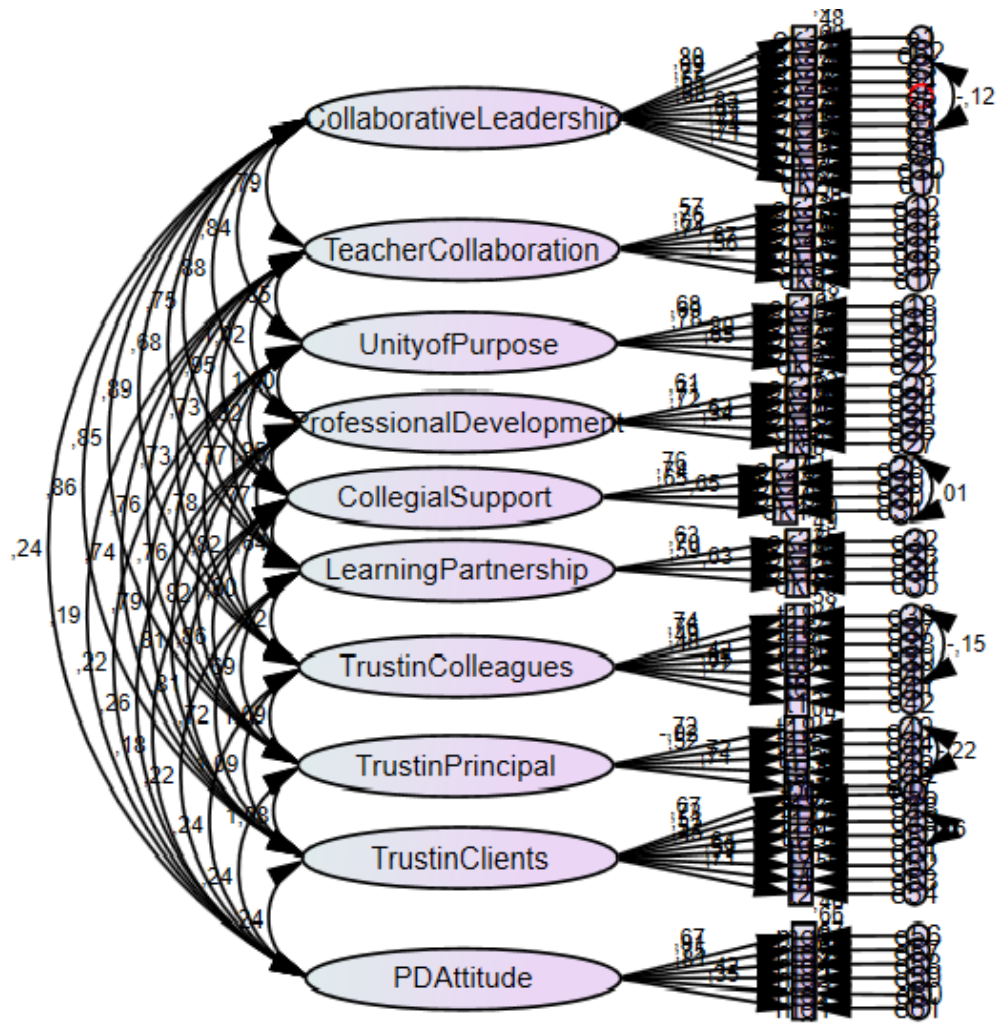
Figure 16. Measurement Model with Standardized Estimates and Latent Correlations.

Results of the initial CFA yielded poor model fit ($x^2(1719) = 6095.547$, CMIN/df= 3.546, $p < .05$) according to standards defined by Kline (2011). Therefore, some modification indices were employed and error covariances were set between ε3 – ε7, ε27 – ε31, ε36 – ε40, ε43 – ε46 and ε48 – ε51. Then, the calculation was conducted again and results indicate a relatively better model fit (x^2 (1719) = 4830.39, CMIN/df= 2.81, $p < .05$). Table 17 presents results the final CFA.

Table 17

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Measurement Model

	CMIN/DF	CFI	NNFI	RMSEA
Basic Model	2.81	.94	.92	.046

After CFA indicators, standardized regression weights were examined. All of them were significant and range was between .35 and .89. Lastly, latent correlations were visited and Table 18 presents correlation matrix between latent variables.

Table 18

Correlation matrix between latent variables

Latent Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.Collaborative Leadership	-	.83*	.82*	.79*	.71*	.59*	.31*	.32*	.33*	.08
2.Unity of Purpose		-	.85*	.76*	.93*	.67*	.34*	.36*	.37*	.84*
3.Teacher Collaboration			-	.92**	.99*	.52*	.22*	.29*	.25*	.57*
4.Collegial Support				-	.92*	.41**	.14*	.14*	.11*	.09*
5.Professional Development					-	.56*	.28*	.33*	.29*	.13*
6.Learning Partnership						-	.70*	.75*	.70*	.10*
7.Trust in Principal							-	.82*	.82*	.10*
8.Trust in Colleagues								-	.97*	.10*
9.Trust in Clients									-	.08*
10.PD Attitude										-

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

4.5.2.2. Results for the Structural Equation Model

As mentioned before, in this section of the study, whether dimensions of school culture predict significantly participants' attitudes towards professional

development and whether these dimension have an indirect relationship with professional development attitude through dimensions of organizational trust are going to be examined. Figure 17 presents hypothesized model for the study.
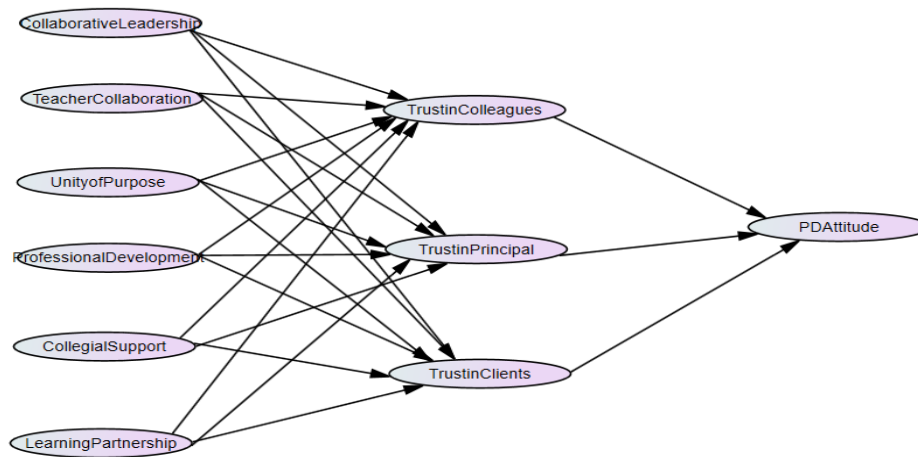
Figure 17. Hypothesized Structural Model

The hypothesized model was tested at 95% confidence interval with 2000 bootstrapped samples. The results indicated a good model fit ($x^2(1719) = 4967.91$, CMIN/*df*= 2.89, *p* < .05) according to recommendations of Kline (2011). The other fit indices are shown with Table 19.

Table 19

Structural Equation Modeling Results

	CMIN/DF	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Hypotesized Model	2.89	.91	.92	.047

In addition model fit, direct, indirect, and total effects for the hypothesized model were calculated and presented with Table 20.

Table 20

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

		Collaborative Leadership	Teacher Collaboration	Unity of Purpose	Professional Development	Collegial Support	Learning Partnership	Trust in Principal	Trust in Colleagues	Trust in Clients
Trust in Principal	Total	.71*	.08	.11*	-.61	.52	.54	-	-	-
	Direct	.71*	.08	.11*	-.61	.52	.54	-	-	-
	Total Indirect	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Trust in Colleagues	Total	.82	.20*	.22*	-.67	.27*	.53*	-	-	-
	Direct	.82	.20*	.22*	-.67	.27*	.53*	-	-	-
	Total Indirect	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Trust in Clients	Total	.68	.01	.23*	-.51*	.39	.55	-	-	-
	Direct	.68	.01	.23*	-.51*	.39	.55	-	-	-
	Total Indirect	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Professional Development Attitude	Total	.18	-.47	.04*	-.14*	.53	.12*	.02*	.15*	.04*
	Direct	-	-	-	-	-	-	.02*	.15*	.04*
	Total Indirect	.18	-.47	.04*	-.14*	.53	.12*	-	-	-

*p < .05.

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When the standardized direct and total relationships are examined, it could be concluded that Collaborative Leadership and Unity of Purpose predict Trust in Principal significantly. Teacher Collaboration, Unity of Purpose, Collegial Support and Learning Partnership predict Trust in Colleagues significantly. Unity of Purpose and Professional Development predict Trust in Clients significantly. Lastly, Trust in Principal, Trust in Colleagues and Trust in Clients predict Professional Development Attitude significantly.

When the standardized indirect relationships are examined, it could be inferred that Unity of Purpose dimension and Professional Development Attitude have an indirect relationship through three different paths; Trust in Principal, Trust in Colleagues and Trust in Clients. Teacher Collaboration and Professional Development Attitude have an indirect relationship through Trust in Colleagues. Collegial Support and Professional Development Attitude have an indirect relationship through Trust in Colleagues. Professional Development dimension and Professional Development Attitude have an indirect relationship through Trust in Clients. Lastly, Learning Partnerships and Professional Development Attitude have an indirect relationship through Trust in Clients. Based on significant and non-significant direct and indirect relationships between variables, Figure 18 presents trimmed version of hypothesized model.
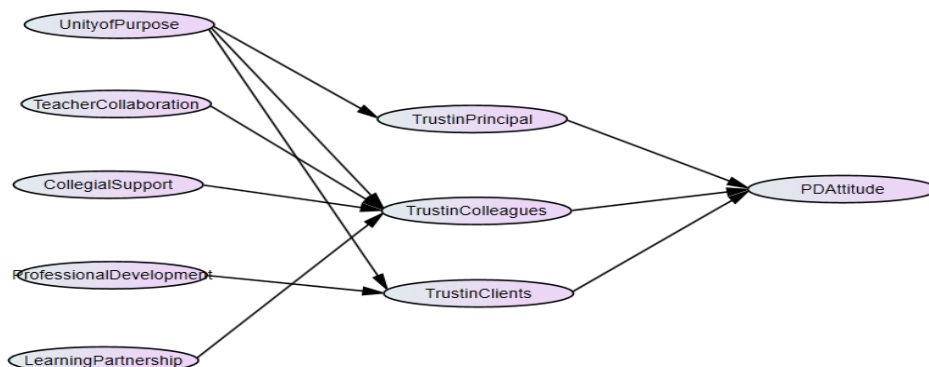
Figure 18. Significant Direct and Indirect Relationships in the Hypothesized Model.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, findings of the study were discussed based on the context of the study and related literature. Additionally, implications for practice, limitations of the study and recommendations for further studies were also presented in the chapter.

5. 1. Discussion of the Findings

The main purpose of this study is to examine to what extent school culture predicts teachers' professional attitudes and whether organizational trust mediates this prediction. To realize this aim, School Culture Inventory, Organizational Trust Scale and Teachers' Attitudes About Professional Development Scale were administered and 664 teachers working at public schools from different levels.

Results of the descriptive statistics related to collaborative school culture perceptions of participants are high and positive in total according to standards set by Gruenert and Valentine (1998), designers of the survey. Among dimensions of school culture, teachers reveal that unity of purposes or sharing common aims with colleagues is the component of school culture which has the highest mean score while teacher collaboration is relatively lower than other dimensions of school culture, which is consistent with studies of Demirtaş (2010a; 2010b), Demirtaş and Ersözlü (2007), Ayık and Şayir (2015). Parallel to teacher collaboration dimension, learning partnerships is the second lowest dimension of school culture, again, consistent with the findings of the studies mentioned above. These findings may indicate that although school culture that participants perceive presents them a common aim, it does not

motivate them to work collaboratively to achieve this common aim and they follow an individual approach to maintain their professional duties (Ayık, 2015).

When it comes to organizational trust, participants report that their trust in their institutions is high and they trust their clients more than they trust their colleagues and their principal. While these findings are similar to the study of Baş and Şentürk (2011), they are inconsistent with the study of Yılmaz (2015), Ayık, Şayir and Yücel (2015) and Adıgüzelli (2016). In those studies, participants report that they trust their colleagues and administrators more than their clients, which could be concluded that teachers' trust in organization changes from school to school depending on many factors such as school culture (Kruse &Louis, 2009), school size, number of students and teachers, etc. (Bryk & Schenider, 2002; Yaşar, 2005).

Additionally, descriptive statistics results for participants' professional development attitudes revealed that teachers have positive attitudes towards professional development and 82% of the participants claimed that they continue to their professional development process while 18% of them do not. In their study, Ceylan and Özdemir (2016) also found that teachers in Turkey claim that they continue professional development and find continuous professional development important and necessary. Participants who favor to continue their professional development were also asked what kind of professional development activities they are engaged in and they answered that they attend seminars or conferences mostly. Another important finding with this question was, participants generally prefer traditional professional development events more than reform type professional development activities proposed by Day (2007). Participants are more motivated to develop their skills when they feel that they need to do so. In addition to this, they reported that teachers attend this kind of events most when they have to. These findings of the study are similar to the study of Ceylan and Özdemir (2016), Bümen and her colleagues (2012) and Seferoğlu (2004), which conclude that teachers in

Turkey have limited understanding for continuous professional development and prefer attending seminars or conferences mostly as they consider professional development as an individual process, resulting from their individual needs.

The main purpose of this study is to examine whether school culture predicts teachers' professional development attitudes significantly and their trust in their schools mediates this relationship. To examine the results, Baron and Kenny approach was utilized and therefore, several single and multiple regressions were conducted. At the first step of analyses, results showed that school culture perceptions predict teachers' professional development attitudes significantly. When dimensions of school culture are considered, it could be claimed at schools where teacher collaboration is high, all stakeholders of the school have the common aim, teachers are engaged in a collaborative professional learning process and support each other, teachers have more positive attitudes towards professional development and they believe importance of it. These findings are parallel to the study conducted by Sullivan (2010). In her study conducted at kindergartens in the USA, she found out that teachers are more willing to plan and conduct professional development activities when there is teacher collaboration and unity of purpose. In addition to this, her study indicates that collaborative leadership is another predictor of this phenomenon although in this study, this dimension was the only one which did not predict teachers' professional development attitudes. This situation may be stemming from the fact that educational system in Turkey does not allow principals to share their authority. Although they can find some ways to manage this, most of the operations and procedures at school are pre-determined by laws or regulations. Another study conducted in Malaysia by Rauf and his colleagues (2012) concluded that Malaysian teachers are more motivated to engage in professional development activities when their school culture perception is high. Also, they found that school culture elements such as collective efficacy and communication are other predictors of teacher professional development. Other studies that focus on this relationship

conclude that there is a positive relationship between school culture and teacher professional development (Maynes et al., 1995; McKay, 1998; McLaughlin & Pfeifer, 1988; Wagner & Hill, 1996). As mentioned before, studies examining this relationship in Turkish context is rare. One of the studies conducted in Ankara with 386 teachers by Kılınç (2014) indicates that teacher professionalism is predicted by organizational culture and teachers favor professional development more in support, mission and bureaucratic cultures. This is also consistent with the finding that teachers attend professional development as they are asked as a part of their job by Directorates or Ministry of National Education. Another study conducted in Turkish context by Ayık and Şayir (2007) investigates the relationship between learning organizations and school culture and the findings indicate that all dimensions of school culture have positive and significant relationships with learning organizations, however, only learning partnership dimension predicts learning within organizations significantly according to their study. Also, school cultures which enable and support teacher collaboration, cooperative learning, collaborative leadership and common values and purposes are claimed to have strong cultures (Kruse &Louis, 2009). Therefore, it could be claimed that perceptions of teachers towards professional development indicate existence of a strong school culture, which implies that strong school cultures predict teacher professional development significantly.

Analyses conducted at the second step of the approach indicated that teachers' school culture perceptions also predict their level of trust in school, which means that strong school cultures ensure trust at schools (Louis, 2006; Mishra and Morrissey 1990; Nooderhaven, 1992). Research conducted on this issue highlights a reciprocal relationship between school culture and organizational trust, in other words, trust stands for a basis for trustworthy relationships among stakeholders of school and a strong school culture, a strong culture increases teachers trust in their faculty, principal, colleagues and clients as it is a means of sharing and collective activities (Adams & Forsyth, 2013; Bulach, Lunenberg & Potter, 2011; Edwards-Groves, Grootenboer & Ronnerman,

2016). In addition to this, the study conducted by Sutton and Shouse (2016) puts forward that teacher collaboration as a component of school culture enhances trust among colleagues and motivates them to share their expertise. As mentioned before, teachers reported they trust in their clients more. Parallel to this, the study conducted by van Maele and van Houtte (2014) draws attention to that teachers are more enthusiastic to ensure quality in education when they trust in their students and this situation assures a quality in school life for both teachers and students.

In the third step of analyses, results showed that trust in school predicts teachers' professional development attitudes significantly. Day (1997) proposes that collaboration and collectivity are essential for adult learners, therefore, they need to learn in groups. Based on this premise, whether teachers trust their colleagues holds great importance as it determines their collective efficacy (Hoy, Miskel & Tarter, 2012). The study conducted by Priest (2015) in Alabama schools highlight importance of collaboration in professional learning communities resulted in higher levels of efficacy and trust among colleagues contributes into teacher collaboration. In addition to this, Tschannen-Moran (2001) claims trust in school and colleagues increases teacher professionalism and collective teacher efficacy. Previous studies (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000), also, put forward that teachers are expected to be productive and try harder to realize organizational aims when their trust in principal is high. However, in this study, participants reported higher level of professional development attitudes although their trust in principal is low. Another study conducted by Tschannen-Moran (2001) reveals that teachers are more enthusiastic to develop their skills and work collaboratively when they have trust in their clients. Results of that study support the finding of this study that organizational trust predicts teachers' professional development attitudes.

Multiple regressions were conducted to examine whether organizational trust mediates the relationship between school culture and professional development attitudes. A partial mediator effect was found as the predictor variable, school

culture, still predicted dependent variable, professional development attitudes, significantly with mediator variable, organizational trust according to mediation analysis approach suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986). McKay (1998) suggests that school cultures create the atmosphere which motivates teachers to experiment and continue professional development. Similarly, another study conducted by Wagner and Hill (1996) reveals that school culture perceptions of teachers has the greatest influence on teachers to be growth-oriented. In addition to them, Maynes and his colleagues (2005) claim that positive school cultures based on healthy and trustworthy relationships foster teachers to develop themselves professionally. Also, they add that teachers perceive school cultures as their "internal professional accountability", so they feel motivated or responsible to achieve standards set by this perception. Based on previous literature and findings, it could be claimed that like many other situation, professional development attitudes and activities of teachers cannot be evaluated separately from school culture and their belief in that other colleagues and other stakeholder of the school share the same purpose with them and they are going to do their best to achieve these common purpose, in other words, trust in their organizations may contribute to this "group" spirit and improve professional growth of teachers.

Lastly, a structural equation model was composed based on previous literature and finding of this study. Results indicate that participants' attitudes towards professional development is associated with components of school culture, namely teacher collaboration, unity of purpose, professional development, learning partnership and collegial support indirectly through three dimensions of organizational trust, namely trust in principal, trust in colleagues and trust in clients. The study conducted by Li and his colleagues (2016) indicate that school atmosphere that builds trustworthy relationships among teachers and administrators, healthy communication and teacher collaboration stand for essentials of teacher professional development, which is consistent with the findings of the study. In addition to this study, there are many other studies (Hargreaves, 1994a, 1994b; Quicke, 2000) emphasize importance of trust-

based relationships among school stakeholders as it is the way exchanging knowledge and resources to ensure quality and improvement in education (Cook & Friend, 1991, 1995; Ebers, 1997; Tschannen-Moran, 2000).

The results also indicated that teachers are enthusiastic for their professional development when they have commonality. In addition to this, teacher collaboration and collegial support are other components which motivate teachers to continue their professional development process. As Sergiovanni (1989) suggested, the shared norms, values and purposes are more effective for teachers than formal regulations and rules. This finding is consistent with Saphier and King's (1985) study. They find out that when school culture includes strong beliefs, norms and values, continuous improvement in educational activities is assured. Also, Fenwick and Smulders (2001) points out that at school cultures including strong beliefs and norms, teachers are expected to implement their professional development plans more successfully.

The only dimension that is not associated with professional development directly or indirectly was collaborative leadership, which is already hard to say that principals in Turkey display such a leadership style with their subordinates (Korkmaz, 2008). However, several studies (Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Sebastian & Allensworth, 2012) indicate that leadership principal efforts support and foster teachers' professional growth when trust is a mediator between leadership efforts and teacher learning. Also, another study conducted in Turkey by Koşar (2015) reveals that trust in principal predicts teacher professionalism significantly.

To sum up, findings of this study revealed that teachers' professional development attitudes are predicted by their school culture perceptions, which indicates that professional development process is not an individual but a collective process and teachers should not be thought separately from their organizational culture. Therefore, to motivate teachers to enhance their knowledge and skills, it could be deduced that formal and informal structures that build up school culture should be revisited while planning and conducting

school-based professional development process. If teachers are expected to share and work collaboratively, they need to know that they and their colleagues have the same purpose and they will spend effort for common good, otherwise they may be reluctant to be a part of this community or contribute to the process, so trust could be perceived as an important component of teacher learning. When all of previous research findings are taken into consideration together, it could be claimed that effective professional development processes require a school atmosphere that is based on collectivism, collegiality, and collaboration in addition to trustworthy relationships among school members.

5.2. Implications

Professional development is considered as the critical and crucial factor that ensures quality in education and eliminate inequality between students in terms instructional standards. Therefore, any study that focuses on professional development and its components could be counted as focuses on improvement in educational and instructional services and student achievement. Within the scope of this study, it is concluded that planning and pursuing professional development requires extensive knowledge and experience, which addresses social and contextual requirements of teachers as adult and life-long learners. The main purpose of this study is to examine relationships among school culture and its components, organizational trust and professional development attitudes. Based on findings of the study, some implications for theory, research and practice.

It could be claimed that findings of this study indicate that professional development and professional development attitudes is to be examined and evaluated based on several social and contextual factors. Therefore, this study could be considered as contribution to theories and approaches which deals with professional development. Especially, when transformation in professional development policies, from individually-guided to school-based, is taken into consideration, researchers may focus other these and other

variables which are considered as possible indicators or moderators of the study. Also, while designing school-based professional development plans, members of school communities may ask guidance from academics or researchers who focus on social and affective aspects of the process.

As Mintzberg (1987) suggests, if there is a group, behaviors of an individual cannot be thought separately from the group. From the view of educational institutions, behaviors or acts of school members cannot be taken into consideration without evaluating common perceptions of school or school culture. Within this context, it could be claimed actions or deeds school members heavily depend on school culture including common assumptions, purposes, norms, attitudes, beliefs and behaviors. Therefore, in planning and management of many school-based activities, including professional development, school culture and its components should not be ignored. This study reveals that teachers have more positive attitudes towards professional development or they are more motivated when they have common goals with other stakeholders of the school. Therefore, school administrators or colleagues need to develop a sense of commonality among members of school community before taking initiatives related to professional development. In addition to these, to create and maintain a professional learning culture at schools, teacher collaboration and professional development efforts should be supported. Among dimensions of school culture, collaborative leadership is the only sub-dimension that do not predict professional develop attitudes significantly. However, related studies put forward that teachers should be involved in decision making and participate in managerial processes to maintain a positive school atmosphere and increase student achievement. Therefore, school administrators could focus on this issue and make related arrangements for participative management.

Along with school culture, organizational trust is found out to predict professional development attitudes. As mentioned before, trust stands for a basis for school culture and relationships between school members. Therefore,

school administrators and practitioners could try to ensure trust-based school environment for stakeholders. To increase trust level at schools, some events may be organized, colleagues and other stakeholders may come together and share and discuss their ideas, actions and plans. Also, mentorship and coaching are other ways of sharing knowledge and experience, which depends on trustworthy relationhips.

To improve teacher attitudes, professional development activities should be designed according to needs of students and teachers, and, more importantly, school-based. To turn into effective professional learning schools, collegiality and collaboration among teachers and all school members should be increased and improved.

5.3. Limitations

Like any study, this study has some limitations in terms of design and collecting data. The most obvious one is sampling. As it is not possible to include all teachers working at educational institutions directed by the Ministry of National Education, applying sampling methods is inevitable. As the results are going to be generalized to all teachers working at educational institutions directed by the Ministry of National Education, the sample should be chosen from this group. However, sampling was conducted among teachers working at educational institutions directed by the Ministry of National Education in İstanbul, which violates generalizability of the study for the whole country. Therefore, it could be claimed that results of the study could be generalized to teachers working in İstanbul.

Participants are asked to fill in the questionnaires at their schools and items investigate their perceptions about school culture, trust and professional development attitudes. As they evaluate their principal, their colleagues and themselves and as they do so at their work place, their answers could be biased although they are informed that their answers are going to be kept confidential and anonymous. Another threat to validity of replies is that principals in most

of the schools have been reassigned recently during data collection. There are many items which investigate perceptions about current school principal, so, participants may have evaluated these items subjectively because of lack of experience or observation. Also, they may have been intimidated as they were asked to evaluate their superiors and friends and they may not have reflected their objective opinions as well.

Location is another limitation for this study as data were collected at school. Physical conditions of schools vary tremendously and they may have been distracted or interrupted while completing the instrument even though the researcher tried to keep silent and asked participants not to talk to each other.

In terms of delimitations, this study was conducted with certain components of school culture and organizational trust, which was examined as the mediator. However, as mentioned before, there are many other variables that are associated with professional development and attitudes towards professional development. Also, that only teachers working at state schools participated within the study could be accepted as another delimitation of the study.

5.4. Recommendations for Future Research

Within the scope of this study, some social and affective factors which are found to be predictors of professional attitudes of teachers are examined and this situation makes this study one of the first ones which examined it from these points of view. As it is found that professional development process requires social and contextual factors, future researchers may focus these aspects of professional development process to ensure quality in education. Also, there are many other factors or predictors, such as collective efficacy, academic optimism, organizational attachment, etc. that could be more or less effective in professional development process. So, future researcher may focus on these variables in addition social and contextual predictors of professional development.

Another recommendation is that such studies may be conducted longitudinal, therefore, researchers can deduce causality and effectiveness related to professional development teams, communities, plans and in short, all efforts. In these longitudinal studies, student achievement could be taken as the final output of process and all efforts could be evaluated accordingly.

Last recommendation is that this kind of studies could be conducted as case studies or in a way that unit of analysis is school, itself. In this way, more reliable and objective evaluations and conclusions could be obtained as all stakeholders of the schools are expected to engage in professional development process.

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APPENDICES

A.APPROVAL LETTER FROM METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE

B. PERMISSION FROM İSTANBUL PROVINCIAL DIRECTORATE OF NATIONAL EDUCATION

T.C.
İSTANBUL VALİLİĞİ
İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 59090411-44-E.5470958   28.05.2015
Konu: Hatice ERGİN

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
(Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsüne)

İlgi: a) 08.05.2015 tarih ve 1953 sayılı yazınız.
   b) Valilik Makamının 26.05.2015 tarih ve 5411178 sayılı oluru.

Üniversiteniz Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü yüksek lisans öğrencisi Hatice ERGİN'in *"Öğretmenlerin Mesleki Gelişimine Yönelik Tutumlarının Yordayıcısı Olarak Okul Kültürü: Örgütsel Güvenin Aracı Rolü"* konulu tezine dair araştırma çalışması hakkındaki ilgi (a) yazınız ilgi (b) valilik onayı ile uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinizi ve araştırmacının söz konusu talebi; bilimsel amaç dışında kullanılmaması, **uygulama sırasında bir örneği müdürlüğümüzde muhafaza edilen mühürlü ve imzalı veri toplama araçlarının uygulanması,** katılımcıların gönüllülük esasına göre seçilmesi, araştırma sonuç raporunun müdürlüğümüzden izin alınmadan kamuoyuyla paylaşılmaması koşuluyla, gerekli duyurunun araştırmacı tarafından yapılması, okul idarelerinin denetim, gözetim ve sorumluluğunda, eğitim -öğretimi aksatmayacak şekilde ilgi (b) Valilik Onayı doğrultusunda işlem bittikten sonra 2 (iki) hafta içinde sonuçtan Müdürlüğümüz Strateji Geliştirme Bölümüne rapor halinde bilgi verilmesini arz ederim.

Murat ADALI
Müdür a.
Şube Müdürü

EK:1- Valilik Onayı
   2- Ölçekler

C. INSTRUMENTS

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Gönüllü Katılım Formu

Bu çalışma, ODTU Eğitim Bilimleri Bolumu yuksek lisans oğrencisi Hatice ERGİN tarafından yüksek lisans tez çalışması kapsamında, Yrd. Doç. Dr. Gökçe GÖKALP'in danışmanlığında yürütülmektedir. İstanbul ilini kapsayan bu çalışmada amaç okul kültürünün öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişime yönelik tutumlarıyla ilişkisini ve örgütsel güvenin bu ilişkiye katkısını incelemektir. Çalışma sonunda elde edilecek bilgiler mesleki gelişim faaliyetlerini daha verimli bir şekilde planlanmasına katkı sağlayacaktır.

Çalışmaya katılım tamamıyla gönüllülük esasına dayanır. Ankette, sizden kimlik belirleyici herhangi bir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplarınız tamamıyla gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecek ve elde edilecek bilgiler sadece bilimsel amaçlarla kullanılacaktır.

Cevaplamanız gereken 3 anket bulunmakta ve anketlerin hiçbiri, genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek soruları içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz cevaplama işini yarıda bırakıp çıkmakta serbestsiniz. Böyle bir durumda anketi uygulayan kişiye, anketi tamamlamadığınızı söylemek yeterli olacaktır. Anket sonunda, bu çalışmayla ilgili sorularınız cevaplanacaktır. Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Araş. Gör. Hatice ERGİN (E-posta: hatice.ergin@istanbul.edu.tr) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

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

Tarih:

İmza:

Ad Soyad:

KİŞİSEL BİLGİLERİNİZ

1. **Cinsiyetiniz :**

Kadın ( ) Erkek ( )

2. **Yaşınız:** ....

3. **Branşınız:** ....

4. **Mesleki Kıdeminiz:**

0-5 yıl ( ) 6-10 yıl ( ) 11-20 yıl ( ) 21-30 yıl ( ) 31 yıl ve üstü ( )

5. **Şu an bulunduğunuz okulda çalışma süreniz:**

0-5 yıl ( ) 6-10 yıl ( ) 11-15 yıl ( ) 16-20 yıl ( ) 21 yıl ve üstü ( )

6. **Çalıştığınız okul türü**:

İlkokul ( )   Ortaokul ( )   Lise ( )

7. **Kadro Türünüz:**

Sözleşmeli ( ) Ücretli ( ) Kadrolu ( )

8. **Eğitimle ilgili bir sendikaya üye misiniz?**

Evet ( )   Hayır ( )

9. **Çalıştığınız okula nasıl atandınız?**

İlk atama ( )   Yer değiştirme-Tayin (İsteğe bağlı) ( ) Rotasyon (Zorunlu yer değiştirme) ( )

Diğer …………………………………………….

OKUL KÜLTÜRÜ ENVANTERİ- Çalıştığınız okulu göz önünde bulundurarak, aşağıdaki ifadelere katılma derecenizi, her bir ifadenin karşısında yer alan derecelendirme seçeneklerinden uygun olanına (X) işareti koyarak belirtiniz. Lütfen hiçbir ifadeyi boş bırakmayınız.	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Orta Düzeyde Katılıyorum	Çoğunlukla Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1. Öğretmenler sınıf öğretimi için araştırmalar ve bilgileri elde etmek amacıyla mesleki ağlardan (internet-uzman kişiler-mesleki kaynaklar vb.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. Yöneticiler öğretmenlerin fikirlerine değer verir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. Öğretmenler konular ve seviyeler arasında diyalog ve planlama imkanına sahiptir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. Öğretmenler birbirine güvenirler.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. Öğretmenler okulun misyonunu desteklerler.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. Öğretmenler ve veliler öğrenci performansı için ortak beklentilere sahiptir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. Bu okuldaki yöneticiler öğretmenlerin mesleki değerlendirmesinde dürüsttür.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. Öğretmenler zamanlarının önemli bir bölümünü birlikte plan yaparak geçirir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. Öğretmenler düzenli olarak seminerlerden, konferanslardan ve meslektaşlarından fikir elde etme yollarını ararlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. Öğretmenler her ne zaman bir sorun olsa yardım etmek için isteklidirler.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11. Yöneticiler görevlerini iyi bir şekilde yerine getiren öğretmenleri takdir etmek için zaman	①	②	③	④	⑤
12. Okul misyonu öğretmenler için açık bir yönlendirme duygusu sağlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
13. Aileler öğretmenlerin mesleki değerlendirmelerine güvenirler.	①	②	③	④	⑤
14. Öğretmenler karar verme sürecine katılırlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
15. Öğretmenler birbirlerinin öğretim etkinliklerini gözlemlemek için zaman ayırırlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
16. Mesleki gelişim okul tarafından değerli görülür.	①	②	③	④	⑤
17. Öğretmenlerin düşünceleri diğer öğretmenler tarafından önemsenir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
18. Okulumuzdaki yöneticiler öğretmenlerin birlikte çalışmalarını kolaylaştırır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
19. Öğretmenler okulun misyonunu anlarlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤

20. Öğretmenler okuldaki güncel konular hakkında bilgilendirilirler.	①	②	③	④	⑤
21. Öğretmenler ve aileler öğrenci performansı hakkında sıklıkla iletişim kurarlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
22. Karar verme ya da politika oluşturmaya önemli ölçüde katılırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
23. Öğretmenler genellikle diğer öğretmenlerin ne öğrettiğinin farkındadır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
24. Öğretmenler öğrenim süreçleri hakkında birbirlerine güncel bilgi desteğini sürdürürler.	①	②	③	④	⑤
25. Öğretmenler grup halinde işbirliği içinde çalışırlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
26. Öğretmenler yeni fikirler ve teknikler denedikleri için ödüllendirilirler.	①	②	③	④	⑤
27. Okulun misyonu ifadesi toplumun değerlerini yansıtır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
28. Yöneticiler öğretimde yenilik ve risk almayı desteklerler.	①	②	③	④	⑤
29. Öğretmenler projeleri ve programları değerlendirmek ve geliştirmek için birlikte çalışırlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
30. Okulun değerleri okulu geliştirir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
31. Öğretim performansı okulun misyonunu yansıtır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
32. Yöneticiler planlama ve öğretim zamanını önemserler.	①	②	③	④	⑤
33. Öğretim uygulamalarında anlaşmazlıklar açıkça seslendirilir ve tartışılır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
34. Öğretmenler fikirlerini paylaşmak için cesaretlendirilir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
35. Öğrenciler genellikle kendi eğitim öğretimleri için sorumluluklarını kabul ederler; örneğin, ev ödevlerini tamamlarlar ve sınıfta zihinlerini ders verirler.	①	②	③	④	⑤

ÇOK AMAÇLI T ÖLÇEĞİ- Çalıştığınız okulu göz önünde bulundurarak, aşağıdaki ifadelere katılma derecenizi, her bir ifadenin karşısında yer alan derecelendirme seçeneklerinden uygun olanına (X) işareti koyarak belirtiniz. Lütfen hiçbir ifadeyi boş bırakmayınız.	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Orta Düzeyde Katılıyorum	Çoğunlukla Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1. Çalıştığım okulda öğretmenler birbirlerine güvenirler.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. Çalıştığım okuldaki öğretmenler, genellikle birbirlerini gözetirler.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. Çalıştığım okulda, zor bir durumda olsalar bile öğretmenler birbirlerine destek olurlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. Çalıştığım okulda öğretmenler işlerini iyi yaparlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. Çalıştığım okulda öğretmenler, meslektaşlarının dürüstlüğüne inanırlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. Çalıştığım okulda öğretmenler birbirlerine karşı açıktırlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. Bu okuldaki öğretmenlerin söylediklerine inanabilirsiniz.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. Çalıştığım okulda öğrenciler birbirlerini önemserler.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. Çalıştığım okuldaki öğrenci velilerinin sözlerine güvenilir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. Çalıştığım okulda öğrencilerin üzerlerine düşen görevleri yapacaklarına inanılır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11. Çalıştığım okuldaki öğretmenler, öğrenci velilerinin desteklerini her zaman arkalarında	①	②	③	④	⑤
12. Bu okuldaki öğretmenler, öğrencilerin öğrenme konusunda yetenekli olduklarına inanırlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
13. Bu okuldaki öğretmenler, öğrenci velilerinin iyi birer veli olduklarını düşünürler.	①	②	③	④	⑤
14. Bu okuldaki öğretmenler, velilerin söylediklerine inanabilirler.	①	②	③	④	⑤
15. Bu okuldaki öğrenciler gerçek duygu ve düşüncelerini saklarlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
16. Bu okuldaki öğretmenler, okul müdürüne güvenirler.	①	②	③	④	⑤
17. Bu okuldaki öğretmenler, okul müdürünün dürüstlüğüne inanırlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
18. Okul müdürümüz, öğretmenlerin çıkarlarını gözetecek biçimde davranır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
19. Bu okuldaki öğretmenler, okul müdürüne itimat edebilirler.	①	②	③	④	⑤
20. Okul müdürümüz bu okulu yönetecek kabiliyetlere sahiptir.	①	②	③	④	⑤

MESLEKİ GELİŞİM ÇALIŞMALARINIZ

1. **Son beş yıldır herhangi bir mesleki gelişim çalışmasına katıldınız mı?**
   Evet ( )   Hayır ( )

2. **Cevabınız evetse, lütfen neden katıldığınızı belirtiniz (Birden fazla işaretleyebilirsiniz).**
   Mesleki gelişim ihtiyacı   ( )
   Okul yöneticilerinin teşviki   ( )
   Meslektaşların teşviki   ( )
   Re'sen   ( )
   Diğer sebepler (lütfen belirtiniz)..

3. **Bireysel olarak devam ettiğiniz mesleki gelişim çalışmalarını lütfen işaretleyiniz. (Birden fazla işaretleyebilirsiniz)**
   a. *Konferans/Seminer* ( )
   b. *Çalıştay* ( )
   c. *Kurslar* ( )
   d. *Dergi, makale, kitap gibi süreli ya da süresiz yayın takip etme* ( )
   e. *Staj* (öğretmen olarak göreve başladıktan sonra bilgi ya da beceriyi geliştirmek için bir kurumda staj çalışmaları yürütme) ( )
   f. *Çalışma grupları* (aynı dersi veren ya da aynı problemle karşılaşan öğretmenlerin bir araya gelerek sürdürdükleri çalışmalar) ( )
   g. *Gözlem* (herhangi bir meslektaşını ders esnasında ya da eğitim öğretimle ilgili bir faaliyet sürdürürken gözlemlemek) ( )
   h. *Araştırma*(herhangi bir konu ya da beceriyi geliştirmek çeşitli kaynaklardan bilgi toplama)( )
   i. *Eylem Araştırması* (sınıf ortamında karşılaşılan bir problemi çözmek amacıyla ilgili literatüre başvurup veri toplama, analiz yapma gibi süreçlerden geçerek sonuca ulaşma) ( )
   j. Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz)..

MESLEKİ GELİŞİME YÖNELİK TUTUM ÖLÇEĞİ-Aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyarak katılma derecenizi, her bir ifadenin karşısında yer alan derecelendirme seçeneklerinden uygun olanını (X) işareti koyarak belirtiniz. Lütfen hiçbir ifadeyi boş bırakmayınız.	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Orta Düzeyde Katılıyorum	Çoğunlukla Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1. Sınıftaki etkililiğimi arttıracak öğretim yöntem ve teknikleri hakkında bilgi edinmek için kendime zaman ayırırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. Öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişimlerine dönük eğitim programlarına harcanan paranın israf olduğunu düşünüyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. Mesleki gelişim için düzenlenen etkinliklere ayrılan zamana değer.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. Mesleki gelişim etkinlikleri, diğer meslek grupları için gerekli olduğu kadar öğretmenler için de gereklidir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. Mesleki gelişim etkinlikleri, öğretmenlerin yeni öğretim teknik ve yöntemlerini öğrenmelerine katkı sağlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. Katıldığım seminer, konferans ve hizmet içi eğitimler bana mesleki açıdan oldukça katkı sağlamıştır.	①	②	③	④	⑤

D. TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü ☐

Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü ☒

Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü ☐

Enformatik Enstitüsü ☐

Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü ☐

YAZARIN

Soyadı : Ergin Kocatürk
Adı   : Hatice
Bölümü : Eğitim Bilimleri

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) : SCHOOL CULTURE AS PREDICTOR OF TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: MEDIATING ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans ☒   Doktora ☐

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir. ☐

2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir. ☐

3. Tezimden bir bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz. ☒

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ:

E. TURKISH SUMMARY

1.GİRİŞ

1.1. Çalışmanın Kuramsal Çerçevesi

Öğretmenler, tüm eğitim ve öğretim süreçlerinin merkezinde yer alır ve eğitim ve öğretimi geliştirmeye yönelik her türlü politika, çaba ya da değişiklik öğretmenleri direkt ya da dolaylı olarak etkileyecektir. Bununla birlikte, bilginin, standartların ve teknolojinin sürekli olarak değiştiği günümüzde, eğitim ve öğretim süreçleri ve yöntemleri de aynı hızla değişmesi de yine öğretmenleri de bir iyileşme ve gelişme sürecine yönlendirecektir (Barth, 1990; Day, 2007). Bu bağlamda, hem öğrencilerin gelişimine katkıda bulunmak, hem de onları değişen dünyaya hazırlamak hem de eğitimde eşitliği sağlamak, öğretmenler için mesleki gelişimi bir seçenekten gerekliliğe dönüştürmektedir (Hargreaves ve Fullan, 1992; Tom, 1997).

Yapılan çalışmalar, öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişime yönelik tutumlarının genellikle olumlu ancak mesleki gelişim çalışmalarına çeşitli nedenlerden dolayı devam edemediklerini ortaya koymuştur. Bümen ve meslektaşlarının (2012), Türkiye'deki öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişim çalışmalarına neden devam edemediklerini üzerine yaptıkları meta analiz çalışması, öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişim çalışmalarının sürdürmek için hissettikleri sosyal gereksinimlerin karşılanmadığını ortaya koymuştur. Buna paralel olarak, Day (2007) bir yetişkin öğrenmesi olarak mesleki öğrenmenin bireysel bir etkinlik olmadığına ve özellikle yetişkinlerin öğrenme süreçlerinde meslektaş desteği, geribildirim ve mentörlüğe ihtiyaç duyduğunun altını çizmektedir. Lindstrom ve Speck (2007) de yine mesleki gelişimin kollektif bir etkinlik olduğunu ve öğretmen mesleki gelişim planlarının; iç ve dış paydaşlarla birlikte, öğrencilerin ihtiyaçlarını ve okul imkânlarını gözeterek hazırlanması gerektiğini savunmaktadır.

Okuldan hız alarak, yine okuldaki öğretmenlerin ilgi ve ihtiyaçlarını doğrultusunda, okulun mevcut imkanlarıyla ve yönetici ve öğretmenlerin işbirliğiyle planlanan ve yönetilen okul temelli mesleki gelişim modeli (Kaya ve Kartallıoğlu, 2010), 2007 yılında pilot devlet okullarında denenmiş ancak çeşitli nedenlerden dolayı devam ettirilememiş ve yaygınlaştırılamamıştır. Uygulamanın sonuç raporu incelendiğinde, genel olarak sürecin tüm okul üyeleri tarafından sahiplenilmemesi ve meslektaş desteği ve işbirliğinin eksikliği, uygulamaya devam edilememesinin başlıca nedenleri arasında yer almaktadır (MEB, 2008) ve bu durum mesleki gelişime yönelik tutumunun yordayıcısı olarak okul kültürünün ve öğelerinin önemine işaret etmektedir.

Kollektif bir etkinlik olarak mesleki gelişim sürecinin planlanmasında ve yönetiminde, yukarıda belirtilen kültürel gerekliliklerine ek olarak, öğretmenleri ortak öğrenmeye ya da öğrenme işbirliğine teşvik edecek duyuşsal gerekliliklerin de sağlanması gerekmektedir. Diğer bir deyişle, uygulamaya geçilmeden önce öğretmenlerin psikolojik hazırbulunuşluğunun sağlandığından emin olmak gerekir ki buradan mesleki gelişim sürecinin kapsamlı ya da çok yönlü bir şekilde değerlendirilmesi gerektiği çıkarımında bulunulabilir.

Yapılan çalışmalar mesleki gelişim çalışmalarının öğrenci başarısını, öğretmen motivasyonunu (Bryk ve Schnedier, 2002), öğretmen etkililiğini ve iş doyumunu (Grippen, 2007; Louis, Dretzke ve Wahlstrom, 2010) ve okul kültürü ve iklimini (Moore, 2010; Supovitz, Sirinides ve May, 2010) olumlu yönde etkilediğini ortaya çıkarmıştır. Bunlara ek olarak, mesleki gelişim amacıyla bir araya gelen öğretmenler arasında öğretmen izolasyonunu azaltmakta ve üretken bir okul ortamı ve öğretimin kalitesi artmaktadır (Hord, 1996). Dolayısıyla, tüm eğitim kurumlarının ve mesleki gelişim çalışmalarının nihai amacı ve çıktısı olan öğrenci başarısındaki artışa katkıda bulunmaktadır (Ackerman, 2011; Becenti, 2009).

Türkiye'de, öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişim çalışmaları incelendiğinde, sürecin yoğun olarak Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı tarafından yönetildiği dikkati

çekmektedir. Öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişim ihtiyaçlarına yönelik yapılan anketin ardından, seçilen sınırlı sayıda öğretmen seçtikleri konuya ilişkin bilgi ve beceri edinmek üzere Mesleki Gelişim Enstitülerine davet edilirler. Planlanan eğitimin ardından, öğretmenler herhangi biz izleme çalışmasına tabi tutulmazlar, dolayısıyla, bu çalışmaların başarıya ulaştığı konusunda yeterince bilgi toplanamamaktır. Ancak, 2014 yılından itibaren MEB, okul temelli mesleki gelişim çalışmalarına ağırlık vermektedir. Okullara, çerçeve bir program gönderip, kendi ihtiyaçları konusunda kendi programlarını yapmalarını, sürece okulda tüm öğretmenleri dahil edilmesi gerektiğini ve ihtiyaç duyulan alanlarda uzman desteği sağlayacağını bildirmiştir. Böylece, Türk okullarının mesleki öğrenme topluluklarına dönüştürülmesinde önemli bir adım atılmıştır.

Ancak yapılan çalışmalar, mesleki gelişim topluluklarına dönüşüm, hem mikro hem de makro olarak kültürel bağlamın derinlemesine analiz edilmesi gerektiğini ortaya koymuştur. Örneğin, Tayvan okullarında yapılan mesleki öğrenme çalışmaları öğretmenler arası güvenin ve bürokrasi kültürünün önemini ortaya koyarken (Chen, Lee, Lin, & Zhang, 2016), ABD okullarında yapılan başka bir çalışma ise profesyonel yeterlik ve akademik iyimserliğin önemini ortaya çıkarmıştır (Bryk & Schenider, 2014).

Mesleki gelişim, öğretmenlerin, hem yöneticileriyle hem meslektaşlarıyla hem de öğrenci ve veliler ile işbirliği içinde olmasını gerektirmektedir. Dolayısıyla, insan etkileşimi ve ilişkilerinde güven duygusu, mesleki gelişim için belirleyici bir faktördür. Hauer (2014) yetişkin öğrenmesinin en önemli bileşenin güven olduğunu savunur ve güven halinin aynı zamanda bir savunmasızlık hali olduğunun iddia eder. Savunmasızlık durumu, kişinin karşı tarafın elinden gelenin en iyisini yapacağına olan inanç ve yine güvenilen kişinin zarardan çok fayda sağlayacağının belirsizlikten ortaya çıkmaktır. Her yeni öğrenmenin, aslında bir değişim meydana getirdiği ve her değişim sürecinin de belirsizliği beraberinde getirmesi özellikle yetişkin öğrenmesinde karşı tarafa olan güven derecesinin önemini vurgulamaktadır. Hoy ve Miskel (2012) eğitim

örgütlerinde güveni, okulun tüm paydaşlarının okulun yararına çalışacağına olan inanç olarak tanımlamaktadır. Eğitim örgütlerinde güvenin oluşumunda ise; yönetici, meslektaş ve ebeveyn ve öğrencilere olan güven önemli rol oynamaktadır. Örgütsel güven ile mesleki gelişim arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen çalışmalar (Callan 1996; Kochanek, 2005), hem eğitim kurumuna hem de paydaşlara olan güvenin, mesleki gelişim sürecinin başlatılmasında ve sürdürülmesinde önemli rol oynadığını ortaya koymuştur. Bununla birlikte meslektaşa olan güven ile meslektaş işbirliği ve desteği arasında anlamlı ve pozitif bir ilişki saptanmıştır (Thompson & McKelvy, 2007).

İlgili çalışmalar, öğretmenlerin öğrenme ortaklığı yapmasının diğer bir yordayıcısının da ortak amaçlar olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Bu bağlamda, öğretmenlerin hepsinin aynı amaca sahip olması, meslektaş işbirliği ve desteği artırmakta ve ortak öğrenme için bir zemin hazırlamaktadır. Yine öğretmenlerin, ortak amaçlara sahip olması ya da bunları benimsemesi ve bu doğrulta hareket etmesi, okul paydaşlarına duyduğu güven ile mümkündür (Hipp & Huffman, 2010; Hord, 2004).

Öğretmenleri ortak öğrenmeye sevk edecek önemli diğer bir faktörün de öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişime yönelik tutumları olduğu savunulabilir. Mesleki gelişim, doğası gereği daha fazla iş yükü getirecek ve daha fazla zaman ve enerji gerektirecektir. Dolayısıyla, öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişime yönelik olumlu bir tutum sergilemesi ve süreci devam ettirmeye gönüllü olması, bireysel ve birlikte öğrenmelerini kolaylaştıracak bir etkiye sahip olabilir, dolayısıyla, mesleki gelişime yönelik tutumlarının tespiti ve eğer beklenenden düşükse, iyileştirme çalışmaları yapmak gerekebilir. Öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişime yönelik tutumun yordayıcıları arasında, okul kültürü ve örgütsel güven yer almaktadır (Seashore-Louis, 2007). Bununla birlikte, ortak bir öğrenme sürecinin oluşması, öğretmenlerin ortak bir düzlemde ortak amaçlar doğrultusunda hareket edeceğine ve meslektaşların bu süreç kapsamında destek ve işbirliği sağlayacağına dair inanç, öğretmenlerin

mesleki gelişime yönelik hazırbulunuşluğuna katkıda bulunan duyuşsal faktörlerdendir (Day, 2007)

İlgili literatürden ve konuyla ilgili yapılan çalışmalardan hareketle, kollektif bir etkinlik olan değerlendirilen mesleki gelişimin çalışmalarının başarıya ulaşması için öğretmenler arasında işbirliği, ortak anlayış, eşgüdüm, koordinasyon, destek ve mentörlüğün olması önemlidir, çünkü öğretmenler hayat boyu öğrenen olduğu kadar aynı zaman da yetişkin öğrenenlerdir ve yetişkin öğrenmesi, biraz önce sözü edilen süreçleri gerektirmektedir. Mesleki gelişime yönelik bu öncüller aynı zaman da okul kültürünün de ögeleri olduğundan, okul kültürünün öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişime yönelik tutumlarını yordadığı ve örgütsel güvenin de bu ilişkiye olumlu yönde katkıda bulunduğu sonucu çıkarılabilir.

1.2.Çalışmanın Amacı ve Araştırma Sorusu

Bu çalışmanın amacı, diğer tüm örgütler gibi kendine has bir kültürü olan eğitim örgütlerinin kültürlerinin öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişime yönelik tutumlarını ne derece yordadığı ve örgütsel güvenin bu ilişkiye aracılık edip etmediğini incelemektir. Bu bağlamda, araştırman sorusu aşağıda belirtildiği şekilde belirlenmiştir:

"Okul kültürü, öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişime yönelik tutumlarını ne derece yordamaktadır? Örgütsel güvenin bu ilişki için aracı bir rolü var mıdır?"

Bu araştırma sorusuna ek olarak, okul kültürünün ögeleri ile mesleki gelişime yönelik tutum arasındaki-örgütsel güven aracılığıyla-dolaylı ilişkiler de incelenecektir.

1.3. Çalışmanın Önemi

Day (1997) öğretmenlerin hem hayat boyu hem de yetişkin öğrenenler olarak öğrenme süreçlerinin farklı olması gerektiğini iddia etmektedir. Buna göre öğretmenler, öğrenme yolcuğunda deneyimleri paylaşacakları yol arkadaşlarına ihtyiaç duymaktadırlar. Okuul kültürü bakımından, öğretmenler ortak amaçları

olan öğrencisi başarısını artırmak için işbirliği içinde çalışmalı ve mesleki gelişimlerine devam etmek için mesleki öğrenme grupları kurmlaıdırlar. Bu durum, okul kültürünün önemine dikkat çekmektedir ve bu yüzden okul kültürünün öğretmen mesleki gelişiminin önemli bir yordayıcısı olduğu düşünülmektedir.

Okul temelli mesleki gelişim çalışmalarına dikkati çeken diğer bir konu da 2014 yılında itibaren devlet okullarında uygulanmaya aşlayan okul temelli mesleki gelişim programlardıır. Buna göre Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı okullara çerçeve mesleki gelişim programları göndererek, bu programları okulların ihtiyaçlarına ve öğretmenlerin önerilerine göre düzenlemesini ister. Bu sürecin yöneticisi okul müdürüdür ve öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişimlerine devam etmeleri için öğretmenlere gerekli kaynak ve desteği sağlamak okul müdürlerinin yasal görevleri araında yer almkatadır.

Öğretmen işbirliği büyük ölçüde öğretmenler arasındaki güven timeline dayanan ilişkilere bağlıdır. Diğer bir deyişle, öğretmenlerin işbiiliği içinde olması ve ortak öğrenmesi için birbirlerine güvenmeleri şarttır. Bu bağlamda mesleki öğrenme gruplarının başarısının öğretmenler arasındaki güvene dayandığı iddia edilebilir. Bu çalışma, mesleki gelişimin yordayı ıları olarak okul kültürü ve örgütsel güveni bir arada değerlendirerek, öğretmen mesleki gelişimi için kapsamlı bir sunmaktadır.

Türkiye'de konuyla ilgili yapılmış çalışmalar oldukça az olmakta ve genellikle mesleki gelişimin nicel özelliklerine odaklanmaktadır, dolayısıyla, bu çalışma Türk literatüründe bir boşluğu dolduracak niteliktedir. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı'nın şu an yürütmekte olduğu okul temelli mesleki gelişim modelinden mesleki öğrenme topluluklarına dönüşüm çok yönlü bir planlama ve yönetim süreci gerektirmektedir. İlgili ulusal alanyazın incelendiğinde, sürece ilişkin sınırlı sayıda çalışma bulunması ve bunların süreci kapsamlı olarak ele almaması süreci iyileştirme çabalarına yardımcı olmamaktadır. Bu bağlamda, süreci çok yönlü ve kapsayıcı olarak inceleyen ve bir model önerisi sunacak

olan bu çalışmanın hem uygulayıcılara hem karar vericilere faydalı olacağı düşünülmektedir.

2. YÖNTEM

2.1. Çalışmanın Deseni

Çalışma bir bütün olarak ele alındığında, öncelikle çalışmanın, çıkarımda bulunmak ve çalışmanın başında belirlenen hipotezleri test etmek için ölçme araçlarından faydalanılan nicel bir çalışma olduğu söylenebilir. Ayrıca, çalışma kapsamında, okul kültürü, örgütsel güven ve mesleki gelişime yönelik tutum arasındaki ilişkiler inceleneceğinden, çalışmanın ilişkisel tarama yönteminden faydalanarak tasarlanmıştır (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2011).

2.2. Evren ve Örneklem

Mesleki gelişim çalışmaları tüm öğretmenler için büyük ölçüde önem arz ettiğinden, çalışmanın hedef evrenini (targeted population) Türkiye'deki tüm öğretmenler oluşturmaktır. Ancak, devlet okullarında ve özel okullarda çalışan öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişim olanakları oldukça farklı olduğundan, daha homojen bir grup olduğu varsayılarak devlet okullarında çalışan öğretmenlerle çalışmanın yürütülmesine karar verilmiştir. Çalışma İstanbul'da yürütüleceğinden, İstanbul'daki devlet okullarında çalışan öğretmenler çalışmanın evrenini oluşturmaktadır. Halihazırda, İstanbul'daki okul sayısı çok fazla olduğundan kümeleme örnekleme yöntemiyle öncelikle verilerin toplanacağı ilçeler belirlenmiştir, bunlar Fatih, Üsküdar, Bayrampaşa, Esenler ve Kartal'dır. İki kademeleri tesadüfi örnekleme yoluyla, öncelikle bu ilçelerdeki okullar ve bu okullarda çalışan katılımcılar belirlenmiştir.

Çalışma kapsamında 71 okuldan (23 ilkokul, 22 ortaokul ve 26 lise) 664 öğretmenden veri toplanmıştır. Katılımcılardan %60.4'ü (*N*=401) kadınken, %39.6'sı (*N*=263) erkektir. Yaş değişkeni açısından, 30-39 yaş arası katılımcılar toplam katılımcıların %38.9'luk oranla en geniş grubu

oluşturmaktadır. Katılımcılardan 1 ile 5 yıl arası deneyimi olanlar, deneyim değişkeni açısından en geniş alt grubu oluşturmaktadır (*N*=270). Yine aynı okulda çalışma süresi bakımından en geniş alt grubu aynı okulda 5 yıldan az çalışan katılımcılar oluşturmaktadır (*N*=550).

2.3. Veri Toplama Araçları

Çalışma kapsamında, kişisel bilgi formuna ek olarak, Okul Kültürü Envanteri, Çok Amaçlı T-Ölçeği, Mesleki Gelişime Yönelik Tutum Ölçeği ve araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen Mesleki Gelişim Anketi kullanılmıştır. Sözü edilen ölçeklerin güvenirlik ve geçerliği Cronbach Alfa hesaplanarak ve Doğrulayıcı Faktör Analizi'nden faydalanılarak kontrol edilmiştir.

Okul Kültürü Envanteri: Gruenert ve Valentine (1998) tarafından geliştirilen ölçek, Ayık (2007) tarafından Türkçe'ye uyarlanmıştır. Öğretmen İşbirliği, Mesleki Gelişim, Ortak Amaçlar, Öğrenme Ortaklığı, Meslektaş Desteği ve İşbirlikli Liderlik olmak üzere 6 alt boyutu olan ölçek 35 maddeden oluşmaktadır. İç tutarlık değeri (Cronbach Alfa) .81 bulunmuştur.

Çok Amaçlı T-Ölçeği: Hoy ve Tschannen-Moran (2003) tarafından geliştirilen ölçek, Özer, Demirtaş, Üstüner ve Cömert (2006) tarafından Türkçe'ye uyarlanmıştır. Okul Müdürüne Güven, Meslektaşlara Güven ve Paydaşlara Güven olmak üzere 3 alt boyutu olan ölçek 20 maddeden oluşmaktadır. İç tutarlık değeri (Cronbach Alfa) .88 bulunmuştur.

Mesleki Gelişime Yönelik Tutum Ölçeği: Torff, Sessions ve Byrnes (2005) tarafından geliştirilen ölçek, Özer ve Beycioğlu (2010) tarafından Türkçe'ye uyarlanmıştır. Tek boyutlu olan ölçek, toplam 6 maddeden oluşmaktadır. İç tutarlık değeri (Cronbach Alfa) .92 bulunmuştur.

Mesleki Gelişim Anketi: Araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen bu anket, katılımcıların mesleki gelişim çalışmalarını incelemeye yöneliktir. Katılımcıların mesleki gelişime çalışmalarına devam edip etmediklerini, ediyorlarsa hangi tür çalışmalarda bulundukları, onları kim desteklediğine dair bulunmaktadır.

2.4. Verilerin Toplanması

Çalışmayı yürütmek için öncelikle Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'ndan, daha sonra İstanbul İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü'nden gerekli izinler alınmıştır. Veri araştırmacı tarafından toplanmıştır. Çalışma tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır ve katılımcılardan verdikleri bilgilerin sadece bilimsel amaçlarla kullanılacağını bildiren izin formunu imzalamaları istenmiştir. Veri, 2014-2015 Eğitim-Öğretim yılında toplanmıştır.

2.5. Verilerin Analizi

Bu çalışmanın amacı, mesleki gelişime yönelik tutumların öncül ve ardıl değişkenleri belirlemek ve bu değişkenler arasındaki doğrudan ve dolaylı ilişkileri keşfetmektir. Bu bağlamda, betimsel istatistiklerden, tekli ve çoklu regresyonlardan ve tasarlanan modeli test için de Yapısal Eşitlik Modelinden faydalanışmıştır. Bahsi geçen analizler, SPSS 22.0 ve AMOS 18.0 programları kullanılarak yapılmıştır.

3. BULGULAR

Bu çalışmanın amacı, öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişime yönelik tutumlarının yordayıcısı olarak okul kültürünü ve örgütsel güvenin bu ilişkide bir aracı rolünün olup olmadığını incelemektir. Bu bağlamda, öncelikle ölçek toplam puanlarıyla Baron ve Kenny (1985) yaklaşımı temel alınarak bir aracılık testi yapılmıştır. Aracı değişkeni incelemeden önce, Baron ve Kenny (1985) üç varsayımın kontrol edilmesi gerektiğini vurgulamaktadır. Buna göre öncelikle, okul kültürünün mesleki gelişime yönelik tutumu ne derece yordadığı incelenmiştir. Yapılan tekli regresyon sonucu, okul kültürü ya da yordayıcı değişkenin, melseki gelişime yönelik tutuma ya da bağımlı değişkene ait varyansın %78'ini açıkladığını ortaya koymuştur ($F(1,662)=47.95$, $p<.05$). Daha sonra, okul kültünün örgütsel güveni ya da aracı değişkeni ne kadar yordadığı incelenmiş ve tekli regresyon soucu okul kültürünün örgütsel güvene

ait varyansın %65'ini açıkladığını ortaya koymuştur ($F(1,662)$=1215.09, p<.05). Analizin üçüncü aşamasında ise, örgütsel güvenin mesleki gelişime yönelik tutumu ne kadar yordadığı incelenmiş ve tekli regresyon sonucu, örgütsel güvenin mesleki gelişime yönelik tutuma ait varyasın %60'ını açıkladığını ortaya koymuştur ($F(1.66)$=41.81, p<.05). Analizin dördüncü ve son aşamasında ise, örgütsel güvenin aracılık rolü çoklu regresyon analizi ile test edilmiş ve okul kültürü ve örgütsel güvenin birlikte mesleki gelişimi ne kadar yordadığı incelenmiştir. Baron ve Kenny'e (1985) göre, yordayıcı değişken ve aracı değişken analize birlikte girdiğinde ikisi de hala anlamlı olarak bağımlı değişkeni yorduysa kısmi bir aracılık etkisinden bahsedilebilir. Çoklu regresyon sonucuna göre, örgütsel güven okul kültürü ile birlikte mesleki gelişime yönelik tutumu hala anlamlı olarak yordadığından, örgütsel güvenin bu ilişkide kısmi bir aracılık etkisinin olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır ($F(2,661)$=25.23, p<.05, R^2 = .71, R^2 adjusted= .68). Ardından, sonuçların güvenirliğini artırmak için, Sobel test yapılmıştır ve test sonuçları okul kültürü ile mesleki gelişime yönelik tutum arasında, örgütsel güvenin aracılığıyla anlamlı bir dolaylı ilişki olduğunu ortaya koymuştur (Test Statistics=3.35, p<.05).

Daha sonra, okul kültürü ve örgütsel güvenin alt boyutlarıyla mesleki gelişime yönelik tutum arasındaki dolaylı ilişkiler Yapısal Eşitlik Modellemesi ile incelenmiştir. Yapısal Eşit Modellemesinin, ilk aşamasında Ölçümleme Modeli aracılığıyla gizil değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiler incelenmiş ve anlamlı sonuçlara ulaşılmıştır (x^2/df = 2.81; RMSEA = .046, CFI = .94, NNFI = .92, p < .05). Daha sonra tasarlanan model, Yapısal Eşitlik Modeli ile incelenmiş ve model gizil değişkenler arasındaki anlamlı ve anlamlı olmayan ilişkiler tespit edilmiştir. Daha sonra Kline'ın (2011) önerileri dikkate alınarak anlamlı olmayan ilişkiler modelden çıkartılmıl ve modelin daha yüksek uyum indekslerinin daaha yüksek olduğu saptanmıştır (x^2/df = 1.82; RMSEA = .04, CFI = .94, NNFI = .94, p < .05). Bu modele göre, Ortak Amaçlar alt boyutu ile mesleki gelişime yönelik tutum arasında, Okul Müdürüne Güven, Meslektaşlara Güven ve Paydaşlara Güven alt boyutları aracılığıyla anlamlı

dolaylı ilişkiler bulunmaktadır. Öğretmen İşbirliği alt boyutu ile mesleki gelişime yönelik tutum arasında Meslektaşlara Güven alt boyutu aracılığıyla anlamlı dolaylı bir ilişki bulunmaktadır. Meslektaş Desteği alt boyutu ile mesleki gelişime yönelik tutum arasında Meslektaşlara Güven alt boyutu aracılığıyla anlamlı dolaylı bir ilişki bulunmaktadır. Öğretmen İşbirliği alt boyutu ile mesleki gelişime yönelik tutum arasında Meslektaşlara Güven alt boyutu aracılığıyla anlamlı dolaylı bir ilişki bulunmaktadır. Mesleki Gelişim alt boyutu ile mesleki gelişime yönelik tutum arasında Paydaşlara Güven alt boyutu aracılığıyla anlamlı dolaylı bir ilişki bulunmaktadır. Öğrenme Ortaklığı alt boyutu ile mesleki gelişime yönelik tutum arasında Meslektaşlara Güven alt boyutu aracılığıyla anlamlı dolaylı bir ilişki bulunmaktadır.

4. TARTIŞMA

4.1. Bulguların Tartışması

İlgili literatüden yola çıkılarak oluşturulan model, yukarıda da bahsedildiği gibi çok regresyon ve Yapısal Eşitlik Modeli ile incelenmiş ve okul kültürünün mesleki gelişimi anlamlı olarak yordadığı ve örgütsel güvenin bu ilişki için kısmi bir aracılık etkisinin olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır. McKay (1998) okul kültürünün öğretmenleri öğrenmeye ve mesleki gelişime teşvik eden bir atmosfer yarattığını öne sürmektedir. Benzer olarak, Wagner ve Hill (1996) de öğretmenlerin okul külütürü algısının mesleki gelişime devam etmek için en büyük etkiye sahip olduğunu iddia etmektedir. Yine bu çalışmalara ek olarak, Maynes ve meslektaşlarının (2005) çalışmasında pozitif okul kültürünün öğretmen mesleki gelişimini artırdığını ortaya koymuştur, çünkü, öğretmenler, okul kültürünü içselleştirmekte ve okul kültürünün belirlediği norm ve tutumları benimsemektedir. Bu çalışmalara ve çok regresyon analizinin sonuçlarına dayanarak, mesleki gelişime yönelik tutumun okul kültüründen ayrı düşünülemeyeceği sınucu ortaya çıkmaktadır. Ayrıca, yöneticilerine, meslektaşlarına ve paydaşlarının onlarla aynı amaçlara sahip olması ve bu

amacı gerçekleştirmek için ellerinden gelenin en iyisini yapacaklarına olan inançları, öğretmenleri kendilerini geliştirmeye teşvik edecektir. Diğer bir deyişle, öğretmenlerin duydukları örgütsel güven, sahip oldukları "grup ruhu"na katkıda bulunacak ve eğitim örgütlerinin nihai amacı olan öğrenci başarısını artırmak için mesleki gelişimlerine devam etmelerini sağlayacaktır.

Yapısal Eşitlik Modeli'nin sonuçlarına da bunu destekler niteliktedir. Li ve meslektaşları tarafından yapılan çalışma, meslektaşlar ve yöneticiler arasındaki güvene dayalı ilişkilerin olumlu bir okul kültürü yarattığını ve bu kültür sayesinde, öğretmenler arasında sağlıklı iletişim ve işbirliğini sağladığını ortaya koymuştur ve böylece öğretmenler mesleki gelişim konusunda daha olumlu tutumlara sahiptir. Bu sonuçlar aynı zamanda, bilgi aktarımı ve eğitimde fırsat ve kalite eşitliğini sağlamak için güvene dayalı ilişkilerin önemini vurgulayan pek çok diğer çalışma ile de tutarlıdır (Cook & Friend, 1991, 1995; Ebers, 1997; Hargreaves, 1994a, 1994b; Quicke, 2000; Tschannen-Moran, 2000).

Bugular aynı zamanda, öğretmenlerin ortak amaçlara sahip olduklarında, mesleki gelişim için daha istekli olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Buna ek olarak, öğretmne işbirliği ve meslektaş desteği de öğretmenleri mesleki gelişime motive etmektedir. Bu bulgular, Sergiovanni'nin paylaşılan normların, değerlerin ve amaçların resmi kural ve yönetmeliklerden daha geçerli olduğunu iddia ettiği çalışmasıyla tutarlılık göstermiştir. Aynı zamanda, Saphier ve King'in (1985) çalışmasında da okul kültürünü meydana getiren güçlü inanışların, normların ve değerlerin eğitsel süreçlerdeki sürekli iyileştirme için vazgeçilmez olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Yine, Fenwick ve Smulders (2001) ortak inanışların ve normların, mesleki gelişim planlarının uygulanmasında oldukça yardımcı olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

4.2. Öneriler

Çalışmanın bulgularına dayanarak, teoriye, pratiğe ve araştırma yönelik bazı önerilerde bulunulmuştur. Öncelikle, bu çalışma, mesleki gelişimin çeşitli

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sosyal ve bağlamsal faktörlere bağlı olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Bu yüzden mesleki gelişim planlarında, bireyselden okul temelli modele bit dönüşüm gereklidir. Ayrıca, okul temelli mesleki gelişim çalışmalarının başarısı için okuldaki yapılar, ortak amaçlar ve tutumlar ve kaynaklar gözden geçirilmeli ve okulun tüm paydaşlarına sürece dahil etmek için paydaşlar arası güvenin sağlandığından emin olmak gerekir. Bu durumda, en önemli görev okul kültürünün aktarıcısı olarak okul müdürüne düşmektedir. Buna ek olarak da, okuldaa bir mesleki öğrenme kültürü yaratmak için, öğretmenler arasındaki iletişim, işbirliği ve güven desteklenmeli ve artırılmalıdır. Yöneticiler, karar alma süreçlerinde, öğretmenlerden sürece dahil olmalarını isteyebilir. Bu durum onların okul başarısı ve etkililiği için sorumluluk hissetmesine ve görev üstlenmesine yardımcı olacaktır.

Okul kültürüne ek olarak, tüm paydaşlar arasında örgütsel güveni de artırmak için, toplantılar ya da organizasyonlar düzenlenebilir. Böylece, meslektaşlar ve diğer paydaşlar bir araya gelerek, fikirlerini paylaşabilir ve tartışabilir. Ayrıca, öğretmenlerin birbirlerine mentörlük ya da danışmanlık yapmaları da güvene dayalı ilişkiler ile mümkündür.

4.3. Gelecek Araştırmalar için Öneriler

Bu çalışma kapsamında, mesleki gelişim için, bazı sosyal, duyuşsal ve bağlamsal faktörlerin yordayıcı olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Ancak, bu değişkenler sürecin sadece bir kısmını açıklamaktadır. Dolayısıyla, sürece katkısı olabileceği düşünülen ya da ilgili çalışmaların öne sürdüğü değişkenlerle, mesleki gelişim daha geniş bir perspektiften ele alınabilir. Bu değişkenler, kollektif yeterlik algısı, akademik iyimserlik ve örgütsel bağlılık olabilir.

Diğer bir öneri de, gelecek çalışmaların boylamsal tasarlanmasıdır. Böylece, araştırmacılar durumlar arasında neden-sonuç ilişkisi kurabilir ve sürece hangi değişkenlerin nasıl daha çok katkıda bulunduğunu tespit edebilirler. Son öneri ise, çalışmaların vaka çalışması ya da analiz birimi olarak okulun alındığı

çalışmalar olarak düzenlenmesidir. Bu şekilde, okulun biricik yapısına dikkat çekilecek ve daha güvenilir ve objektif sonuçlar elde edilecektir.