UNCOVERING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENT ENGAGEMENT
AND ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE IN A PUBLIC UNIVERSITY IN TURKEY

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ABSTRACT

UNCOVERING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENT ENGAGEMENT
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Student engagement has become a seminal phenomenon in recent higher education studies since it is associated with both desirable student outcomes and the quality of higher education policies and practices. It is defined as the time and energy devoted by the students to their studies and institutional efforts to create effective educational environment. Although the literature has given in-depth comprehension about the role of organizational characteristics in engagement, there has been few studies touching upon engagement through organizational culture. Therefore, this study aimed to uncover the relationship between student engagement and organizational culture in higher education. The sample of the study, where correlational design was employed, was composed of a total of 429 students enrolled at a public university in Turkey. The data were collected with the Student Engagement Scale and the Organizational Culture Assessment Inventory (OCAI). The confirmatory factor analysis performed to the Turkish version of the OCAI confirmed its three-factor structure, and therefore, revealed three culture types: *adhocratic-clan*, *market,* and *hierarchy*. The results showed that there was a significant relationship between student engagement and these

three culture types. Furthermore, it was found out that engagement was significantly predicted by adhocratic-clan and market cultures, while it was not the case for the hierarchy culture. Overall, universities pursuing increased student engagement may consider such results in their culture building or culture change processes as well as in implementing engaging activities and guiding the organization to adopt engaging practices and policies.

ÖZ

TÜRKİYE'DEKİ BİR DEVLET ÜNİVERSİTESİNDE ÖĞRENCİ KATILIMI VE ÖRGÜTSEL KÜLTÜR ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİNİN BELİRLENMESİ

Borhan, Ersan

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Öğrenci katılımı hem istenen öğrenci kazanımları hem de yükseköğretim politika ve uygulamalarının kalitesi ile ilişkili olduğundan, son yıllardaki yükseköğretim çalışmalarında önemli bir fenomen haline gelmiştir. Öğrenci katılımı, öğrencilerin çalışmalarına ayırdıkları zaman ve enerji ve etkili bir eğitim ortamı yaratmak adına harcanan kurumsal çabalar olarak tanımlanmaktadır. İlgili literatür örgütsel özelliklerin öğrenci katılımındaki rolü hakkında kapsamlı bilgiler verse de öğrenci katılımına örgüt kültürü üzerinden değinen çok az çalışma yapılmıştır. Bu nedenle, bu çalışmada yükseköğretimde öğrenci katılımı ile örgüt kültürü arasındaki ilişkinin ortaya çıkarılması amaçlanmıştır. İlişkisel tarama deseninin kullanıldığı bu araştırmanın örneklemini bir devlet üniversitesinde kayıtlı toplam 429 öğrenci oluşturmuştur. Veriler, Öğrenci Katılımı Ölçeği ve Örgüt Kültürü Değerlendirme Envanteri (ÖKDE) ile toplanmıştır. Bu çalışmada ÖKDE'nin Türkçe formuna yapılan doğrulayıcı faktör analizi üç faktörlü yapısını doğrulamış ve toplamda üç kültür tipi – yenilikçi-takım, piyasa ve hiyerarşi – ortaya koymuştur. Sonuçlar öğrenci katılımı ile bu üç örgüt kültürü tipi arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca,

öğrenci katılımının yenilikçi-takım ve piyasa kültürleri tarafından anlamlı bir şekilde yordandığı tespit edilmiştir, fakat aynı durum hiyerarşi kültürü için geçerli değildir. Sonuç olarak, öğrenci katılımını arttırmayı hedefleyen üniversiteler, kültür inşa etme veya değişim süreçlerinde olduğu gibi, katılımı teşvik eden faaliyetlerin uygulanmasında ve örgütün katılıma yönelik uygulamalar ve politikalar benimsemesine yol göstermede bu sonuçları göz önünde bulundurabilirler.

Anahtar kelimeler: Öğrenci katılımı, örgüt kültürü, yükseköğretim

To my mother, who has always believed in me,
To my wife, who has always stand by me,
To my little son, who is the joy of my life …

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AMOS   Analysis of Moment Structures

CFA   Confirmatory Factor Analysis

CVM   Competing Values Framework

EFA   Exploratory Factor Analysis

HEI   Higher Education Institution

NSSE   National Survey of Student Engagement

OCAI   Organizational Culture Assessment Inventory

SES   Student Engagement Scale

SPSS   Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter is composed of five parts. The first part presents a background and builds a brief theoretical framework for the study. The second part provides the purpose of the study, which is critical to understand what the current study aims to reveal and to make readers familiarize with the context. In the third part, the research questions are given together with the relevant hypotheses. The fourth part, the significance of the study, explains the rationale behind conducting the present study and suggests its importance and contributions to the literature. Finally, operational definitions of the concepts discussed in this study are given in part five.

1.1 Background to the Study

The unstoppable desire of human beings to discover what is unknown or strange has remained as it is and will most probably remain one of the indispensable characteristics of it. Such a drive used to push people to pursue knowledge and to make sense of the world and its beyond throughout history. As human beings concluded a fact, they immediately found themselves in the pursuit of what was still unknown, so, at the end of the day, there was a relative accumulation of knowledge. Then, accumulated knowledge had to be conveyed to the next generation.

Education has always been great of importance throughout human history due to the appreciation of the idea to disseminate knowledge to generations, which led to the birth of educational institutions, a complementary to the family where the preliminary education was used to be provided. Hence, the knowledge and experiences that society had accumulated, especially the teachings of religions which were the preliminary sources of knowledge of humanity, were able to be passed on to the younger generations. Early times in human history were the golden age of religious institutions

to disseminate religious teachings as the fundamental source of worldly and spiritual knowledge, but modern educational institutions would replace the religious schools thanks to scientific discoveries and inventions (Kerr, 1963; Winter-Jensen, 2009).

Improvements in science, technology, and relative economic welfare resulted in the establishment of more schools focusing on liberal arts and natural sciences, which, in turn, an increase in schooling among people. Early schooling adopted 'patriarch,' 'elitist,' or 'aristocratic' characteristics especially in Europe – i.e., the only people or 'male' children of such people standing in the class of the rich, clergy, or aristocrats could attend such schools (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008). However, thanks to the relative democratization of societies due to the abolishment of empires and oligarchies, the 20th century witnessed dissemination of education to the wider milieu of societies, and the increase in the schooling rates was impressive. Globalization, scientific and technological developments, and economic welfare have also contributed to such massification of education (Scott, 1995).

Higher education has also been affected by such a massification process of education in the modern age. In the world, while the number of students enrolled in higher education institutions was 30.6 million in 1970, this number increased up to 99.9 million in 2000 and is expected to be 250.8 million in 2020 (Calderon, 2018). In fact, the term 'massification' was used to describe such a remarkable and rapid increase in the number of students in the third quarter of the 20th century (Scott, 1995). This process was assumed to be the result of democratization, globalization, and scientific developments and challenges the traditional elitist concept of university where only a few 'selected' students had the chance to access (Trow, 2000). Not interestingly, the rate of the rapid change in the enrollment size in the 'massification period' seems to be surpassed by the enrollment rates in the first quarter of the 21st century. On the other hand, Turkish higher education also experienced and kept up with such a massification movement in numbers of students and higher education institutions and is still hosting the increasing number of students. While total number of students were 41,574 between 1974-1981, it increased to about 2 million in 2003 (Günay & Günay, 2016). In 2019, the total number of students enrolled in Turkish HEIs were about 7.5 million.

(Yükseköğretim Bilgi Yönetim Sistemi, 2019). Besides, while there were only 3 universities in Turkey two decades after the proclamation of the Republic, this number was 18 in the 70s. The establishment of the Council of Higher Education in 1981 resulted in a relative centralization in the governance of and uniformity in access to public universities. Such a radical change and the related act enforced in the same year, allowing the establishment of private (foundation) universities, accelerated the establishment of universities and increased enrollment sizes. Moreover, the governmental policies to disseminate higher education in each city of Turkey have resulted a rapid increase in the number of HEIs. Today, there are 129 public and 72 private universities in Turkey (Yükseköğretim Bilgi Yönetim Sistemi, 2019).

In the massification period, many millions of students enroll in higher education institutions (HEIs) for diverse purposes. However, what attracts students to spend their times in HEIs mostly is primarily lies under the notion of 'upward mobility' (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008), which favors the enrollment in a HEI to obtain degrees and credentials to join working life to move an upward class against the enrollment of the ones whose social class are already granted by their parents. Hence, people are still seeking to be university graduates to get a niche job to offer better living conditions for themselves and their beloved ones, and this has not been changed since the establishment of community colleges in the USA (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008). Besides, this is why universities are still considered to be places where the knowledge is acquired, produced, and disseminated and are expected to be organizations to mediate the change process of society and to adapt the changes to respond to the needs of its stakeholders, primarily students.

On the other hand, regardless of their purposes, students become a part of the academy with what they bring in – i.e., pre-college characteristics – once they have enrolled and started to experience what is offered by the HEIs (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Therefore, a new environment is introduced to the young, and they get their shares among unique experiences in this simulation. Such experiences are mostly related to HEI-specific characteristics, such as campus life, academic workload, staff and peer interactions, etc. Nevertheless, student experiences have always remained uncovered

and straightforward in the academy inasmuch as the higher education studies have used macro lenses and focused on structural elements to reveal the issues about HEIs. Changing demands in the 21st century and the massification in higher education have made it imperative to use micro lenses and scrutinize student experiences, as well as organizational aspects, to fully understand the current phenomena and to solve inherent problems in HEIs.

There are two reasons for the recent emphasis on student experiences in HEIs. First, institutions, educators, and students are increasingly challenged by governments and the private sector to contribute to national socio-economic welfare. Put another way, both public and private organizations increasingly emphasize student success, high level of course completion, and getting a qualification for employment with acquiring lifelong learning philosophy (Yorke, 2006). Besides, the marketization and internationalization of higher education have resulted in student-centered pedagogy and constructivist curriculum oriented at student experiences, which is considered to be a key for the survival of HEIs in the higher education market (Wanner, 2015). Second, as to be discussed further in the later stages of this study, student experiences have great importance since the substantial body of literature has revealed that the quality of student experiences is the primary determinant of students outcomes, especially student learning and success (Astin, 1999; Feldman & Newcomb, 1969; Kuh et al., 1997; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

Several authors have tried to conceptualize student experiences in time. History of the studies on student experience dates back to the initial research of Joseph Tyler investigating how much time students devote to their works – 'time on task' – and its effects on student learning and success (Axelson & Flick, 2010). Nevertheless, the conceptualization of student experiences in HEIs formed the ground for contemporary literature, thanks to the study of Robert Pace. He gained the term 'quality of effort' and argued that students would gain more from collegial experiences once they devoted more time and energy to curricular and extra-curricular tasks: studying, interacting with others (peers and staff), and implementing what they acquired to real-life situations (Pace, 1990). Then, the term 'student involvement' was coined by

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Alexander Astin, who proposed that the quality and quantity of energy that physically and psychologically devoted to college experiences by the student would determine its involvement. The rate of that involvement, therefore, would determine the learning (Astin, 1999). On the other hand, Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) conceptualized such experiences from the side of HEIs and proposed that institutions needed to focus on how to shape their practices and policies on academic, extracurricular, and interpersonal dimensions to foster student experiences in universities.

Contemporarily, George Kuh (2001) has consolidated what conceptualizations have been offered to describe student experiences and what has been proposed for such experiences and their relationships so far. Therefore, he has coined the term 'student engagement' to describe the collegial experiences of students. The term 'engagement' is unequivocally and inextricably acknowledging students' HEI experiences, which are expected to be meaningful and to go beyond living what is offered by the external environment. Engagement means more than just involvement or participation (Trowler, 2010) since involvement is only interested in what a person does to get involved, albeit engagement has a concern for both the actions of students and offerings of the institutions that should be perceived by the students as supportive and valuing (Wolf-Wendel et al., 2009). Hence, Kuh (2003) has incorporated previous research and makes a comprehensive definition of student engagement as the time and energy devoted by the students to educationally purposeful activities in the colleges and effort of the institutions to create effective educational practices and environment for students. Although different authors used different terminologies for student experiences, their views are based on a simple and compelling premise that what is learned primarily stems from the harmony of what the students do in the college and what colleges do for their students (Pike & Kuh, 2005).

Although student engagement has some but similar conceptualizations regarding its nature and associated dimensions, the assumption remains the same and two-legged. Engagement is a process where students exhibit meaningful and purposeful involvement in both academic and extracurricular activities, and institutional practices make such involvement enriching and satisfying. Nevertheless, the 'student' side of

the engagement notion always transcends the 'institution' side. Literature extensively focuses on student behaviors and characteristics to describe student engagement, but institutional factors are of secondary importance. Educational experiences and academic challenge offered (Coates, 2007; Kuh, 2001; Zepke & Leach, 2010), teaching and teachers' attitudes and behaviors (Bryson & Hand, 2007; Collaço, 2017; Duŝević, 2015), support services (Kuh & Gonyea, 2015; Leach, 2016; Zepke & Leach, 2010), institutional environment (Astin, 1999; LaNasa et al., 2007; Umbach & Porter, 2002; Zhao & Kuh, 2004), institutional mission (Kezar & Kinzie, 2006), reputation and accessibility (Duŝević, 2015; Trowler, 2010), institutional governance and leadership (Carey, 2018; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Trowler, 2010), and faculty culture (Kuh & Whitt, 1988) are the institutional factors having predictive values on student engagement. What is critical here is such engagement-specific institutional characteristics are also addressed within organizational studies. That is to say, elucidating the overarching construct of student engagement exponentially to institutional characteristics one by one deserves great credit. However, it pushes us to examine the engagement with a more compact concept where such characteristics coexist, namely, organizational culture. Institutions adopting student-centered practices and policies, having a focus on student success in their mission statements and operating philosophies, taking advantage of their physical campus environments for enriched students' learning experiences are considered to be successful in a higher level of student engagement than others regardless of size, structure, selectivity level, and standing (public-private). In other words, organizational culture in HEIs may explain what distinguishes successful student engagement in such schools compared to others (Pike & Kuh, 2005).

Culture is not only a principal issue for business-oriented organizations but also has become a topic that draws considerable attention in higher education since the globalization and increasing competitiveness in the global economy with social, technological, and scientific developments have created an unprecedented pressure on HEIs to respond such a dynamic environment. It requires extensive adaptations, including the transformation of education and research, as well as organizational characteristics (Kezar & Eckel, 2002). Academic institutions are considered as

organizations performing the business of transmitting and bring meaning to both students, academics, administrative staff, and ultimately to the entire community (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008). Therefore, Bergquist and Pawlak (2008) adopt an academic perspective based on the generic definitions of organizational culture and perceive culture in HEIs a means to create order out of complexity to understand the behaviors of the ones leagued together in these institutions by shaping the present and future of them through structures they created and shared beliefs and assumptions they hold. Such a perception may result in two fundamental deductions for the culture in HEIs. First, culture in HEIs is the primary determinant of the personality of the institution and shapes all educational and extracurricular activities based on behavioral patterns operating with shared assumptions. Second, apart from of the industrial organizations, organizational culture in universities should be addressed as a special case since an HEI is a system that is organized around the principles of knowledge and learning and functions as a medium for the relations of distinct stakeholders, such as internal relations among administration, staff, and students; external relations with industry, society, alumni, and prospective students and their parents; and relations with other educational organizations for either competition or collaboration (Vasyakin et al., 2016). Accordingly, the definition of organizational culture can be updated for HEIs, which is

> … the collective, mutually shaping patterns of institutional history, mission, physical settings, norms, traditions, values, practices, beliefs, and assumptions that guide the behavior of individuals and groups in an institution of higher education and which provide a frame of reference for interpreting the meanings of events and actions on and off-campus (Kuh & Whitt, 1988, p.12).

It seems clear that organizational culture has a great deal of responsibility on student engagement since the engagement concept has been perceived as two-legged as a result of the research for clarifying the student experiences in colleges: student experiences and institutional characteristics. Although a limited number of studies have tried to open a room for the relationship between student engagement and organizational culture, the literature extensively focuses on the institutional/faculty characteristics to give meaning to student engagement. That is to say, the pieces of organizational culture in HEIs (institutional environment, mission, reputation, accessibility,

governance, and leadership, and departmental culture) have been well-defined and scrutinized for successful student engagement in the literature. What remains critical here is to distill the abstract and blurred relationship between organizational culture and student engagement and to reveal a tangible and straight framework to determine engagement within a tailored understanding of culture in HEIs. Ultimately, by piecing organizational characteristics together into organizational culture, uncovering the relationship between student engagement and cultural typologies, which are believed to co-exist in HEIs, seems to be pretty much significant to reveal the actual situation – both for student engagement and organizational culture – in HEIs and to bring the student voice to educational and administrative processes for quality assurance.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

What makes a university distinct from other organizations relies on its organizational culture embodying its characteristics as well as relations with diverse stakeholders. The complexity and diversity of these relations and overall institutional characteristics make it necessary to investigate the organizational culture in HEIs in reliance on the student attitudes towards and engagement in them. The literature has extensively dominated by the studies revealing that institutional characteristics are highly predictive of student engagement. Although few studies attempted to consider such characteristics under the concept of organizational culture and to outline cultural milieu embracing engagement of the students based on the previous findings on the relationship between organizational culture and engagement, what we have now is nothing more than suggesting an abstract or fragmented picture of the case. Therefore, it is needed to examine the phenomenon compactly with the help of framing the organizational culture in HEIs, namely, cultural models.

On the other hand, it is impossible to suggest a cultural uniformity in HEIs. In other words, the assumption that only one culture type can be adopted in a university is not appropriate because more than one culture type may co-exist in the university context (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008; McNay, 1995) due to the unique characteristics of universities distinguishing them from other business-oriented organizations, i.e.,

governance model, multi-disciplinary environment, relationships with internal and external bodies, etc. Therefore, it is not prudent to mention that a university environment has a 'dominant culture' as well as sub-cultures among its members (Kuh, 2002). Accordingly, in this study, while it is important to address student engagement based on the dominant culture of the university among clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy cultures, which are the archetypes of organizational culture that emerged within the Competing Values Framework (Cameron & Quinn, 2011), it is also critical to consider the other three culture types to draw a holistic framework for the relationship between engagement and organizational culture.

Then, although the basic premise of the organizational culture is that there should be a consensus among members in terms of shared assumptions of the organization, culture, especially in academic institutions, is not perceived and experienced uniformly (Read et al., 2003). Some students perceive the university culture may be uninviting, foreign, or alienating, so the engagement of such students may turn into a battle (Trowler, 2010). On the other hand, students who perceive it as accepting, supportive, and who develop a sense of belonging to the university will experience a much more successful engagement process (Zepke & Leach, 2010). Such findings also suggest that the organizational culture is the key factor for student engagement, but the personal differences should be considered in perceiving culture. Therefore, investigating the culture types from the viewpoint of students instead of using the traditional methods (i.e., document review, surveying the staff, etc.) will mean much more for understanding their engagement.

Finally, in the context of Turkish higher education, the Council of Higher Education asserts that Turkish universities follow the dynamics of the information society, value producing alumni who have acquired universal qualifications, and improve the quality assurance in education (Yükseköğretim Bilgi Yönetim Sistemi, 2019). Nevertheless, public universities in Anatolian cities, especially the ones established after 2006, still have discrepancies in terms of education, governance, and culture-building (Doğan, 2013; Fidan, 2011). For example, there are few or no students enrolled in some departments due to regional disadvantages, although there is adequate staff employed

in these departments. Or, there is a shortage of staff in some departments (Doğan, 2013). Some still adopt strict bureaucratic procedures and behave like other public institutions. In either way – i.e., quality assurance in education and culture building/change -, the student voice and engagement are never asked. Therefore, it seems critical to touch upon the engagement issue of Turkish higher education through a public university to depict the current situation and relate it to the organizational culture. It is to present a pioneering mini example to the other universities regarding deploying or building an embodying culture to increase student engagement and to achieve high-quality standards in education.

Overall, in light of such a background, the purpose of the study is to uncover the relationship between university students' engagement and the organizational culture in a public university in Turkey.

1.3 Research Questions and Hypotheses

The main research question of the present study is:

- Do the organizational culture types in higher education significantly predict student engagement?

Based on the research question, the hypotheses of the study are as following:

H1a: The clan culture significantly predicts student engagement.

H1b: The adhocracy culture significantly predicts student engagement.

H1c: The market culture significantly predicts student engagement.

H1d: The hierarchy culture does not significantly predict student engagement.

1.4 Significance of the Study

It seems that demand for education, especially for higher education, will not end but will be increasing in the next decades. As a response to such demand along with the relative effects of neoliberal politics and globalization, the 21st century has witnessed such immense massification in higher education that it is much more striking than in the previous century. However, the increase in the number has never granted the quality in such institutions, and different sectors of society challenge HEIs to contribute to economic welfare and to be the engine for the improvements based on quality assurance. Besides, every educational institution pursues a certain degree of achievement while realizing its primary mission and desires to be ranked among others with the help of 360-degree effectiveness and efficiency in teaching, research, facilities, and services. It is well-known that this will ensure institutions' survival in the global higher education market, and only such institutions will remain as reputable. Only such institutions can sustain their shares in the 'higher education pie' within governments, private sectors, and diverse student bodies (Wanner, 2015). At this point, student engagement has become the major focus in higher education to enhance teaching and learning, the hot topic in meting agendas, and the primary theme in conferences around the world (Trowler, 2010). Therefore, understanding student engagement may open a room for a distinct perspective to re-assess the educational quality and to solve certain problems of universities facing today. There is substantial evidence that student engagement has positive effects on both desired student outcomes and operational issues within universities. Then, the present study will depict the student engagement phenomenon within the contemporary paradigm for all the stakeholders of higher education in our country to raise their awareness and to enable them to touch upon the issues mentioned earlier from an engagement perspective.

In addition, outputs of student engagement studies guide a number of bodies in developed countries, from governmental agencies to university stakeholders, to adapt their practices and policies for constant enrichment of educational and operational activities in the way of increasing student engagement. Even, the results of the national surveys, such as the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE), have become

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instruments that are considered while ranking the universities and one of the major factors determining the financial allocations of public universities in the USA. Accordingly, HEIs are called for "taking deliberate steps to engage all students, individually and collectively, as partners in the assurance and enhancement of their educational experience" (Quality Assurance Agency, 2012, p. 4). Hence, striving for successful engagement makes some institutional practices essential, such as deploying student affairs professionals and educational developers within the institution or opening centers for doing engagement plans (Trowler, 2010). Ultimately, though limited, the data to be obtained from the research will relatively reveal the current situation regarding student engagement in a public university. They can be used to initiate engagement practices to be put on the agenda of that university, to decide preliminary engagement-enhancing strategies, or to develop existing bodies working on student engagement.

On the other hand, several aspects have been considered to define and to frame organizational culture in the institutions. For example, (Tierney, 1988) evaluated organizations from the aspects of environment, mission, socialization, information, strategy, and leadership while proposing a solid framework for organizational culture. In the Competitive Values Framework, the aspects discussed while modeling the culture typologies in organizations are dominant characteristics, leadership, management, organizational bonds, strategy, and criteria of success. Nevertheless, the literature tends to ignore student or student-specific aspects within organizational culture studies in educational institutions, although students are the primary beneficiaries of educational activities and the reason for the existence of such institutions. Earlier in this study, it was proposed two reasons why culture studies should recognize the student aspect. First, the organizational culture should be addressed within the context of student engagement due to the predictive effects of institutional characteristics on student engagement. Second, there are personal differences in the perception of culture among students. Now, this study will both explore the organizational culture around the student engagement phenomenon and evaluates the culture of a public university within specific culture typologies from the student perspective, which is considered to make significant contributions to the

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relevant literature. Besides, the results of the study can initiate the change process in HEIs regarding student engagement and be preliminary output for newly opened universities in our country to adopt the engagement-sensitive organizational culture. Last but not least, this research will contribute to the Turkish literature where student engagement is conceived of the research limited to school context and organizational culture studies are lack of diverse perspectives.

1.5 Operational Definitions

The present study is built on the relationship between student engagement and organizational culture types seen in universities: *the clan culture, the adhocracy culture, the market culture, and hierarchy culture*. The definitions of these concepts are as follows:

Student Engagement: "the time and effort students devote to activities that are empirically linked to desired outcomes of college and what institutions do to induce students to participate in these activities" (Kuh, 2009, p. 683).

Clan Culture: The organizational culture compatible with this type is characterized by a friendly organization where everybody shares a lot of themselves as if they were family members (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Adhocracy Culture: The organizational culture compatible with this type is characterized by a dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative organization where everybody take risks (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Market Culture: The organizational culture compatible with this type is characterized by an organization with result-oriented works. Competitiveness and achieving targets are the most important concerns. (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Hierarchy Culture: The organizational culture compatible with this type is characterized by an organization with formal and structural alignment (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter presents the previous research on student engagement and organizational culture in higher education. It gives wide coverage to theoretical frameworks that have been previously established for both study variables, significant findings for student engagement, and the research exploring the relationship between student engagement and organizational culture. Finally, the research questions are restated, and relevant hypotheses of this study are uttered.

2.1 Student Engagement

The term engagement has its roots in the meaning of "formal promise" from the 1620s, "a battle or fight between armies or fleets" from the 1660s, and "state of having entered into a promise of marriage" (Online Etymology Dictionary, n.d.). In addition to such meanings, the contemporary meaning of the term addresses "the fact of being involved with something" and "the process of encouraging people to be interested in the work of an organization" (Cambridge Dictionary, n.d.). Therefore, in the educational setting, the term engagement may hint at the student experiences while involving in or showing effort for their own learning within educational activities.

Student engagement is a far-reaching construct that can be defined in various ways (Zepke & Leach, 2010). Although there is no consensus among the scholars on what the concept of student engagement explicitly says and offers to today's educational milieu, some of the pioneering studies define it and shape its contemporary understanding. These studies have initiated what should be regarded during the education journey of students to understand the dynamics of learning and teaching issues in educational institutions. In the 1930s, Ralph Tyler investigated how and what ways students learned their subjects and found that spending time on the subject and

showing meaningful efforts for the educational activities created significant positive learning, which is known as the theory of 'time on task' (as cited in Kuh, 2009). Such a finding may be insignificant and straightforward today, but initiated subsequent studies to focus on student experiences to understand their learning dynamics since the fundamental assumption for the college achievement was that student should own certain traits, and their demographics were used to be perceived as the primary determinant of outcomes they would obtain.

Nevertheless, the studies of Robert Pace between the 1960s and 70s gave the result and challenged the holy assumption of the college impact literature along with other subsequent studies and the preliminary results of the College Student Experiences Questionnaire (Gonyea et al., 2003). Then, previous discussions were extended into student experiences, and engagement and colleges were suggested to measure student behaviors along with the direct learning outcomes. The underlying presumption of what was asserted by Pace (1990) is that students learn and benefit when they exert more effort in utilizing what is offered by the institution for their learning and growth. Then, the term 'quality of effort' was coined to describe such a unique interaction between students and their institutions and to summarize what matters for student learning and development in colleges. In this understanding of engagement, time stands for the frequency of engagement-oriented student behaviors, and effort refers to what extend student involves in educational activities (Pace, 1990).

In the later decade, Alexander Astin extended the scope of the concept in the initial engagement studies and introduced the 'student involvement' theory. The involvement concept was originally developed based on the antecedent theories – time on task and quality of effort – (Trowler, 2010) and adopts commonalities with them besides what the college impact literature had proposed before (Astin, 1999). Thus, student involvement is defined as the amount of physical and psychological energy that the student devotes to the academic experience (Astin, 1999). He also depicted the differences between involved and uninvolved students in terms of studying the subject, the time spent on campus, participation in extracurricular activities, and interactions with others. While addressing the engagement issue, he built his theory on the

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interactions of three basic tenets. The first is 'inputs,' which are related to students' demographics; the second is 'environment,' which refers to the experiences of students during college years; and the third is 'outcomes,' which address what the students have gained after the graduation (Astin, 1999). Even, Pascarella's influential model of assessing the college impact on the student was mainly built on these three tenets (I-E-O) with the inclusion of 'quality of effort' (Kuh et al., 2006). The involvement theory, which is the most influential one for the contemporary student engagement, suggested five basic postulates to externalize the abstract nature of the phenomenon and to set an in-depth understanding by indicating specific points of the phenomenon, which were not uncovered by the previous studies. First, involvement means an investment of physical and psychosocial energy in both generalized and specific events in an educational setting. Secondly, involvement is a phenomenon that occurs along a continuum, and the amount of energy devoted varies among students. Thirdly, involvement involves both quantitative and qualitative aspects. Then, students can only learn or develop to the extent of the quality and quantity of their involvement in educational activities. Finally, the effectiveness and quality of educational policies and practices can be measured through their capacities to increase involvement (Astin, 1999).

It can be advocated that involvement and its antecedent concepts deserve great credit on shaping what would eventually become today's student engagement understanding (Boatman & Long, 2016) in student development. What the most remarkable asset of theories implying involvement was to have opened a (limited) perspective to understand how learning and growth were realized at their times. These earlier definitions and concepts of student engagement put a burden on students for their own engagement with the institution. They assume that learning is merely the responsibility of students; they can manage their engagement behaviorally; there is no point in touching all other aspects of the educational process for a successful engagement.

Nevertheless, the current understanding of student engagement fills two gaps in the involvement theories. The first, as mentioned above, is the involvement theories assume the learning and success occurs only with the students' efforts and

responsibility. However, it should be acknowledged that learning is a shared responsibility between students and their institutions (Nelson Laird et al., 2008). The second, regarding the responsibility of the institution, is what the institution offers is no grounds to the extent of how a student gets engaged in educational activities. Therefore, asserting that educational and learning quality is pretty well-predicted by student engagement that cannot underestimate the institutional share in it, George Kuh has brought a comprehensible definition of student engagement in the 2000s. According to him, it is the time and energy devoted by the students to educationally purposeful activities in the colleges and efforts of the institutions to create effective educational practices and environments for students (Kuh, 2009). Although George Kuh and Alexander Astin suggested that the terms involvement and engagement had no essential differences and temporal depictions of almost the same phenomenon (Axelson & Flick, 2010), engagement means more than just involvement or participation (Trowler, 2010). Involvement is only interested in what a person does to get involved, albeit engagement has a concern for both the actions of students and offerings of the institutions that should be perceived by the students as supportive and valuing (Wolf-Wendel et al., 2009).

Ultimately, engagement is not the outcome resulted in thanks to the intervention of either level (student or institution) alone; instead, it emerges from the interactions and contributions of the players on both sides (Trowler, 2010). In this sense, students should not be deemed as the ones predominantly responsible for their engagement, but teachers and administrators need to foster the institutional conditions and offerings to ensure the engagement of students with diverse backgrounds and characteristics (Harper & Quaye, 2009). Based on her review of the literature, Trowler has incorporated the discussions on the student engagement concept and suggested a definition of it, which is totally complied with the fundamental assumptions of the concept, to expand its perception in minds. In her understanding, student engagement:

> … is concerned with the interaction between the time, effort, and other relevant resources invested by both students and their institutions intended to optimize the student experience and enhance the learning outcomes and development of students and the performance, and reputation of the institution (Trowler, 2010, p. 2).

The student engagement concept can be externalized based on an easily understood and straightforward premise. It can be both applied in practical life in an educational setting, and it has certain promises. Accordingly, as students spend time studying a subject, they inevitably have a chance to boost their knowledge of it. When they are offered more chances to practice and to get feedback from the staff members on their educational in- and out-of-class activities, they will gain an in-depth understanding of what they learn, which makes them prudent to deal with complexity, to accept ambiguity, and to work with others from diverse backgrounds and views. Besides, engaging in various educationally purposeful and extracurricular activities ensures the development of dispositions and skills that grant a more satisfying life after graduation (Kuh, 2009).

As such, defining student engagement and putting forward its basic premises are not adequate to fully understand the construct; rather, it is still needed to unleash how engagement occurs among students since acknowledging the engagement phenomenon universally should be supported with a conceptual clarity to save it from being a bare idea that can mean anything to anyone (Carey, 2018). The research into student engagement and efforts to uncover such a phenomenon in detail have come through many years of inquiry of learning and development, which can identify conditions and activities associated with effective student development and, consequently, student engagement (Coates, 2007).

2.2 Theoretical Frameworks for Student Engagement

2.2.1 Kuh's Student Engagement Theory

One of the most influential models, developed and interpreted by George Kuh in 2001, has drawn a framework for student engagement, and regarded engagement comprising certain student and institutional behaviors. Accordingly, the engagement phenomenon can be observed and measured through a model with five fundamental tenets. First, *academic challenge*, is classically defined as the time required for the assigned tasks and the amount of student effort in such academic works, which implies that

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engagement level is influenced by the extent of how much students study to meet such requirements of a course. They need creative and intellectually stimulating academic tasks to boost and maintain their engagement (Gonyea & Kuh, 2009). The second, *active and collaborative learning*, refers to the requirement of thinking about and applying what is learned in diverse settings and working together with peers in- and out-of-classroom (Gonyea & Kuh, 2009). Courses utilizing such methods are of great importance on the engagement levels of students (Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005). Third, *student-faculty interaction*, refers to the quality of interactions between students and faculty staff (Kuh, 2001). High-quality and borderless interactions may facilitate the learning process and effective teaching in the classroom, students' positive perceptions about the instructors (Evans et al., 2013), and their social integration (Tinto, 1975). Faculty members contribute to the engagement outside the classroom as their mentors and advisors for career development and extracurricular activities (Gonyea & Kuh, 2009). Fourth, *enriching educational experiences*, consists of learning activities performed by deploying attractive and influential in-class pedagogical methods or extracurricular activities and programs outside the class serving as a complement to the objectives of an academic program (Kuh, 2001). Such experiences result in higher levels of engagement (Zhao & Kuh, 2004). Fifth, *supportive campus environment*, is where students perform better, become more satisfied and committed, and develop quality relationships with others (Kuh, 2009). It is also defined as the quality of relationships students develop with others and service benefits for students (Gonyea & Kuh, 2009). Thanks to such quality relationships, students may have a sense of belonging to the campus and classroom setting, which is a direct predictor of their outcomes and engagement (Freeman et al., 2007). These five tenets forming the contemporary model of student engagement also constitute the benchmarks of the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) and its sister measures that have been used to measure student engagement in several countries.

On the other hand, contemporary definition and the above-mentioned framework of the student engagement focus only educationally meaningful 'activities' and suggest an engagement concept involving quality of student behaviors and institutional activities to create an environment stimulating the student engagement (Milburn-Shaw

& Walker, 2017). Besides, this is the widely accepted perspective of student engagement in the higher education research and predominating view deployed in the measurement tools, which continually emphasizes student behaviors and teaching/institutional practices (Kahu, 2013). Even, it was argued that the NSSE's benchmarks became the hallmarks to understand better the student engagement concept (Kezar & Kinzie, 2006).

Although the definition of student engagement remains the same, the research perspective and such a modeling attempt of the engagement construct are criticized being too focused on student behaviors and institutional attitudes in understanding student engagement. It is suggested that engagement is a deeply-rooted and more complex process than depicted in surveys (Zepke, 2014), which are built on the widely-adopted, behavior-driven model despite allowing exploration of the roles of several variables in building the concept (Kahu, 2013). It is also asserted that trying to understand student engagement through only behavioral perspective means missing useful information that would enrich the understanding of the student engagement (Kahu, 2013). To sum, it may be highly misguiding to emphasize student behaviors in higher education as indicative of the engagement, and such an approach only allows us to be able to see only one part of the elephant (Milburn-Shaw & Walker, 2017).

2.2.2 School Engagement Framework

It can be asserted that engagement requires emotions, sense-making, and action (Harper & Quaye, 2009) since "acting without feeling engaged is just involvement or even compliance; feeling engaged without acting is dissociation" (Trowler, 2010, p. 5). In light of such extending evaluations, a more inclusive model was uttered for student engagement by expounding the engagement issue at the school level. According to Fredericks and her colleagues, student engagement is a complex, multifaceted, and overreaching concept that can only be meaningful thanks to the diverse perspectives of the research conducted on student learning and achievement (Fredricks et al., 2004). They assert that the engagement is a meta-construct where the fusion of more than one dimension suggests a meaningful understanding of it. In this

sense, the engagement perspective should be expanded in the way of inclusion of student emotions and psychology, as well as behaviors. Behavior may be an indicator of engagement, but some students may exhibit apparent signs for a fruitful engagement process while the actual situation may be that they are totally disengaged or isolated from a lecture or academic task. Or, they psychologically invest in the educational process but reveal few or none of the behavioral attributes that are directly linked with engagement (Axelson & Flick, 2010). Then, engagement can be described in three ways.

The first is *behavioral engagement*, which refers to the idea of participation and implies the involvement in academic activities as well as extracurricular ones. Therefore, this type of engagement is composed of three elements: following positive conduct and rules including attendance to class, involving in learning with spending considerable time with tasks and in-class activities, and extensive participation in social activities within the campus (Fredricks et al., 2004). This type of engagement can be considered to be built on the classical and robust perspective of student engagement, whose history is extensively discussed above. Behavioral engagement is seen as critical for obtaining positive academic outcomes and hindering the dropout rates through qualitatively high engagement resulting in a greater commitment to the institution (Fredricks et al., 2004).

The second is *emotional engagement*, which embodies all kinds of reactions of the students to staff, peers, academics, and the institution and influences students' developing an attachment to the institution and willingness to do tasks. Emotional engagement is the broader one among others since it also includes attachment and belonging to the institution, enjoyment and interest in the task, and student motivation. Thus, it is not easy to describe and measure this perspective and to make clear distinctions among students in terms of engagement (Fredricks et al., 2004; Kahu, 2013).

The third is *cognitive engagement*, which stems from the idea of investment and integrates consideration and willingness to make efforts to understand complex issues

and to acquire difficult skills in educational activities (Fredricks et al., 2004). It is directly linked to the intellectual process. It is related to students' self-regulation, use of learning strategies (Fredricks et al., 2004), the class activities and learning objectives, self-control, and planning (Günüç, 2016). It also incorporates certain student characteristics, such as motivation, expectation, and self-efficacy (Kahu, 2013).

It is proposed that there are positive and negative poles within each of these dimensions, representing distinct forms of engagement, and there is also a non-engagement pole (withdrawal) that separates these poles. Namely, a student may engage positively or negatively or show disengagement along behavioral, emotional, and cognitive dimensions of the engagement construct (Trowler, 2010). For example, students that are positively engaged along the three dimensions may have high class attendance and high participation to both in-class activities and extracurricular events (behavioral); may develop positive attitudes towards classmates, instructors, subjects, and the institution, interest in educational and social activities taking place within the campus setting (emotional); and may exert more flexible skills against problems, more investments in learning, efforts to identify learning-specific needs and to develop intellectual strategies (cognitive) (Fredricks et al., 2004). The forms of engagement may occur interchangeably, i.e., while a student shows positive engagement in the behavioral dimension, it may be totally disengaged in the cognitive dimension, which is depicted below.

Table 2.1

Examples of the forms of engagement

	Positive engagement	***Non-engagement***	***Negative engagement***
Behavioral	Attends lectures, participates with enthusiasm	Skip lectures without excuse	Boycotts, pickets or disrupts lectures
Emotional	Interest	Boredom	Rejection
Cognitive	Meets and exceeds assignment requirements	Assignments late, rushed, or absent	Redefines parameters for assignments

Note. From "*Student Engagement Literature Review,*" by V. Trowler, 2010, Higher Education Academy, p. 6. Copyright 2010 by The Higher Education Academy.

Such an approach to student engagement has broken the domination of behavioral view, which has been evolving since the involvement theories and shaping the measurement tools (Astin, 1999; Kahu, 2013; Kuh, 2001; Milburn-Shaw & Walker, 2017). It has discussed the construct through a broader perspective with its behavioral, emotional, and cognitive dimensions and revealed what processes students experience while engaging (or disengaging) in their learning. In this sense, it can be considered a more robust framework proposed for student engagement. However, the framework is only interested in the student side of the engagement phenomenon. It evaluates the current understanding of engagement by highly emphasizing student-focused processes but misses the institutional role in the engagement.

2.2.3 Günüç's Student Engagement Framework

It is well-known that the student engagement is characterized with what students thoughtfully do for their learning and effort of the institutions to create effective educational practices and environment for students (Astin, 1999; Coates, 2007; Kuh, 2003; Pike & Kuh, 2005; Wolf-Wendel et al., 2009). Based on the inherent nature of student engagement with institutional factors, several authors have also developed

suggestions to institutions about how to boost student engagement for successful student engagement (Chickering & Gamson, 1987; Zepke & Leach, 2010). In this regard, deploying a student engagement framework with three dimensions (behavioral, emotional, and cognitive), including the institutional factors, reveals an overreaching understanding of student engagement. Hence, Günüç's student engagement framework was utilized in this study.

Günüç (2016) incorporated two engagement tenets based on the preliminary study of Fredericks and her colleagues and identified a student engagement model, in which both students' efforts are addressed not only with behavioral perspective but also considering their emotional and cognitive statuses in the process. Also, institutional factors are integrated to complete the whole picture of the construct. In his hybrid theory, Günüç, (2016) suggested that there would remain unsatisfactory to explain student engagement from an aspect focusing heavily on students, but that it was necessary to explain the phenomenon together with its institutional complement. According to him, student engagement has 2 fundamental dimensions: class engagement and campus engagement. In this model, the 'class engagement' dimension is addressed with three indispensable elements of student engagement (behavioral, cognitive, and emotional).

Behavioral engagement, as in the theory of Frederick and her colleagues, refers to students' efforts and participation in all kinds of in-class or out-class academic and educational activities. A student is considered as a behaviorally engaged when it asks questions, participates actively in-class activities, and shows a considerable effort to learn the subject. Behavioral engagement highlights and is highly associated with students' participation in campus and class activities. It is the most frequently used engagement indicator in the literature since it is a rather observable and measurement friendly dimension of student engagement (Fredricks et al., 2004; Günüç, 2016).

Cognitive engagement is conceived of students' approaches and understandings to their own learning. It covers the investment in learning, valuing what has been learned in the class environment, setting learning objectives, self-control, and planning. In

other words, cognitive engagement implies students who invest their own learning, identifying what is needed for effective learning, and enjoys cognitive challenges (Fredricks et al., 2004; Günüç, 2016). Therefore, cognitive engagement is highly associated with academic achievement (Walker et al., 2006). Moreover, cognitive engagement is shown as a prerequisite for behavioral engagement because it is suggested that students must be ready cognitively to be able to ask questions about the subject and to participate in academic activities (Günüç, 2016).

Emotional engagement means students' affective responses, including their approaches, interests, and values related to their teachers, peers, subjects, and classrooms. While the state of emotional engagement is related to positive emotions, such as happiness and high interests of students in the classroom, emotional disengagement appears with negative emotions, such as boredom and worry during academic activities. The positive affective and social climate of a classroom is always shown as a prerequisite of the emotional engagement of students in educational activities and tasks (Günüç, 2016).

Meanwhile, institutional factors, such as institutional practices, campus climate, physical conditions, extracurricular activities, safety, and learning communities, are encapsulated within the term 'campus engagement' (Günüç & Kuzu, 2014). Developing a sense of belonging to the campus environment and valuing university and higher education are deemed to be critical factors in student engagement (Günüç, 2016). Therefore, in this model, a sense of belonging and valuing are considered the two elements of the 'campus engagement' dimension.

Sense of belonging is defined as a student's feeling that it is accepted, supported, and included in the activities by others in the school environment (teachers, staff, peers) (Goodenow, 1993). Sense of belonging is one of the important psychological factors that play a critical role in student engagement and achievement, and characteristics of a campus environment are primary determinants of sense of belonging (Günüç & Kuzu, 2014). A campus environment allowing students to know and communicate with each other, to develop relationships with the faculty, and to participate in a wide

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range of activities will inevitably foster a sense of belonging among students. It is adversely affected by spending less time on campus, full-time employment, avoidance from extracurricular activities, and weak relationships with peers and faculty (Günüç, 2016).

Valuing is another element of campus engagement and refers to appreciating higher education, learning, campus environment, peers, and faculty. Valuing is the initial phase of engagement and the first condition of enjoying desirable educational outcomes. A weak sense of valuing leads one to avoid and experience boredom of educational and social activities in campus and class environments (Günüç, 2016).

Although calling behavioral, emotional, and cognitive dimensions of engagement as 'class engagement' seem to miss the engagement of students in out-of-class activities, this is not the case in the measuring tool. Such a model allows one to both evaluate to what extent students engage in their learning and how their institutions contribute to this process, which is why this theory is deployed in the current study. The updated model is illustrated in Figure 2.1 below.
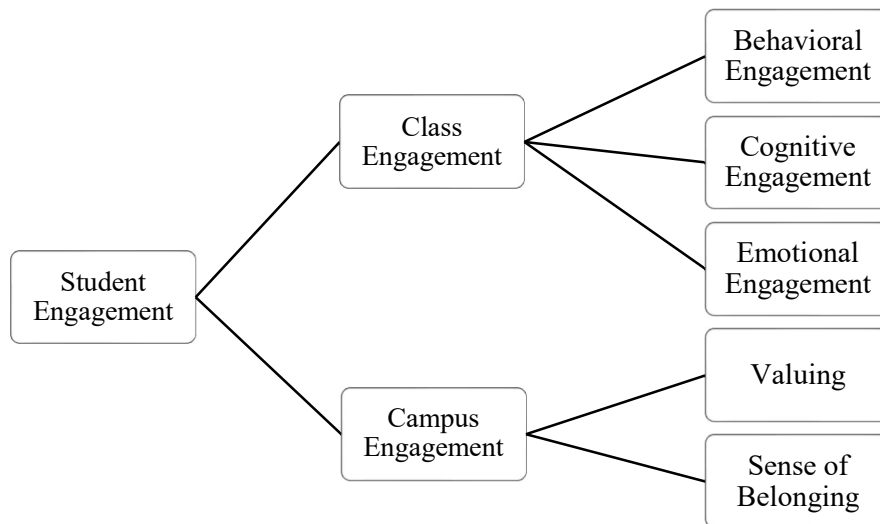
Figure 2.1: Student engagement components and dimensions. *Note*. From "*Üniversitelerde Öğrenci Bağlılığı*" (p. 96), by S. Günüç, 2016, Nobel Bilimsel Eserler. Copyright 2016 by Nobel Bilimsel Eserler.

Overall, what might be deduced from student engagement understanding, which has been robustly unleashed so far and steering the direction of the literature, is that engagement is a psychological state embodied with behaviors, cognition, and emotions of students through institutions' structural influences and results in several desired outcomes. In the literature, in line with the engagement understanding described above, many studies exploring student engagement have revealed findings related to what influences the engagement process and what consequences arise from the engagement. The relevant literature review was reported in the next sections of this chapter.

2.3 Organizational Culture

Culture is a concept that is hard to define and expound due to its abstract and intangible nature. Yet, several scholars tried to conceptualize culture and suggested several similar definitions for it. One of the earlier definitions of it is "… a complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society." (Tylor, 1974, as cited in Kuh & Whitt, 1988). Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) state that culture is "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another" (p. 4). Another contemporary definition says culture is "collection of ideas, values, practices, and material objects that mean a great deal to a group of people, even an entire society, and that allow them to carry out their collective lives in relative order and harmony" (Ritzer, 2015).

Since organizations can be considered as micro-societies, it will not be prudent to acknowledge culture within them. Therefore, Schein (2004, p. 17), defines organizational culture as "a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems." Masland (1985) proposes that organizational culture "induces purpose, commitment, and order;

provides meaning and social cohesion; and clarifies and explains behavioral expectations."

According to Cameron and Quinn (2011), organizational culture "encompasses the taken-for-granted values, underlying assumptions, expectations, collective memories, and definitions present in an organization; represents 'how things are around here;' reflects the prevailing ideology that people carry inside their heads; conveys a sense of identity to employees, provides unwritten and often unspoken guidelines for how to get along in the organization; and enhances the stability of the social system that they experience." Meanwhile, the things and processes that are tried to be defined within the borders of organizational culture are not very different for the academy. In the context of HEIs, it is understood as certain values that the leaders try to integrate into their organizations (Fralinger & Olson, 2007). It is also defined as the values and beliefs that all the university members adopt through verbal and nonverbal communication based on the established tradition (Deal & Kennedy, 1983), and such values and beliefs are believed to highly influence the governance processes in universities and to shape organizational behaviors (Bartell, 2003; Tierney, 1988).

Apart from the definitions above, perhaps the most comprehensive definition of organizational culture for universities was proposed by Kuh and Whitt (1988), which is

> … the collective, mutually shaping patterns of institutional history, mission, physical settings, norms, traditions, values, practices, beliefs, and assumptions that guide the behavior of individuals and groups in an institution of higher education and which provide a frame of reference for interpreting the meanings of events and actions on and off-campus (p.12).

2.4. Higher Education Culture

2.4.1 Alternative Models of Governance in Higher Education

Relying on the definitions above, the scholars examined the cultural milieu of HEIs, tried to set frames for it, and proposed several models or typologies to understand 'how the things are dealt with in universities.' For example, in their preliminary study,

Baldridge et al. (1974) compared universities with classical bureaucratic organizations in cultural terms. According to the authors, the cultural context of a university is nothing but "organized anarchy" because, compared to classical bureaucratic organizations, universities have ambiguous and contested goals; serve clients demanding a considerable voice in the governance; utilize problematic technology, which does mostly not satisfy their clients' needs; function as professional organizations where professionals are employed; and become highly influenced from their environments (Baldridge et al., 1974). According to such distinguishing characteristics of the academy, they proposed three alternative governance models: bureaucratic, collegial, and political. The table below summarizes the mentioned models.

Table 2.2

Three models of decision-making and governance in universities

	Bureaucratic	*Collegial*	*Political*
Assumptions about structure	Hierarchical bureaucracy	Community of peers	Fragmented, complex professional federation
Social	Unitary: integrated by formal systems	Unitary: integrated by peer consensus	Pluralistic: encompasses different interest groups with divergent values
Basic theoretical foundations	Weberian bureaucracy, classic studies of formal systems	Professionalism literature, human-relations approach to organization	Conflict analysis, interest group theory, community power literature
View of decision-making process	"Relational" decision making; standard operating procedures	Shared collegial decision: consensus, community participation	Negotiation, bargaining, political influence, political brokerage, external influence

Table 2.2 (cont'd)

Cycle of decision-making	Problem definition Search for alternatives Evaluation of alternatives Calculus Choice Implementation	As in bureaucratic model, but in addition stresses the involvement of professional peers in the process	Emergence of issue out of social context Interest articulation Conflict Legislative process Implementation of policy Feedback

Note: From "Alternative Models of Governance in Higher Education," by J. V. Baldridge, D. V. Curtis, G. P. Ecker, & G. L. Riley, 1974, Research and Development Memorandum No. 129 (https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED109937). Copyright 1974 by the authors

2.4.2 The Six Cultures of The Academy

Following their initial research in 1992, Bergquist and Pawlak (2008) utilized an approach to culture types in the academy based on the historical development of the North American universities and concerns for organizational change and engaged 'the six cultures of the academy:' collegial, managerial, developmental, advocacy, virtual, and tangible. The *collegial culture* finds its meaning primarily on the basis of scientific disciplines to which academic staff in the institution belongs. Faculty in each discipline adopts a relative resistance and autonomy against the concepts of measurable results and accountability, and academic freedom, charismatic leadership, consensus, and research tradition are the distinctive characteristics of the institution. There is governance rather than management in the institution, and pertinent processes are directed and controlled by the academics.

The *managerial culture* is defined as a type of culture based on the execution and evaluation of practices for the defined purposes. Financial responsibility and effective audit skills, clearly defined goals and objectives, managerial leadership, efficiency, and a niche evaluation capacity are key concepts of an institution where this culture is dominant. Managerial culture has a robust influence on the development of human resources potential in the organization and leads the organization to achieve its goals.

Based on *the developmental culture*, Bergquist and Pawlak, (2008) define organizations as places where learning should take place naturally and easily. This culture type requires organizational learning and planning to ensure the survival of the organization and to strengthen the organization's ability to adapt to new situations. In such organizations, cognitive, affective, and behavioral developments of students, faculty, and staff are assessed continuously and supported programmatically.

In the *advocacy culture,* institutions adopt egalitarian and equitable policies and procedures to distribute resources and acquired benefits among its people. It mainly values confrontation and collective bargaining among the stakeholders. Faculty leadership and management are highly appreciated along with the assumptions about the faculty power and mediation with the outside environment for the survival of the organization. The institution functions between maintaining existing social attitudes and structures and establishing new ones.

The *virtual culture*, which was later added to the theory, emphasizes a new culture type shaped by the impact of technological inventions surrounding the personal and professional lives of students, faculty, administrators, and other staff. It is considered to be fundamental to understand today's higher education with the emergence of distance education and virtual universities. The virtual culture, which is a direct result of the digital revolution, focuses on the idea that HEI's educational resources should be linked to global and technological resources, thus expanding the global learning network.

In contrast to the virtual culture, the *tangible culture* emphasizes the roots and community of HEIs, and the need for higher education to function based on its traditional academic legacy. In response to the rise of the virtual culture, it regards the value of face-to-face education and the physical environment. Adopting a local perspective, this culture type honors a deeply rooted identity, supportive learning communities, spiritual, and symbolic representations of the institution (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008). According to the authors, it is impossible to assert that only one type of culture is adopted in an organization. Instead, one of these six distinct culture types

is dominant, but the existence of others can also be observed in universities, and these culture types can interact continuously. For example, the weakening of the collegial culture can lead to the rise of the managerial culture (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008).

2.4.3 Organizational Frames

Centering 'leadership' at the core of culture and governance understanding of organizations, Bolman and Deal (2017) coined four organizational frames in organizational studies in 1984. As in other studies pertinent to organizational culture, the authors suggest that all kinds of organizations are complex and ambiguous, which leads to multiple realities and situations to emerge within their systems. Hence, a leader should have multiple perspectives to guide organizational behavior according to such particular situations and to settle a specific culture to be adopted by the members of that organization (Bolman & Deal, 2017). Therefore, each frame proposed focuses on the diverse aspects of organizational characteristics. The *structural frame* has pure Weberian suppositions about organizations. In the *human resources frame,* serving human needs is the primary mission of organizations. It is thought that there is a mutual dependency between people and organizations since people need salaries, careers, and opportunities, while organizations need ideas, talent, and labor. The *political frame* sees organizations as coalitions of different interest groups. In the *symbolic frame,* organizational actions are not regarded for their own sake, somewhat their meanings as people have different experiences with situations and, as one may expect, have distinct interpretations of them. (Bolman & Deal, 2017).

2.4.4 McNay's Culture Models in Higher Education

In his study, where cultural shifts in the academy were investigated, McNay (1995) also revealed four types of organizational culture seen in HEIs: collegium, bureaucracy, corporation, and enterprise. The fundamental characteristics of these culture types show relative similarities to Bolman and Deal's organizational governance models. He suggests that all types co-exist in universities with different balances among them, and the factors such as, traditions, mission, leadership, and

external relations, affect the balance (McNay, 1995). The table below summarizes the core characteristics of the culture models in the academy.

Table 2.3

Core characteristics of McNay's culture models in the academy

Factor	Collegium	Bureaucracy	Corporation	Enterprise
Dominant value	freedom	equity	loyalty	competence
Role of central authorities	permissive	regulatory	directive	supportive
Dominant unit	department/ individual	faculty/ committee	institution/senior management	sub-units/project teams
Decision arenas	informal groups networks	committees and administrative briefings	working parties/ senior management	project teams
Management style	consensual	formal/rational	political/tactical	developed leadership
Environmental 'fit'	evolution	stability	crisis	turbulence
Nature of change	organic innovation	reactive adaptation	proactive transformation	tactical flexibility
External referents	invisible college	regulatory bodies	policymakers	clients/spons ors
Internal referents	discipline	rules	plans	market strength/stud ents
Basis for evaluation	peer assessment	audit of procedures	performance indicators	repeat business
Student status	apprentice academic	statistic	unit of resource	customer

Table 2.3 (cont'd)

Administrator roles: servant of...	the community	the committee	the chief executive	the client

Note. From "From the Collegial Academy to the Corporate Enterprise: The Changing Cultures of Universities," by I. McNay, 1995. In T. Shuller (Ed.), *The Changing University?,* p. 109. Copyright 1995 by Open University Press.

2.4.5 Competing Values Framework

In this study, the four cultural 'typologies' of Cameron and Quinn (2011), based on the Competing Values Framework (CVM) developed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), were used. The model has taken pretty much attention in organizational studies and become popular in describing the cultural setting of HEIs (Gaus et al., 2019). Several authors have been utilizing the CVM in higher education research since it has been validated not only as a cultural model for HEIs (Fralinger & Olson, 2007; Hill & Ferreira, 2008; Köse, 2017) but also as a measurement tool for other phenomena in universities, such as organizational effectiveness and quality (Cameron & Freeman, 1991; Smart et al., 1997; Smart & Hamm, 1993; Smart & St. John, 1996), which are predictive for the mentioned engagement-specific characteristics of HEIs. The cultural typologies in this framework – clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy – are also in line with what was proposed for the organizational culture in HEIs and the consequence of the evaluation of 'how the things are dealt with in universities.'

The organizational culture compatible with the *clan culture* is characterized by a friendly organization where everybody shares a lot of themselves as if they were family members. Leaders are perceived as mentors and, sometimes, parents. An organization which underlines the personal development with commitment, cohesion, and morale being is essential. Teamwork, participation, and consensus among the members are the most critical concerns for the organization regarding success as the investment in people. Finally, the organization is held together with loyalty and tradition (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The clan culture is also compatible with the 'collegial model' of Baldridge et al. (1974), 'collegial culture' of Bergquist and Pawlak

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(2008), 'human resources frame' of Bolman and Deal (2017), and 'collegium' of McNay (1995).

The *adhocracy culture* is characterized by a dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative organization where everybody takes risks. Leaders are perceived as visionary, innovative, and risk-takers. An organization that underlines pursuing new knowledge and products is essential. Change readiness, accepting new challenges, rapid growth, and obtaining new resources are the most important concerns for the organization regarding success as original products and services. Finally, the organization is held together with a commitment to innovation (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). This type of culture shows relevant similarities with the assumptions of 'developmental culture' of Bergquist and Pawlak (2008), 'symbolic frame' of Bolman and Deal (2017), and 'corporation' of McNay (1995).

The *market culture* is characterized by an organization where everybody commits to result-oriented works. Leaders are perceived as strong producers and tough and demanding competitors. An organization which is dominating the market competition and leadership with more market share is essential. Competitiveness and achieving targets are the most important concerns. Finally, the organization is held together with an emphasis on winning (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The market culture also holds assumptions that are provided in the 'political model' of Baldridge et al. (1974), 'political frame' of Bolman and Deal (2017), and 'enterprise' of McNay (1995).

Organizations with formal and structural alignment generally exhibit the *hierarchy culture*. What the people do inside is governed by the relevant procedures. Leaders are perceived as good coordinators and organizers. A smoothly operating organization is essential. Stability, predictability, and efficiency are the most important concerns. Finally, the organization is held together with formal rules and policies (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The hierarchy culture is characterized with Weberian suppositions which are highly visible in the 'bureaucratic model' of Baldridge et al. (1974), 'managerial culture' of Bergquist and Pawlak (2008), 'structural frame' of Bolman and Deal (2017), and 'bureaucracy' of McNay (1995).

2.5 Literature Review on Student Engagement

2.5.1 Influencers of Student Engagement

When it comes to student engagement again, the relevant literature has suggested several factors to influence engagement. For example, Yorke and Knight (2004) found that self-theories (i.e., self-belief) had pretty much effect on engagement. Students with fixed self-theories are likely to have fixed views on their capabilities, which leads them to unable to adjust their learning goals, performance, and motivation. Those with malleable self-theories accept the challenges as learning opportunities by adjusting their performance and goals, which leads them to be engaged in what they do (Yorke & Knight, 2004). In their study conducted with 110 psychology students, Llorens and her colleagues found that there was a positive relationship between self-efficacy and engagement (Llorens et al., 2007). In their study conducted with 161 community college students, self-efficacy was found to be a facilitator of class engagement (Llorens et al., 2007). Besides, it is concluded by some authors that student motivation has a predictive validity on student engagement based on the results of the studies conducted with a good many students in the USA (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Schuetz, 2008).

Peer relationship or learning with peers is also in the heart of student engagement research in terms of its effects on social integration (Tinto, 1975), involvement (Astin, 1999), persistence (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005), and overall academic development (Kuh, 1993). In a study conducted to determine the effect of peer interaction on students' perception of engagement, Moran and Gonyea (2003) found that peer interaction had a robust predictive value on student engagement and its outcomes. Kember (2004) found that peer relationship was a significant determinant on reducing perceived workload and boosting engagement among students. Besides, it is stated that learning with peers or collaborative learning is measured with the NSSE (Kuh, 2005) and is also a part of emotional engagement and highly effective on developing a sense of belonging to the institution and a student community (Milburn-Shaw & Walker, 2017). In a study conducted with two focus groups from undergraduate students and teachers, both focus groups indicated that the interaction and relationship with their

peers increased their engagement (Collaço, 2017). By the way, learning communities have a place while discussing student-student interactions owing to the opportunity of intense peer relationships. For example, a study conducted with randomly selected 80,474 first year and senior students revealed that participation in learning communities (learning with peers) was positively linked with the engagement in educational activities (Zhao & Kuh, 2004). Similarly, it was found that the first-year students frequently interacting with their peers in learning communities were more engaged and less departure oriented (Krause et al., 2005). In another study, it was discovered that participating in a learning community resulted in a positive and significant relationship with student engagement (Pike et al., 2011).

Teaching and teachers are central to student engagement and deserve credit within institutions for their contributions (Zepke & Leach, 2010). For example, in their extensive literature review, Kuh and his colleagues attribute teaching and teachers a key role in student engagement and suggested that teachers offering profound learning opportunities to their students contributed to their engagement (Kuh et al., 2006). Xerri and his colleagues (2018) discovered the positive impact of the student-teacher relationship on student engagement; Mann (2001) also argued that encouraging close faculty-student relationships might foster student engagement. Another study concludes that students are more likely to engage in their learning once teachers support them in the way of creating an environment that is inviting, challenging, and enabling them to be approachable (Bryson & Hand, 2007). Also, Umbach and Wawrzynski (2005) performed a study with an extensive data set using the NSSE and concluded that students were more likely to be engaged as the frequency of course-related interactions with faculty increased, namely 'faculty do matter.' In their in-depth analysis of student engagement across institutions, Kezar and Kinzie (2006) suggested that faculty-student interaction was an influencing factor in each type of institution they analyzed. Accessibility of staff in HEIs is also concluded to be a good predictor of student engagement (Dužević, 2015). Students perceiving accessibility and closeness to their teachers were found to have lower workload perceptions and to be more engaged in their studies (Mottet et al., 2005). According to the findings, once faculty engages in the teaching process (Bryson & Hand, 2007) and uses interest-

enhancing strategies, blended learning methods (Delialioğlu, 2012), and technology (Chen et al., 2010) in the classroom, students tend to engage in their subject more.

Another influencer of student engagement is the support provided to students from several sources. For example, the results of a study conducted in the Philippines revealed that students engaged more in academic activities and gained more achievement once socially supported by their families, peers, and teachers when compared to those who were not (Ganotice & King, 2014). It was found out that first-year students dealt with being a newcomer to the college environment (Wilcox et al., 2005) while supporting inexperienced students through matching them experienced ones within a mentoring scheme helped first-year students to engage (Kiernan et al., 2006). Also, first-year students did pretty much well in academic performance and engagement when they were supported academically (Reason et al., 2006). Besides, Devlin et al. (2009) draw attention to the enhancing role of institutional support on student engagement. Emphasizing the role of emotional support, Whiteman et al. (2013) concluded peer emotional support to maintain mental health and academic adjustment resulting in better engagement. Leach (2016) and Kuh et al. (2008) assert that familial support has an impact on student engagement. In addition, results of a study suggest that there is a weak association between obtaining financial support and GPA, but there is a pretty strong relationship between financial support and student engagement in certain activities in the campus environment (Boatman & Long, 2016). It was found that students accepted to Gates Millennium Scholarship (GMS) program, which is a scholarship program funded by Gates couple, experienced more engagement than their peers who had no financial aid. Similarly, in a study where GMS recipients and non-recipients were compared in terms of engagement, Hu (2010) found that the recipient of this scholarship were more academically and socially engaged compared to the non-recipients.

The effect of workload (academic and social) on student engagement should not be ignored. Since it fosters student engagement in academic tasks, the appropriate workload was deemed to be key for engagement (Chambers, 1992). Yet, in his in-depth analysis of perceived workload and students' relationship with others, Kember

(2004) concluded that the perceived workload among students was directly linked to overall student engagement, and relationships with peers and teachers significantly decreased workload perception. The perceived excessive workload was also found to be highly associated with increased stress and decreased engagement (Ruohoniemi & Lindblom-Ylänne, 2009). Also, excessive course contents lead students to feel overloaded (Feldon, 2007), which may decrease educational experience, retention, and student engagement (Xerri et al., 2018).

On the other hand, one of the critical factors increasing the burden of students and affecting their workload perceptions is employment. For example, Jogaratnam and Buchanan (2004) state that rising costs of living and attending colleges in Australia push students to find a job to maintain their education, and this creates a huge burden on their existing workload, which prevents them from fully engaging in their studies. Wanner (2015) expresses his own experience of lecturing and asserts that academic engagement is pretty much decreased owing to excessive study workload and paid work outside the campus. Krause et al. (2005) discovered the relative increase in the employment rates among students in a five-year period, and the participants stated paid work decreased their academic performance and pushed them to withdraw due to a high workload. Walpole (2003) found that students from low SES had to work more and study less; therefore, they reported low engagement and GPA than their high SES peers.

Emphasizing students with certain characteristics enjoy some activities than others, Kuh (2009) pointed out the conditional effect of student background on student engagement. In a study where the engagement data of more than 300 thousand American students, Hu and Kuh (2002) found that student characteristics had a remarkable place while predicting engagement among students. In another study conducted with 265 first-year students, some personality characteristics influenced students' academic efforts and engagement (Bauer & Liang, 2003). Moreover, in the college impact literature, Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) found a relationship between several pre-college characteristics of students and their college experience. In their study, where impact several factors were tested regarding institutional commitments

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of students, Strauss and Volkwein (2002) concluded that some demographic characteristics of students, such as gender, marital status, and being minority, had a significant relationship with institutional commitment. In their comprehensive study with longitudinal data of American students, Kuh and his colleagues (2006) report that male students are likely to be less engaged than female students. Nevertheless, there are some studies in the literature finding contradictory results. According to these studies, student background characteristics (such as gender, age, family background, pre-college entry level, minority status, etc.) were reported to have a little impact on student engagement (Pike & Kuh, 2005; Pike, 1999). Trowler and Trowler (2010) suggest that prior characteristics of students do not predict if students will engage; instead, all students can engage.

2.5.2 Consequences of Student Engagement

As discussed in the first chapter, governments and the private sector expect great contributions from HEIs so that increasingly emphasize ultimate success on not only academic subjects but also on active citizenship, intellectuality, and qualification for employment with acquiring lifelong learning philosophy (Yorke, 2006) due to the increasing awareness of the importance of HEIs in providing necessary human capital. Today's business owners hire graduates with generic interpersonal skills in addition to adequate knowledge of the field (Choi & Rhee, 2014). Consequently, HEIs are under great pressure to increase educational quality by national initiatives and sectoral demands (Almarghani & Mijatovic, 2017). Institutions also desire to reach a certain degree of quality and to be competitive in the current higher education market owing to the effects of globalization, marketization, and internalization (Wanner, 2015). Even, the success and graduation rates reached by the institutions determine the funding proportions of them in several countries (Leach, 2016), and neoliberal policies have come to an end to make compressions among HEIs to encourage the increase in performance and quality (Zepke, 2014). On the other hand, universities today are facing multiple problems related to student attrition, graduation and dropout rates, retention, as well as satisfying student expectations and ensuring learning for all due to the relative effects of massification, internationalization, sectoral challenges, and

performance. These are some reasons why student engagement has become the major focus in higher education to enhance teaching and learning, the hot topic in meting agendas, and the primary theme in conferences around the world (Trowler, 2010) Coates (2010) indicates that "as students become more diverse, as higher education becomes more competitive, as the export of international education continues to grow, and as demand increases for greater numbers of capable graduates, there is an intensified need for sound insights on whether students are engaging effectively with university education" (p.1). Ultimately, previous research has suggested that student engagement appears to be a solution for many problems of colleges in terms of quality and performance (Carey, 2018; Dužević, 2015; Trowler, 2010) and to have a robust relationship with proximal and distal outcomes of students as Kahu (2013) identifies in her framework.

The engagement literature suggests that student engagement plays a great role in student satisfaction (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Umbach & Porter, 2002; Zhao & Kuh, 2004). Webber et al. (2013) found that the students frequently engaged in academic and extracurricular activities in the campus had higher GPAs and satisfaction. Kuh (2005) suggests that first-year students showing a high degree of engagement in class and campus activities gain more self-understanding and have satisfaction with their college experience. Krause (2005) calls institutions to regard student engagement since disengaged students are more likely to be dissatisfied with their experience in the college and tend to show withdrawal. Engagement is also a good predictor of student learning (Astin, 1999; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Trowler, 2010; Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005; Wolf-Wendel et al., 2009). Kuh et al. (2008) found that engaging students had better learning outcomes and persisted more than their non-engaged peers. Campbell and Mayer (2009) suggested that students that were engaged during a lecture showed better course learning performance compared to non-engaged students. Carini et al. (2006) mentioned the conditional effect of student engagement on learning. Achievement is another, perhaps the best, consequence of student engagement (Astin, 1999; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). In their preliminary study, Fredricks et al. (2004) constantly emphasized the link between student success and engagement types discussed above. In their study, Kuh et al.

(2006) indisputably proved the association between student engagement and student success. Kahu (2013) asserts that the reason why the engagement construct has become a highly studied topic is its critical role in student achievement. Kuh (2003) also demonstrates that student success can only be explained with what the student engages in college instead of what the student has brought. Grades are primary outputs of student achievement, and the literature supports the view that engagement is directly related to grades. For example, the 2008 NSSE results of an institution revealed that the more the students engaged in their learning, the higher CGPAs they obtained and the more positive perception they had about their academic experience (Webber et al., 2013). Walpole (2003) suggested that the students reporting low engagement gained low GPAs. Carini et al. (2006) concluded that the results of the students from the NSSE were positively linked with desirable outcomes, such as grades. Kuh (2009) pointed out the positive contribution of engagement to grades while Pike et al. (2011) discovered the mediating role of engagement in students' grades. The literature also reveals that the engagement positively affects several skills and abilities of students. For example, challenging and supportive environments foster student engagement, and consequently, students have improved personal and social skills (Webber et al., 2013). Kuh (2009) states that "engaging in a variety of educationally productive activities also builds the foundation of skills and dispositions people need to live a productive, satisfying life after college" (p. 5). Choi and Rhee (2014) found that generic student competencies of Korean students, such as reasoning, critical thinking, problem-solving, and communication skills, were highly affected by student engagement. In their study, Carini et al. (2006) found that student engagement was positively associated with critical thinking skills. Finally, both proximal and distal outcomes of student engagement are student development and growth (Kahu, 2013; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). For example, Kuh (2003) argues that engagement helps students gain habits that enhance their capacity for lifelong learning and personal growth. Zhao and Kuh (2004) found that engagement was pretty much responsible for the personal development of students through participation in learning communities. Carini and his colleagues (2006) point out the engagement as the best predictor of learning and personal development. Pascarella and his colleagues (2010) argued that the increase in the engagement could be considered reasonable signs of student growth. Lastly,

Trowler and Trowler (2010) summarize that engagement has a consistent correlation with cognitive development, psychosocial development, and moral and ethical development.

2.6 Literature Review on Student Engagement and Organizational Culture

As clearly mentioned in previous sections, student engagement is a concept that should be scrutinized with its two components. According to the definition (Kuh, 2009), engagement is characterized by both to what extent students devote time and energy to all kinds of activities to be regarded within their learning and what institutions offer to their students in terms of effective educational practices and fruitful learning environment. Therefore, it can be said that student engagement can be understood with its two legs: student and organizational dimensions, and it should be noted that either level has considerable interactions with and contributions to each other. Although organizational characteristics in HEIs are dealt with in the engagement literature concerning what is offered to students to foster their engagement, they are also the hallmarks of the established governance understanding and imply how the work is done and what kind of practices and policies are adopted in the institution. Ultimately, they appear as the components describing the cultural milieu of an HEI. In this sense, institutional characteristics, policies, and practices predicting student engagement can be addressed within a broader perspective of organizational culture. Even though there are a limited number of studies touching upon the student engagement issue from the broader perspective of organizational culture, the literature has remarkable findings related to the relationship between institutional characteristics and student engagement.

Pike and Kuh (2005) argue that besides the student experience in the college, institutional practices and policies also play an important role in student engagement because there is nothing arriving the borders of college together with students and their unique experiences within the campus, including their background characteristics. Given the institutional characteristics, Astin (1999) suggests that one can measure the effectiveness of any educational practice and policy by observing to what extent that

practice and policy foster student engagement. In this regard, Zepke and Leach (2010) reviewed the engagement literature from ten countries with 93 studies. They proposed ten actions for institutions to adapt to their practices and policies to increase engagement. Carey (2018) notes that student engagement is shaped by institutional policies and power dynamics. Porter (2006) emphasizes the importance of understanding what structural characteristics of universities enhance student engagement in a competitive environment of HEIs. It was found in his study that the institution's selectivity and size positively affected engagement, while research-oriented policies of the institution hindered student engagement. Kuh (2009) demonstrates that institutions involving student affairs professionals into their strategies exhibit a consistent approach to engaging students. Coates (2010) notes that enhancing student engagement means building practices and policies designed to respond to diversified student needs.

An enriching and supportive campus environment is an indispensable part of the engagement construct. Kuh (2003) and Coates (2010) consider enriching educational practices among critical tenets when measuring student engagement. Doyle (2008) and Astin (1999) suggest that learner-centered educational environments are effective in promoting and maintaining student engagement. Chickering and Gamson (1987) advanced seven practices for creating an enriching environment to ensure a successful student engagement: (1) enhancing faculty-student interaction, (2) developing peer collaboration, (3) encouraging active learning, (4) activating effective feedback mechanisms, (5) emphasizing time on task, (6) articulating high expectations, and (7) respecting diversity. Harper and Quaye (2009) indicate that the learning environment should adjust to student needs and diversity to ensure student engagement. A challenging, supportive, and collaborative learning environment facilitates student engagement, thus increased academic knowledge and personal and social skills (Collaço, 2017). Freeman et al. (2007) indicate that a supportive campus environment is crucial for student engagement since it creates a sense of belonging among students.

Besides academic activities, support services and physical facilities play a notable role in student engagement. Pittaway and Moss (2006) found that orientation activities

were important services of colleges, and they helped students engage in their peers, teachers, staff, campus, and their studies. Academic writing centers were found to be associated with high-level engagement (Kiernan et al., 2006). Kuh and Gonyea (2015) utter that the library and its collection size are the physical indicators of academic life and the quality of that institution. They investigated the role of the university library in learning and found that it mediated the engagement through higher academic expectations from students. Physical facilities, such as library, dormitory, study halls, and sports centers, are shown to be reliable factors in increasing student interaction, thus engagement (Almarghani & Mijatovic, 2017).

Residence halls are deemed to be places for opportunities to be involved in enriched educational experiences with other students and the institution itself; thus, they are an indispensable component of institutional culture and engagement (LaNasa et al., 2007; Zhao & Kuh, 2004). Accordingly, it was discovered that on-campus living, as opposed to commuting to the campus, had an indirect positive relationship with student engagement (LaNasa et al., 2007). Similarly, it was found that "living on campus, however, appears to foster change indirectly, by maximizing the opportunities for social, cultural, and extracurricular engagement" (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005, p. 603). Astin (1999) claims that living on the campus positively influence student engagement in campus activities. Moreover, Kezar (2011) notes that residence halls are the mechanisms that can be utilized by institutions to grow their sizes, and the institutional size plays a key role in student engagement. While off-campus students are less engaged than their counterparts (Kuh et al., 2006), Pike (1999) found that residential students attending learning communities experienced better engagement and gained more than their counterparts. Previous research also suggests that on-campus living ensures high academic performance by providing engagement opportunities with campus life, learning communities, and extracurricular activities (Pike et al., 2011; Webber et al., 2013).

According to Zepke and Leach (2010), organizational culture is a key factor in student engagement. Students are prone to be disengaged and alienated from their education in cultures where they are labeled as 'non-traditional' or are not welcomed. In the

contemporary higher education, it is argued that institutions desiring to be successful in engagement should adopt cultures embodying the emphasis on success, learning, high expectations, diversity, and support services (Kuh et al., 2006). Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) indicate that cultural milieu of the academy influences students' perceptions of their schools, which in turn affects their engagement. Kahu's (2013) sociocultural perspective to engagement offers institutions not only focus on support structures and institutional environment but also the institution's culture influencing student engagement. Billings and Terkla (2014) state that institutional culture has a considerable effect on the beliefs and values of the staff and students and guide their engagement behaviors. Therefore, strong campus cultures have coherent cultural characteristic, while weak campus cultures lack such a coherence (Kuh, 2001; Masland, 1985). In that sense, weak organizational cultures were found to have little or no effect on student outcomes and engagement behaviors (Berger, 2000). Umbach and Wawrzynski (2005) revealed that the cultural context of faculty behaviors and attitudes was positively associated with student engagement. They suggest that students on campuses, where faculty culture emphasizes the best educational practices, report greater gains in general knowledge, competence, and personal development.

Peters et al. (2019) suggest that creating an institutional culture empowering student voice in governance and fostering collaboration between students and faculty can increase student engagement. Pike and Kuh (2005) state that whatever their size and type, engaging institutions acknowledge student learning and development in their mission statement and operating philosophies. In this sense, they assert that aspects of organizational culture in such institutions explain better what matters to student engagement. Kezar (2007) and Kezar and Kinzie (2006) revealed that strong ethos created by the campus community and educational strategies and practices aligned with the mission statement could have a robust impact on student engagement. Zepke (2014) implies that neoliberal and market-driven policies have recently boosted engagement-specific concerns and initiatives of HEIs. However, Baron and Corbin (2012) argue that the marketization of the universities, performance-oriented nature of the academic culture, and massification would lead to disengagement. van der Velden (2012) evaluated the relationship between culture types of two universities, based on

McNay's culture models, and student engagement. She found that the college adopting collegial culture was successful in engaging its students, while students had a lower engagement in the other with corporate culture.

2.7 Summary of the Literature Review

Although there is no consensus among the scholars on what the concept of student engagement explicitly says and offers to today's educational milieu, the studies initiated in the 1930s has shaped the theory building on Pace's (1990) 'quality of effort,' Astin's (1999) 'student involvement,' and Pascarella and Terenzini's (2005) 'college impact.' The most comprehensive definition of student engagement is proposed by Kuh (2001), which is the time and energy devoted by the students to educationally purposeful activities in the colleges and effort of the institutions to create effective educational practices and environments for students. Based on this definition, the concept has been tried to encapsulate into different, but similar frameworks. Kuh (2001) suggested a 'student engagement' framework based on five basic tenets. Fredricks et al. (2004) drew attention to diverse dimensions of student engagement and proposed that engagement had behavioral, emotional, and cognitive domains. Finally, Günüç (2016) incorporated behavioral, emotional, and cognitive engagement with institutional efforts to create an engaging environment and suggested an engagement framework around 'class and campus engagement.'

Why student engagement has become the major focus among higher education institutions is sectoral demands for graduates with exceptional qualifications (Choi & Rhee, 2014; Yorke, 2006), quality inquiries (Almarghani & Mijatovic, 2017), marketization (Leach, 2016; Wanner, 2015; Zepke, 2014). Above all, what makes student engagement prevail in the higher education literature is the reasons, such as the robust relationship between desirable student outcomes. The relevant literature suggests that there is a positive relationship between student engagement and student satisfaction (Kuh, 2005; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Umbach & Porter, 2002; Zhao & Kuh, 2004), student learning (Astin, 1999; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Trowler & Trowler, 2010; Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005; Wolf-Wendel et al., 2009), higher

GPA and success (Astin, 1999; Carini et al., 2006; Fredricks et al., 2004; Kuh, 2003; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Pike et al., 2011; Walpole, 2003; Webber et al., 2013), skills, competencies, and abilities (Carini et al., 2006; Choi & Rhee, 2014; Kuh, 2009; Webber et al., 2013), student development and growth (Kahu, 2013; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Trowler, 2010; Zhao & Kuh, 2004).

In the student side, engagement is profoundly affected by self-theories (i.e., self-belief) (Llorens et al., 2007; Yorke & Knight, 2004), peer relationship (Kember, 2004; Milburn-Shaw & Walker, 2017; Moran & Gonyea, 2003; Zhao & Kuh, 2004), faculty interaction (Bryson & Hand, 2007; Kuh et al., 2006; Xerri et al., 2018), support from several sources (i.e., familial and financial support) (Ganotice & King, 2014; Kiernan et al., 2006; Wilcox et al., 2005), workload and paid jobs (Chambers, 1992; Krause, 2005; Ruohoniemi & Lindblom-Ylänne, 2009; Walpole, 2003), and background characteristics (Bauer & Liang, 2003; Kuh, 2009; Pike & Kuh, 2005; Strauss & Volkwein, 2002).

On the other hand, as in the definition of student engagement, the concept is not thought separate from institutional characteristics; thus, engagement is also predicted by institutional practices and policies (Carey, 2018; Kuh, 2005; Porter, 2006; Zepke & Leach, 2010), enriching and supportive campus environment (Coates, 2010; Collaço, 2017; Doyle, 2008; Freeman et al., 2007; Kuh, 2003), support services and physical facilities (Almarghani & Mijatovic, 2017; Kiernan et al., 2006; Kuh & Gonyea, 2015; Pittaway & Moss, 2006), and on-campus residency (LaNasa et al., 2007; Pike et al., 2011; Webber et al., 2013; Zhao & Kuh, 2004). Although such characteristics in HEIs are considered within the engagement concept, they are also the hallmarks of how the work is done and what kind of practices and policies are adopted in institutions. Ultimately, they appear as the components describing the organizational culture of an HEI.

The scholars examined the cultural milieu of HEIs, tried to set frames for it, and proposed several culture models or typologies. In this regard, organizational culture in HEIs is famously modeled by 'three models of academic governance' (Baldridge et

al., 1974), 'the six culture of the academy' (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008), 'organizational frames' (Bolman & Deal, 2017), 'four culture models' (McNay, 1995), and 'organizational culture types' (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Despite being limited and indirect, the literature has revealed the relationship between institutional culture and student engagement (Baron & Corbin, 2012; Berger, 2000; Billings & Terkla, 2014; Peters et al., 2019; Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005; van der Velden, 2012; Zepke, 2014; Zepke & Leach, 2010). However, except the only study conducted by van der Velden (2012), the literature lacks studies investigating the relationship between student engagement and culture types of universities, which constitutes the ultimate concern of the present study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The research methodology is presented in this chapter. The topics covered in this chapter are the design of the study, population and sample, demographic characteristics of the participants, instrumentation, data collection procedure, data analyses, and limitations of the study.

3.1 Design of the Study

This study employed a quantitative approach with correlational design. There are two major purposes of correlational research. The first is that it reveals the association between two or more variables by avoiding the attempts to manipulate them, which is called as an explanatory design. Furthermore, correlational research is used to make predictions about the dependent variable through the independent variable by using the relationships between them, which is usually called as a prediction design (Creswell, 2012; Fraenkel et al., 2012). In such studies, dependent and independent variables are called prediction and criterion variables, respectively. In either case, it was the appropriate design in the present study since it sought the answer to the following question:

Do the organizational culture types in higher education significantly predict student engagement?

3.1.1 Predictor Variables

Predictor variables in this study were the four culture typologies observed in organizations within the CVM. These are clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy cultures.

The clan culture: The organizational culture compatible with this type is characterized by a friendly organization where everybody shares a lot of themselves as if they were family members (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). This type of culture is measured with 6 questions on a 7-point Likert-type scale.

The adhocracy culture: The organizational culture compatible with this type is characterized by a dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative organization where everybody take risks (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). This type of culture is measured with 6 items rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale.

The market culture: The organizational culture compatible with this type is characterized by an organization with result-oriented works. Competitiveness and achieving targets are the most important concerns. (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). This type of culture is measured with 6 items rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale.

The hierarchy culture: The organizational culture compatible with this type is characterized by an organization with formal and structural alignment (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). This type of culture is measured with 6 items rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale.

3.1.2. Criterion Variable

Student engagement: is the dependent variable revealing to what extent students show engagement during their college journey. It is measured with 41 items rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale developed based on a hybrid student engagement framework developed by (Günüç & Kuzu, 2015).

3.2 Population and Sample

While the target population of the present study was students enrolled in the universities in Ankara, Turkey, the accessible population was those enrolled in a public

university in this province. This university is one of the reputable universities in Turkey founded in 1956. Today, there are 21,327 students in 41 undergraduate programs with 5 faculties in the Ankara campus. Therefore, the sample was selected among students of this university by employing the convenience sampling method. Although convenience sampling is considered to be biased and non-representative of any population (Fraenkel et al., 2012), the sample selected with this method can also give useful information for what is tested (Creswell, 2012). Besides, there was two reasons for selecting this method. The first one is that the prep-students should be excluded from the study since they were thought not to acquire a culture perception to the place where they were new. The second is that it was rather hard for the researcher to obtain the data of thousands of students from the relevant bodies of the university; therefore, randomization seemed impossible for this study. Ultimately, there was the convenience sampling was the only option for the researcher (Fraenkel et al., 2012). The sample was composed of the undergraduate students enrolled in different faculties of a public university in the 2019-2020 academic year. As stated above, students attending the preparatory school were excluded from the study since it was thought that they might not display a clear perception of the culture of the university. They should also have more experience in the university to be able to report their engagement since they were newcomers during the data collection.

3.3 Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

A total of 429 students participated in this study. Sixteen questionnaires were not included in the data analysis for missing data concerns. Table 3.1 shows that the sample was dominated by females with 60.5% (n=250), while 38.7% (n=160) were males. The age range of the participants was found to be between 19 and 38 (*M*=21.61, *SD*=2.44). Almost all of the participants (95.4%, n=394) aged between 19 and 25 years, the remaining ones (4.6%, n=19) fell between 26 and 38 years. Distribution of the participants by faculty type was as follows: 5.8% (n=24) from the faculty of architecture, 26.4% (n=109) from the faculty of arts and science, 6.8% (n=28) from the faculty of economics and administrative sciences, 16% (n=66) from the faculty of education, and 45% (n=186) from the faculty of engineering. There were 137 freshmen

(33.2%), 108 sophomores (26.2%), 85 juniors (20.6), and 83 seniors (20.1%). While %1 of the participants (n=4) had a GPA between 0.00 – 1.00, 14% (n=58) had a GPA between 1.01 – 2.00, 56.9% (n=235) had a GPA between 2.01 – 3.00. 28.1% (n=116) had a GPA between 3.01 – 4.00. On-campus residency was 35.8% (n=148) among the students, while 64.2% (n=265) had an off-campus residency. Finally, the majority of the students did not work (87.4%, n=361), 52 of them (12.6%) were employed in a paid job.

Table 3.1

Demographic characteristics of the participants

Variable		*Frequency*	*Percentage (%)*
Gender	Male	160	38.7
	Female	250	60.5
	Other	3	.7
Age	19-25	394	95.4
	26-32	16	3.9
	33-38	3	.7
Faculty	Architecture	24	5.8
	Arts and Science	109	26.4
	Econ. & Adm. Sci.	28	6.8
	Education	66	16.0
	Engineering	186	45.0
Year of Study	Freshman	137	33.2
	Sophomore	108	26.2
	Junior	85	20.6
	Senior	83	20.1
GPA	0.00 – 1.00	4	1
	1.01 – 2.00	58	14
	2.01 – 3.00	235	56.9
	3.01 – 4.00	116	28.1
Residency	On-campus	148	35.8
	Off-campus	265	64.2
Employment	Employed	52	12.6
	Unemployed	361	87.4

3.4 Instrumentation

In this study, the data were collected through a booklet designed to include the intended scales. Initially, the demographic characteristics of the participants were identified. The demographic variables were gender (male or female), age, discipline (faculty), year of study (freshman, junior, sophomore, and senior), grade point average (GPA), place of residency (on-campus and off-campus), employment (employed or unemployed). Demographic characteristics bear a specific mission to determine whether there are significant relationships between such characteristics and student engagement. Then, two scales were included in the booklet: the Student Engagement Scale and the Organizational Culture Assessment Inventory.

3.4.1 Student Engagement Scale

There were several tools measuring student engagement, but the most popular one is the National Survey of Student Engagement developed by George Kuh in 2001 and used to assess student engagement of college students across the world. In the Turkish higher education context, the Student Engagement Scale (SES) was developed by Günüç and Kuzu (2015). The 5-point Likert-type scale consists of a total of 41 items under six sub-scales within two components. The sub-scales are identified as *valuing* (items 1-3), *sense of belonging* (items 4-11), *cognitive engagement* (items 12-21), *peer relationships* (emotional engagement – I; items 22-27), *faculty relationships* (emotional engagement – II; items 28-37), and behavioral engagement (items 38-41). The scale is scored along "Strongly disagree" and "Strongly agree" and has no reverse-scored item.

Sample items are "*University is of great importance in my life*" (campus engagement), "*I motivate myself to learn*" (cognitive engagement), "*I like to see my friends in classes*" (emotional engagement), and "*I follow the rules in classes*" (behavioral engagement). The developers conducted reliability and validity studies of the scale. In their study conducted with about 800 university students, the six-factor structure revealed after Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was confirmed with Confirmatory

Factor Analysis (CFA) with item loadings ranging between .45 and .84. The Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient was found to be .929 for the total scale. The total variance explained by the six-factor scale was calculated as 59% (Günüç & Kuzu, 2015). The results suggest that the scale is valid and reliable in assessing student engagement in universities.

In this study, a CFA was run to verify the factor structure and confirm the construct validity of this instrument. The results revealed a significant Chi-Square value (χ^2= 1502.81, p=.00) with Goodness-of-Fit (GFI) value of .85, Standardized Root Mean Residual (SRMR) value of .058, Normed Fit Index (NFI) value of .83, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) value of .90, and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) value of 0.05. Since the relevant literature indicates that the value ≤ .08 for RMSEA shows an acceptable to good fit and suggests that GFI, NFI, and CFI values should be greater than .90 to obtain a good fit, and it is given that SRMR value should be below .05 to obtain a well-fitting model, but the values up to .08 can be considered acceptable (Hooper et al., 2008; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Besides, Chi-Square is stated to be sensitive to the sample size (Hooper et al., 2008; Sümer, 2000) so that CMIN/DF value, which was found as 2.04, was considered in this analysis. CMIN/DF value ≤ 3 is accepted as the perfect fit (Kline, 2011). Ultimately, the present model showed an acceptable fit. Meanwhile, standardized regression weights of the items ranged between .324 and .860. The summary of the results are given Table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2

CFA results for the basic model of the SES

Model	CMIN/DF	GFI	SRMR	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
Basic Model	2.042	.851	.058	.833	.906	.050

For reliability concerns, Cronbach's Alpha internal reliability coefficient was calculated. It was obtained as .92 for the total scale (Table 3.3), which shows that the scale is rather reliable.

Table 3.3

Reliability statistics

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N
Total Scale	.922	.925	41

3.4.2 Organizational Culture Assessment Inventory

This study employed the Organizational Culture Assessment Inventory to assess the organizational culture types of the university where this study was conducted. This inventory was initially developed by Cameron and Freeman (1991) and revised by Cameron and Quinn (2011) based on the CVM (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). This inventory allows one to assess organizational culture with 24 items within 6 organizational dimensions (dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organization glue, strategic emphases, and criteria of success). The items in each dimension suggest 4 culture typologies (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market) (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

The 7-point Likert-type inventory was adapted to Turkish by Köse (2017). In his study, the results of EFA showed that the scale, which has the 4-factor structure in its original version, appeared as a 3-factor structure with item loadings ranging between .44 and .81. The results of the analysis revealed that the items predicting the clan culture and the adhocracy culture, which are considered in separate factor structures in the original version, were clustered under the same factor. The new factor was called the 'adhocratic-clan culture' by the author since it was found that these two culture types were not perceived as independent of each other (Köse, 2017).

Interestingly, the same result was found in a study where the organizational cultures in Portuguese public and private universities were compared. The results of EFA suggested that items predicting the clan culture and the adhocracy culture were clustered under the same factor structure, and the new factor called 'culture of flexibility, discretion, and dynamism' (Fralinger & Olson, 2007). Furthermore, Köse

(2017) found that two items predicting the adhocracy culture in the original form were clustered under the market culture. It was stated these items, related to 'obtaining project funding' and 'producing academic publications,' might be perceived within competition phenomenon in the Turkish higher education system. The results of CFA confirmed this 3-factor structure of the scale, and the variance explained by the new scale was found to be %61. Besides, the Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient was found to be .94 for the total scale, .93 for the adhocratic-clan culture, .80 for the hierarchy culture, and .87 for the market culture. In the final version, the new culture type that differs as an alternative to typological separation conceptualized by Cameron and Quinn (2011) is the *adhocratic-clan culture.'* This type of culture, which can be considered as a synthesis of family and dynamic organizational structures, shows the characteristics of both the clan culture and the adhocracy culture (Köse, 2017).

Although the psychometric properties of the scale with the three-factor structure were revealed by the researcher (Köse, 2017), this study employed a different sample group (students) other than faculty. Therefore, the Turkish version of the OCAI was employed in CFA to verify the factor structure and confirm the construct validity of this instrument.

The results revealed a CMIN/DF value of 2.77, GFI value of .88, SRMR value of .073, NFI value of .82, CFI value of .87, and RMSEA value of 0.06. Therefore, the present model showed a poor to acceptable fit. Meanwhile, standardized regression weights of the items ranged between .232 and .674. Urdan (2010) suggests that an item with factor loading ≤ .30 is not considered as a strong indicator of that factor. Therefore, 4 items with factor loadings ≤ .30 (clan1, clan4, market4, and market6) were deleted from the model, and the analysis was replicated.

Replicated CFA results showed a CMIN/DF value of 2.66, GFI value of .90, SRMR value of .061, NFI value of .85, CFI value of .90, and RMSEA value of 0.06. It was found out that deletion of the items with poor factor loadings relatively improved the model fit indices, and the model appeared to show an acceptable fit (Table 3.4).

Table 3.4

CFA results for the basic model of the Turkish version of the OCAI

Model	CMIN/DF	GFI	SRMR	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
Basic Model	2.665	.907	.061	.856	.903	.064

For reliability concerns, Cronbach's Alpha internal reliability coefficients were calculated for both total scale and the sub-scales. Reliability values were found to be .85 for the total scale, .79 for the adhocratic-clan culture, .66 for the market culture, and .65 for the hierarchy culture. Accordingly, the scale can be suggested to show a moderate reliability (Table 3.5).

Table 3.5

Reliability statistics

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N
Adhocratic-clan culture	.790	.787	8
Market culture	.660	.667	6
Hierarchy culture	.649	.649	6
Total scale	.857	.855	20

Finally, standardized regression weights of the items ranged between .314 and .670. Overall, it can be stated that all items significantly loaded on their related factors and construct validity of the Turkish version of the OCAI was confirmed.

3.5 Data Collection Procedure

The data was collected under the written approval obtained from the Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Ethics Committee (Appendix C) between October and December in the fall semester of the 2019-2020 academic year. First off, the potential participants were reached out at the university library and informed about the purpose of the present study, confidentiality concerns, and instruments. Those who accepted to participate in the study voluntarily were asked to fill the Informed Consent

Form (Appendix B), and the questionnaire booklet (Appendix A), containing the inquiries of participants' demographic characteristics, the SES, and the OCAI, were distributed to the participants. They were given about 15 minutes to fill out the instruments, then filled out booklets were collected.

3.6 Data Analysis

A total of 429 students participated in the study. Since 16 participants only responded to demographic information part and left the questionnaire parts unfilled, the data on these questionnaires were not included in the data analysis process; thus, statistical analyses were conducted with the data from 413 participants. The data gathered on the SES and the OCAI were put into a CFA to re-check their factorial structures and construct validities. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated for the reliability concerns. Descriptive statistics were given to display the demographic characteristics of the participants, their engagement levels, and their perceptions of the organizational culture of the university. Then, inferential statistics were used to seek the answers to the research questions.

T-test and ANOVA were used to explore the differences between the demographic characteristics of the participants and their engagement levels. A simple correlation analysis was performed, and the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was calculated to determine the significance, direction, and magnitude of the relationship between student engagement and the organizational culture types. Finally, Multiple Linear Regression Analysis was performed to see whether student engagement was predicted the specified culture typologies perceived by the students Multiple regression is a technique enabling researchers to explore the collective and separate effects of two or more independent (predictive) variables on the dependent (criterion) variable (Creswell, 2012; Fraenkel et al., 2012). Data analyses were performed using the SPSS 26.0 and SPSS Amos 24.0.

3.7 Limitations of the Study

In this study, there may be inevitable conditions that affect the results and explain alternative hypotheses. Such conditions also raise concerns related to the threats to internal validity. Internal validity refers to the unambiguous nature of the relationship between any two or more variables. In other words, observed differences in the dependent variable should be directly associated with the independent variable rather than unintended variables (Fraenkel et al., 2012).

Subject characteristics can be considered critical threats to the internal validity of this study. The accessible population of this research is the students of public university in Ankara. Thousands of students are admitted to that university each year; the majority of them attend preparatory school before taking undergraduate classes. Among those, there may be the ones experiencing culture shock and being unable to perceive the culture of this new environment. Therefore, to minimize this effect, this study excluded the students of preparatory school, and the data were only collected from the undergraduate students who spent at least one year at that university.

In addition, location is considered as a threat in this study because the participants of the study at one of the most advantageous campuses of Turkey, which is thought to positively influence the responses of the participants regarding their perceptions of engagement. Another threat is related to the self-report measure of student engagement. It is argued in the literature that students may reveal their opinions in the way of more socially and psychologically acceptable once asked about their engagement; thus, it is believed that the students' self-report responses to engagement may be positively biased (Gerber et al., 2013). Moreover, the demographic characteristics of students were argued to be a degree of influence on their engagement. Therefore, the data on such subject characteristics thought to be related to engagement in line with the relevant literature were collected to reveal their role in engagement.

Besides, there are some concerns related to the external validity of this study. Although the target population of this study is the undergraduate students enrolled in the

universities in Ankara, the sample was drawn among students enrolled in a public university by employing a convenience sampling method. Therefore, it is not prudent to state that the present study has generalizability even though it provides useful insight for the accessible population.

On the other hand, the results of the study apply only to study time and place. Engagement and cultural perceptions are not constant states, but prone to change in a period of time, so the longitudinal studies, especially for engagement, would make the picture clearer. Contents and types of scales also have a limiting influence on this study. The concepts discussed and explored in this study have a wide spectrum of frameworks on which there is a relative consensus. Hence, conducting this study with other relevant instruments would offer different results. Finally, the quantitative nature of this study misses some components of the phenomena explored here so that employing a qualitative approach would allow an in-depth understanding of student engagement and culture perceptions of the students.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of descriptive and inferential statistics, Pearson Correlation Analysis, and Multiple Regression Analysis.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

It is the principal purpose of this study to explore whether there is a relationship between student engagement and organizational culture in higher education. In other words, this study seeks an answer to the question to what extent the students engage by organizational culture types observed in higher education. In this study, student engagement was measured with the Student Engagement Scale (SES) developed by Günüç and Kuzu (2015). It is a 5-point Likert-type scale, and the responses to the items range between 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly agree). The Organizational Culture Assessment Inventory (OCAI) helped to identify what kind of organizational culture was perceived by the students. The OCAI is a 7-point Likert-type inventory that was developed by Cameron and Quinn (2011) and adapted to Turkish by Köse (2017). According to the adapted model of the scale, there were 'adhocratic-clan' (which is the hybrid culture type emerged as a combination of clan and adhocracy dimensions), 'market,' and 'hierarchy' cultures. The responses to the items range between 1 (strongly disagree) and 7 (strongly agree).

In this section, descriptive statistics were given concerning student engagement and organizational culture types. Accordingly, Table 4.1 reveals that the engagement level of the participants was slightly higher than 'moderate engagement' (M=3.78, SD=.50). The market culture was found to be the dominant culture type of the university (M=5.04, SD=.89), followed by the hierarchy culture (M=4.40, SD=.94), and the adhocratic-clan culture (M=4.10, SD=1.00).

Table 4.1

Descriptive statistics for student engagement and organizational culture

	Min.	Max.	*M*	*SD*
Engagement	1.66	5.00	3.78	.50
Adhocratic-clan culture	1.25	7.00	4.10	1.00
Market culture	2.00	7.00	5.04	.89
Hierarchy culture	1.33	7.00	4.40	.94

4.2 Inferential Statistics

4.2.1 Results of t-test and One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

It was the secondary purpose of the study to detect the relationship between background characteristics of the participants and their engagement level. Hence, the mean scores of the participants on the engagement scale were compared by the demographic characteristics illustrated above. An independent samples *t*-test and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were performed to see the difference between engagement levels of the students by their demographic characteristics shown in the previous section. Since these tests are parametric, normal distribution, homogeneity of variance, and independence of the samples are the fundamental assumptions (Field, 2009). Regarding the normality assumption, it is a rule of thumb that the data whose skewness and kurtosis values ranging between +2 and -2 are accepted as normally distributed data (Field, 2009). In this study, engagement was normally distributed with skewness of -.522 (*SE*=.120) and kurtosis of 1.013 (*SE*=.240) (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2

Skewness and kurtosis values for the SES

	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Student engagement	-.522	.120	1.013	.240

Accordingly, results of the Levene's test suggested that equality of variances was satisfied for the groups of gender ($F=3.78$, $p=.52$), age ($F=1.90$, $p=.17$), residency ($F=.29$, $p=.59$), and employment ($F=1.84$, $p=.17$). There was a significant difference between the engagement levels of males ($M=3.71$, $SD=.55$) and females ($M=3.82$, $SD=.46$) $t(408)=-2.249$, $p=.02$). However, the difference represented a small-sized effect ($d=.22$). Besides, it was found out that the engagement levels of the students aged "19-21" years ($M=3.79$, $SD=.47$) and of those aged "22-26" years ($M=3.76$, $SD=.46$) did not differ significantly $t(397)=.659$, $p=.51$). There was also no significant difference between the mean engagement scores of the participants living on-campus ($M=3.84$, $SD=.53$) and of those living off-campus ($M=3.75$, $SD=.47$) $t(411)=1.723$, $p=.56$). Finally, although there was a considerable gap between the sample sizes, the engagement levels of the participants who were employed in a paid job ($M=3.79$, $SD=.52$) and of those who were not employed ($M=3.78$, $SD=.50$) did not differ significantly $t(411)=.190$, $p=.85$). The findings were given in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3

Paired group differences by student engagement

Groups		Student engagement					
		M	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Gender	Male	3.71	.55	408	-2.249	.025*	.218
	Female	3.82	.46				
Age	19-21 years	3.79	.47	397	.659	.515	
	22-26 years	3.76	.53				
Residency	On-campus	3.84	.53	411	1.723	.086	
	Off-campus	3.75	.47				
Employment	Employed	3.79	.52	411	.190	.849	
	Unemployed	3.78	.50				

*$p<0.05$

In terms of analysis of variance, on the other hand, the results of the Levene's test revealed that equality of variances was satisfied for the groups of GPA ($F(2$,

410)=2.71, p=.06), faculty (F(2, 410)=.62, p=.54), and year of study (F(3, 409)=1.30, p=.72). One-way ANOVA results suggested that participants showed significantly different engagement levels by their GPAs, F(2, 410)=35.72, p=.00. The difference also had a large-sized effect (η^2= .34) (Field, 2009). Hochberg's GT2 test was performed as a post-hoc analysis to detect the source of the difference among GPA groups. The results indicated that the "low GPA" group (M=4.03 SD=.46) showed statistically more engagement than the "moderate GPA" (M=3.75 SD=.42) and "high GPA" groups (M=3.42 SD=.59). The "moderate GPA" (M=3.75 SD=.42) group also exhibited statistically more engagement than the "high GPA" group (M=3.42 SD=.59). Besides, the results revealed that engagement levels of the students did not differ by their faculties F(2, 410)=2.41, p=.90. Finally, it was found that there was no significant difference among freshmen (M=3.71 SD=.55), sophomores (M=3.83 SD=.41), juniors (M=3.76 SD=.48), and seniors (M=3.85 SD=.50) by engagement F(3, 409)=2.00, p=.11. The findings obtained from the variance analysis were summarized in the table below (Table 4.4).

Table 4.4

Analysis of variance among the groups by engagement level

Groups		Student engagement					
		M	SD	df	F	p	η^2
	Low	4.03	.46	410	35.717	.000*	.218
GPA	Moderate	3.75	.42				
	High	3.42	.59				
	AEE**	3.86	.54	410	2.417	.090	
Faculty	Arts and Science	3.77	.47				
	Engineering	3.73	.48				
	Freshman	3.71	.55	409	1.999	.114	
Year of	Sophomore	3.83	.41				
Study	Junior	3.76	.48				
	Senior	3.85	.50				

*p<0.05, **Architecture, Economics and Administrative Sciences, and Education

4.2.2 Results of Correlation Analysis

A correlation analysis was performed to uncover the relationship between student engagement and organizational culture in higher education. Accordingly, the assumptions of this analysis were checked, and Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients were calculated. It was provided that the relevant data were linear, and skewness and kurtosis values (Table 4.5) demonstrated that the data were normally distributed.

Table 4.5

Skewness and kurtosis values for the SES and the sub-scales of the OCAI

	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Student engagement	-.522	.120	1.013	.240
Adhocratic-clan culture	-.257	.120	.045	.240
Market culture	-.497	.120	.783	.240
Hierarchy culture	-.236	.120	.255	.240

As summarized in Table 4.6, it was found that there was a significant positive relationship between student engagement and the adhocratic-clan culture (r=.33, p=.00), the market culture (r=.34, p=.00), and the hierarchy culture (r=.16, p=.00). While engagement moderately correlated with adhocratic-clan and market cultures, it was weak with the hierarchy culture (Field, 2009). The relevant correlation matrix was given in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6

Correlations among student engagement and organizational culture types

Variables	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4
1. Student engagement	3.79	.50	1			
2. Adhocratic-clan culture	4.09	1.00	.33*	1		
3. Market culture	5.03	.89	.32*	.63*	1	
4. Hierarchy culture	4.37	.93	.16*	.48*	.53*	1

*p<0.01

4.2.3 Multiple Regression Analysis

In the previous section, it was found that there were significant correlations between engagement and organizational culture types, In the last section, a multiple regression was conducted to seek the answer to whether these culture types predict student engagement. In this study, student engagement is the criterion variable while adhocratic-clan, market, and hierarchy cultures are the predictors.

4.2.3.1 Assumptions of Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple regression analysis has several assumptions, which are sample size, variable types, multicollinearity, normality, homoscedasticity, linearity, presence of outliers, and independence of residuals. These assumptions were checked one by one prior to running the analysis.

It is shown that the minimum sample size needed to run this analysis with the formula 'N>50+8k', where k refers to the number of predictor variables (Field, 2009). Since this study employed three predictor variables, the minimum sample size required is 75. The actual sample size of the current study (413) is quite adequate to meet the assumption.

The next assumption is related to variable types. Field (2009) indicates that predictor variables must be quantitative or categorical, and the criterion variable must be quantitative and continuous to be able to run the analysis. In this study, both the criterion variable (student engagement) and predictor variables (adhocratic-clan, market, and hierarchy cultures) are continuous; therefore, the variable type assumption was satisfied.

Multicollinearity is another assumption of the analysis. It emerges when there is a strong correlation between predictor variables and should be checked by referring to correlations between predictor variables, variance influence factor (VIF), and tolerance value (Field, 2009). First off, the correlation between predictor variables

should not be too strong; namely, the relevant correlation coefficient should be lower than .80 or .90 between predictors (Field, 2009). Accordingly, the findings suggested that there were no strong correlations among the predictor variables of the study (Table 4.7) Secondly, VIF values are reported to be below 10 (Myers, 1990, as cited in Field, 2009) with tolerance value above 0.1 (Field, 2009). In this study, VIF values were found to range from 1.46 to 1.87, and tolerance values were all above 0.1 (.53 - .68). Therefore, it can be confidently concluded that there was no multicollinearity among the predictive variables.

Normality was checked using the histogram and Normal Probability Plot (P-P). Field (2009) indicates that the straight line of the points on the line in this plot shows a normal distribution. In this sense, histogram and P-P displayed in the figures below presents an almost perfect distribution (Figure 4.1 and 4.2).
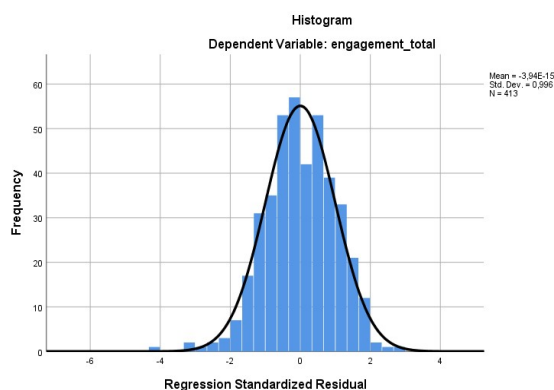
Figure 4.1 The histogram of standardized residuals
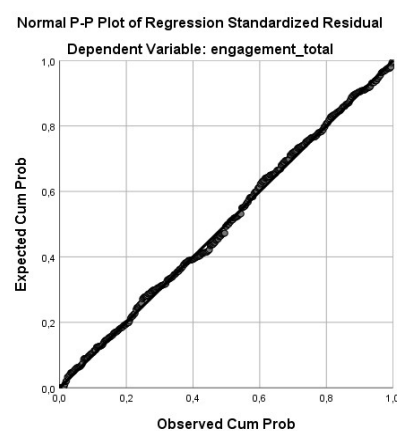
Figure 4.2 The normal probability plot

The scatterplot was used to check homoscedasticity, presence of outliers, and linearity. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), homoscedasticity is that scores on one continuous variable show variability roughly the same with scores on another continuous variable, and scatterplots of these two variables exhibit pretty similar width with slightly popping out along the middle.

The distribution of residuals on the scatterplot was checked, and it was concluded that the homoscedasticity assumption was satisfied (Figure 4.3). Such distribution also indicated that linearity was provided in this study because it is accepted that the distribution of residuals on the scatterplot should have a rectangular-like and non-curved shape for linearity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Finally, it seems that there were two outliers according to the same scatterplot. Outliers are defined as standardized residuals with the values of more than 3.3 and less than -3.3, and few of them will not urge taking some actions (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In this sense, the outlier assumption could be considered not to be violated.
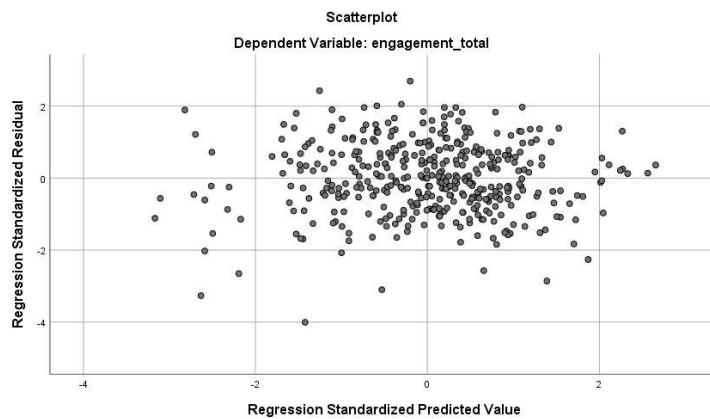
Figure 4.3 Scatterplot of distribution of residuals

Field (2009) states that any observations for residuals should be independent, and this assumption can be checked using the Durbin-Watson test, which is a serial correlation procedure among residuals. The output of the test should be between 0 and 4 (Field, 2009). According to the results, the Durbin-Watson value was found to be 1.87 (Table 4.7). Therefore, the final assumption was satisfied.

4.2.3.2 Results of Multiple Regression Analysis

The research question for which an answer was sought in this study is related to whether there is a relationship between student engagement and organizational culture in higher education, and the findings presented in the previous sections confirmed the

relationship between the variables. Besides, it was also attempted to explore whether student engagement is predicted by these specified culture types.

The results of multiple regression analysis revealed that the regression model established with the variables mentioned above was significant, and two predictor variables, adhocratic-clan and market cultures, were found to explain 14% of the variance in student engagement $F(3, 409) = 21.32$, $p=0.0005$; $R^2=.14$. Ultimately, student engagement was significantly predicted by both the adhocratic-clan culture ($\beta=.22$, $SE=.03$, $p=.00$) and the market culture ($\beta= .21$, $SE=.04$, $p=.00$). However, the hierarchy culture was found not to predict engagement ($\beta= -.06$, $SE=.30$, $p=.30$) significantly, although a significant correlation was found between them. The results were presented in Table 4.7 and 4.8.

Table 4.7

Model summary of multiple regression analysis

Model	R	R^2	$\triangle R^2$	F	Durbin-Watson
1	.37	.14	.13	21.32*	1.87

*$p<0.0005$

Table 4.8

Results of multiple regression analysis of student engagement

Variables	B	SE	β	t	p
Adhocratic-clan culture	.11	.03	.22	3.70*	.00
Market culture	.12	.04	.21	3.40*	.00
Hierarchy culture	-.03	.30	-.06	-1.04	.30

* $p<0.05$

Overall, the participating students were found to show considerable engagement. According to students, the dominant culture of the university was the market culture. While female students seemed to engage more than their male counterparts, it was discovered that the engagement levels of the participants did not differ significantly

by age, residency place, and employment status. Interestingly, the "low GPA" group was found to be more engaged than their peers. However, the engagement levels of the students did not differ by year of study and faculty type.

On the other hand, there was a significant positive relationship between student engagement and adhocratic-clan*,* market, and hierarchy cultures. It was also concluded that the adhocratic-clan culture and the market culture significantly predicted student engagement; therefore, the first, second, and third hypotheses were confirmed. Finally, the hierarchy culture was not found to significantly predict student engagement, which confirmed the last hypothesis of the study.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the results of the present research were discussed primarily in light of the relevant literature and contingent explanations. In addition, implications and recommendations for further studies, as well as the limitations of the study, were presented in this chapter.

5.1 Discussion of the Findings

The present study was conducted to uncover the relationship between student engagement and organizational culture in higher education. While this formed the basis of the main research question, it was specifically sought an answer to whether student engagement is predicted by culture types in higher education. Furthermore, as a secondary purpose, it was deemed to be valuable to investigate the participants' demographics within the engagement subject since the current study was one of the rare studies on student engagement in the national higher education literature. Therefore, it was also given how the participants' engagement differed by their background characteristics. This study employed a correlational design to answer the main research question, and the data gathered from the participants related to their demographic information, engagement level, and culture perceptions were put in relevant analyses. The presented results were discussed below with the findings in the literature.

In this study, it was found that female students engaged more than their male counterparts. This finding is consistent with the relevant literature. Even though LaNasa et al. (2007) found no relationship between gender and engagement, in his study using the national student database, Porter (2006) concluded that female students exhibited more engagement than male students. Moreover, Kuh et al. (2006) reported

that male students were likely to be less engaged than female students. Zhao and Kuh (2004) found that female students were likely to join learning communities than male students, and joining learning communities is considered one of the fundamental elements that increase student engagement. Based on the NSSE 2003 data, which were composed of the engagement survey results of thousands of college students, Kuh (2003) concluded that female students had higher engagement levels than male students. It was even found that females in the several majors of science, technology, engineering, and mathematics showed more engagement even though such majors are generally considered to be male dominated (Zhao et al., 2005).

The result on gender difference in terms of engagement may be due to the socio-cultural characteristics of society regarding woman and women's perceptions of education. Education is the primary determinant of the woman's position in most of the communities so that it will become inevitable for female students to engage in their studies and campus more than their male peers when optimum engagement opportunities are offered by the institutions as well. Whereas studies in the literature did not explore this issue beyond its descriptive nature, it needs to be investigated in-depth to guide both higher education and gender studies.

Another finding of the study indicated that the engagement levels of the students did not differ significantly by their ages. Concerning age, there was also no difference between the engagement levels of freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors. Although studies exploring the relationship between age and engagement are rare, findings in these studies are in direction of little or no impact of background characteristics (such as age, family background, pre-college entry level, minority status, etc.) on student engagement (Pike & Kuh, 2005; Pike, 1999). Trowler and Trowler (2010) suggest that prior characteristics of students do not predict if students will engage; instead, they claim that all students can engage. Pike et al. (2011) also assessed college students in terms of fundamental dimensions of student engagement and found no difference in the engagement levels of students by their ages.

Nevertheless, it was found in a study that nontraditional-age college students (25+ years) engaged more than their non-traditional (18-24 years) counterparts. (Gibson & Slate, 2010) Regarding the year of study, the literature revealed significant engagement differences between freshmen and senior students. For example, Zhao and Kuh (2004) found that first-year students were more likely to join learning communities and campus activities than seniors. Porter and Swing (2006) investigated student engagement in multiple institutions and concluded that freshmen exhibited more engagement. They noted that orientation activities, mentoring programs, and campus activities oriented to first-year students influenced their engagement levels. It was found out that first-year students dealt with being newcomers to the college environment (Wilcox et al., 2005) while supporting inexperienced students through matching them experienced ones within a mentoring scheme helped first-year students to engage (Kiernan et al., 2006). Also, first-year students did pretty much well in academic performance and engagement when they were supported academically (Reason et al., 2006). Kuh (2009) notes that freshmen deserve more attention than other students to ensure their engagement from the very beginning of the semester. Overall, such a contrasting result reasonably stems from the exclusion of first-year students from the current study. The first-year students at that university are generally prep-school students, and they were excluded from this study due to the concerns related to culture perceptions of such newcomer students. In this sense, further studies may directly include prep-school students to make a comparison among the engagement levels of students.

In this study, interestingly, the low GPA group showed statistically more engagement than moderate and high GPA groups. The literature extensively emphasized the role of student engagement in student achievement and grades (Astin, 1999; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Trowler, 2010; Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005; Wolf-Wendel et al., 2009). Campbell and Mayer (2009) suggested that well-engaged students had better course achievement performance compared to their non-engaged peers. Kuh (2003) also demonstrates that student success can only be explained with what the student engages in college instead of what has been brought by the student.

Kahu (2013) asserts that the reason why the engagement construct has become a highly studied topic is its critical role in student achievement. In their study, Kuh et al. (2006) indisputably proved the association between student engagement and student success. A study, where the 2008 NSSE results of an institution were used, revealed that the more the students engaged in their learning, the higher GPAs they obtained and the more positive perception they had about their academic experience (Webber et al., 2013). Walpole (2003) suggested that the students reporting low engagement gained low GPAs. Carini et al. (2006) concluded that the results of the students from the NSSE were positively linked to desirable outcomes, such as grades. Kuh (2009) pointed out the positive contribution of engagement to grades while Pike et al. (2011) discovered the mediating role of engagement in students' grades. According to the above-mentioned findings, students with high academic achievements are expected to exhibit more engagement. The reason lying behind such a finding in this study may be that students in the high GPA group enjoy only their class engagement, but that the low GPA group appreciate other opportunities to be engaged more. Regardless of its explanation, the result is rather shocking and should be emphasized in future studies.

In this study, three faculties (architecture, economics and administrative sciences, and education) were clustered under AEE group to approximate the number of participants enrolled in these faculties to the number of their peers in other faculties (arts and sciences and engineering) to obtain more reliable results from ANOVA. Findings demonstrated that there was no difference among students in terms of engagement by their faculty types. This finding overlaps with what was previously found in the literature. Zhao et al. (2005) found relatively similar engagement levels among students majoring in both STEM and other fields. In another study, it was concluded that students majoring in humanities/social sciences did not engage more than their counterparts majoring in natural sciences/engineering even though these distinct majors created diverse engagement cultures (Brint et al., 2008). Nevertheless, it was found that students majoring in business, education, and engineering were less engaged than their counterparts majoring in humanities, social sciences, and natural sciences (Kuh, 2003). Porter (2006) also revealed that science and humanities majors were more engaged than others. He proposed that such a difference might stem from

the curriculum differentiation among disciplines due to the unique requirements of each discipline (Porter, 2006). In the current study, it may be an explanation of no significant result between engagement and faculty types that curriculum and requirement differentiation among disciplines at that university do not create a remarkable change in academic challenge, active and collaborative learning, and enriching activities, which are considered among the predictors of student engagement.

On the other hand, on-campus and off-campus residents did not differ in terms of engagement. In the relevant literature, it was found that on-campus residency, as opposed to commuting to the campus, had an indirect positive relationship with student engagement (LaNasa et al., 2007). Similarly, Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) assert that living on campus maximizes the opportunities for engagement. On-campus living also fosters engagement in campus activities (Astin, 1999). Moreover, Kezar (2011) notes that residence halls are the mechanisms that can be utilized by institutions to grow their sizes, and the institutional size plays a key role in student engagement. It was also discovered that students residing on campus were more likely to experience better engagement, while off-campus students were less engaged than their counterparts (Kuh et al., 2006; Pike, 1999).

The contrasting finding in this study may be the result of two possible reasons. First, the data of the study were gathered from those who were at the library at the time of data collection phase of this study, and the the library is extensively used by the off-campus residing students (Table 3.1) since each residence hall in the university has its own study rooms for residential students. Secondly, the difference in the number of on-campus and off-campus residents in the study might have led to such an insignificant result. Another explanation may be that a good many off-campus students live in the closest neighborhood of that university so that they have a chance to reach and spend time on campus at any time, which means that they do not differ from on-campus residing students. Finally, the university has an extraordinary campus with much appreciated historical and symbolic places nested in a beautiful natural environment, and the living campus hosts invaluable extracurricular events. Thus, it

saves the students from the chaotic and ordinary atmosphere of the city and offers more freedom and personal development opportunities. Therefore, non-campus residents are likely to spend much of their time on the campus and to show engagement as much as on-campus residents.

The last descriptive finding of this study was related to employment. The results presented that there was no difference between the engagement levels of both employed and non-employed students. In the literature, it was found that students were more likely to disengage due to a high workload extensively increased with paid employment (Jogaratnam & Buchanan, 2004). Wanner (2015) expresses his own experience of lecturing and asserts that working outside the campus rather decreases engagement. Walpole (2003) found that students with low socioeconomic status reported low engagement compared to their peers due to having to work. Conversely, Kuh (2009) asserts that the negative relationship between employment and student engagement may be no more valid in the contemporary world. He found that employment did not affect some other forms of engagement, rather employed students reported a high level of engagement as much as their peers. According to him, employed students get a chance to practice what they have learned, which makes them more competent in teamwork, active learning, and collaboration (Kuh, 2009). Such an explanation may be valid for the students of the university where this study was carried out. Students may be employed in part-time jobs, which do not pose a great challenge for their engagement, or they may work in jobs requiring theoretical and practical knowledge highly compatible with their studies; thus, this situation can be considered to contribute to their engagement in their studies rather than pushing them to be disengaged. Moreover, employed students may have better time management skills, which draws them away their peers in terms of finishing multiple tasks in shorter periods of time.

Before coming to discuss the findings related to the main research questions of this study, it would be appropriate to touch upon the results pertinent to the OCAI. Köse (2017) and Fralinger and Olson (2007) discovered that the OCAI appeared as a scale with a three-factor structure, rather than a four-factor structure in its original when

used to assess the organizational culture in universities. Psychometric measurements of the scale in both studies had suggested that items predicting the clan culture and the adhocracy culture were clustered under the same factor structure. The new culture type was called the *adhocratic-clan* culture (Köse, 2017). Furthermore, Köse (2017) found that two items predicting the adhocracy culture in the original form were clustered under the market culture, and he stated these items, related to 'obtaining project funding' and 'producing academic publications,' might evoke competition in the Turkish higher education system. In this sense, this adapted version of the OCAI was attempted to be validated in this study, and four items (clan1, clan4, market4, and market6) were excluded since they were found to show quite lower loadings to their factors. The reason why these items did not properly load to their factors may be that the items belonging to the adhocracy culture predicted the dimension better than excluded items. For example, the first items of each culture type in the scale are related to dominant characteristics of the organization. When the items of clan and adhocracy cultures were clustered under a single factor, the first item of the adhocracy culture showed higher factor loading value than the first item of the clan culture. Therefore, the item with the factor loading under desired level was excluded from the scale.

The ultimate aim of this study was to investigate whether there was a relationship between student engagement and organizational culture. Therefore, it was sought an answer to whether student engagement is predicted by culture types in higher education. The results revealed that student engagement was significantly predicted by adhocratic-clan and market cultures, respectively. Whereas their statistical values were pretty close to each other, the adhocratic-clan culture seemed to predict engagement slightly more than the market culture. Previous research has not attempted to investigate the direct relationship between student engagement and culture types in universities, but there are some findings in the literature that can be linked to the finding in the current study. In terms of adhocratic-clan culture, which adopts the characteristics of a dynamic, collegial, and flexible structures in institutions, Trowler, (2013) suggests that building a collegial culture may be effective on student engagement. Milburn-Shaw and Walker (2017) propose that collegiality foster the interaction among students and faculty staff, which in turn positively influence

students' engagement behaviors. Carey (2018) asserts that student engagement is associated with collegiality, where discussions and negotiations take place. van der Velden (2012) evaluated the relationship between culture types of two universities, based on McNay's culture models, and student engagement. She found that the college adopting collegial culture was more successful in the engagement of its students than other culture types. In addition, cultures with familial and dynamic characteristics are more likely to emphasize the collaboration and quality interaction among its members; therefore, as collaborative learning and faculty and peer interactions increase, student engagement also increases.

In terms of the market culture, Krause (2005) states that the more market culture the universities adopt, the more they focus on student engagement. Student engagement is seen as a concept that is entirely an outcome of market-oriented policies of contemporary higher education and is of importance related to gaining knowledge and competence for the sake of sectoral demands (Almarghani & Mijatovic, 2017). McInnis (2001) argues that student engagement is not a student-driven concept but emerges due to market-driven concerns. The same view is shared by Zepke (2014), who proposes that HEIs have been turned into places where knowledge and skills are traded, which leads to a relative increase in engaging practices and policies on campuses. Therefore, market-oriented characteristics of HEIs foster behavioral engagement among students, and this is a cycle where market culture and engagement feed each other (Milburn-Shaw & Walker, 2017). However, it is argued that the marketization of the universities, performance-oriented nature of the academic culture, and massification would lead to disengagement (Baron & Corbin, 2012).

In general, marketization and market-oriented characteristics of HEIs are extensively indicated to be associated with student engagement (Bryson & Hand, 2007; Wanner, 2015). Furthermore, since students are regarded as 'clients' in the market culture, such institutions are more likely to emphasize enriching educational activities and campus support services, which are directly related to student engagement.

Finally, in this study, the hierarchy culture was found not to have a predictive value on student engagement. Similarly, van der Velden (2012) states that the engagement of a student is rather limited in bureaucratic cultures since the position of it is static within the organizations, and he found that the students reported less engagement in the bureaucratic culture when compared to others.

5.2 Implications

Student engagement is a subject that is increasingly studied in the higher education literature due to its proven influence on student outcomes and institutional quality within the global league of HEIs. Since such an emerging construct can only be understood with the interaction of both student and institutional characteristics, the engagement literature presents a good many studies employing a wide variety of perspectives to investigate it from both student and organizational aspects. However, there are few studies examining the relationship between student engagement and institutional characteristics from the organizational culture perspective, whereas previous research has implied that culture is key for student engagement. Accordingly, it was imperative to discuss student engagement within the organizational culture in higher education, which was the fundamental concern of the current study. The results of the study revealed some implications for theory, research, and practice.

In theory, the present study revealed interesting results regarding student engagement and demographic characteristics of the participating students. While there were significant differences between engagement and gender and GPA of the students, other subject characteristics employed in this study did not give significant results with student engagement, although the relevant literature indicated the opposite for some of them. Although this was the first study exploring student engagement through student demographics in the national literature, some of the related findings remained out of the generic discourse in the engagement literature. Therefore, the theoretical base of the student engagement can be re-discussed within the Turkish higher education with the help of comprehensive studies to be conducted with larger sample sizes and more than one university.

Secondly, the results indicated that there was a significant relationship between student engagement and organizational culture, and the market culture and the adhocratic-clan culture, which is a hybrid culture type showing both collegiality, dynamism, and personal development, were found to be significant predictors of student engagement. Although such a finding is consistent with what has been found in the previous research, the studies in the relevant literature have only revealed broader implications about engagement and culture and never attempted to investigate student engagement through organizational culture types in higher education. Hence, the current study can be considered pioneering research calling attention to the relationship between organizational culture and student engagement since it was the first time the present study proved the relationship between culture types in higher education and engagement. Therefore, it contributed to what was previously revealed for student engagement through culture. Consequently, this study could lead to the integration of socio-cultural aspects of HEIs into the student engagement theory.

The study will also open rooms for further research focusing on student engagement. The findings obtained as a result of the exploration of student engagement through student demographics and outcomes mandated in-depth investigations of such variables with engagement. Moreover, the predictive nature of the culture types can be re-discussed in other studies to be conducted in different settings. At this point, the results of this quantitative study will also form a base for engagement and culture studies that have a qualitative nature.

Finally, the current study contributed to the culture studies by checking the psychometric properties of the Turkish version of the OCAI. The inventory, firstly developed by Cameron and Quinn (2011) and adapted to Turkish by Köse (2017), was designed to identify the culture types co-existing in the academy as well as business organizations. The studies aiming to reveal the culture types in the universities have always administered the scale to faculty and staff. However, it was the concern of this study to reveal culture types of the university from the perceptions of students; that is, the sample of the study was different from other studies. Accordingly, CFA was

performed, and the construct validity of the Turkish version of the inventory was confirmed upon the exclusion of four items. Different than other culture studies in the higher education literature, the overall concern was to hear students' voices about the culture of their school. However, the relevant analysis to the scale in this study did not revealed robust psychometric properties, namely a good-fitted and perfectly reliable model, since it was previously designed to be administered to the employees of an organization to assess the culture types co-existing in that organization. Therefore, the further studies may concern developing a scale to assess culture types in higher education from the perspectives of students.

In practice, the results of this study revealed useful information for governance, faculty, and other staff of HEIs. First, the engagement level of the students was found to be slightly higher than the average. As extensively highlighted in the literature, student engagement plays a critical role in both increasing student outcomes and finding niche solutions to the problems of HEIs. Therefore, the governance body of the university may consider adopting practices and policies that will foster student engagement and reevaluating the existing ones. Moreover, the faculty may practice techniques and methods for the sake of creating a more engaging class environment.

Second, male students were found to be less engaged than their female counterparts. Even though such a result is consistent with what has been previously found in the literature, the reason lying under the difference may be explored and eliminated by the institutions that desire to increase the overall engagement among their students. Then, it was found in the study that cultures adopting collegiality, personal development, entrepreneurship, and market-driven characteristics predicted student engagement at the university where this study was performed. Therefore, universities pursuing increased student engagement may consider this result in culture building or culture change processes. Finally, the absence of relevant bodies in Turkish universities reveals the need for student affairs professionals to deal with engagement-related issues, to implement engaging activities, or to guide the whole organization to adopt engaging practices and policies.

5.3 Limitations and Recommendations

The current study can be considered a pioneering study in terms of revealing the engagement phenomenon among students of a public university and exploring the relationship between engagement and organizational culture. Nevertheless, it has some limitations. First off, this study was conducted only at a public university. Other universities may be included in further research to obtain more generalizable results and to make comparisons among universities in terms of student engagement and organizational culture. Secondly, the sampling size was relatively small in this study. Larger sample size could have been used to increase the representativeness of the population at that university. Besides, different results may have been obtained with larger sample size. Thirdly, this study adopted the conceptual framework of student engagement developed by Günüç (2016). It was the only theoretical frame created within the Turkish higher education context, and the engagement literature in Turkey need further theoretical studies to enhance the current one. Fourthly, it is hard to state that the scale used in this study to assess organizational culture is a sophisticated measurement tool since it was originally developed to be administered to staff of an organization. Also, the items did not load perfectly to their factors. Accordingly, it is clearly needed to develop a culture scale that can be administered to students to assess the culture of their schools and that is compatible with the Turkish higher education. Finally, the quantitative nature of this study misses some components of the phenomena explored here so that employing a qualitative approach would allow an in-depth understanding of student engagement and culture perceptions of the students.

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APPENDICES

A. QUESTIONNAIRES

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM

Cinsiyetiniz: ☐ Erkek ☐ Kadın ☐ Diğer   **Yaşınız:**

Fakülteniz: **Sınıfınız:**   **Kümülatif Not Ortalamanız (CCGA):**

İkamet ettiğiniz yer: ☐ Kampüs içi ☐ Kampüs dışı **Herhangi bir işte çalışıyor musunuz?:** ☐ Evet ☐ Hayır

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE ASSESSMENT INVENTORY

*Bu ölçek, bu üniversite ile ilgili şu ana kadar geçirdiğiniz öğrenim süreniz boyunca edindiğiniz düşüncelerinizi öğrenmek adına oluşturulmuş ifadelerden oluşmaktadır. Öğrenim sürecinizle ilgili **yukarıdaki** bilgilerle birlikte aşağıdaki ifadelere, bu kurum ile ilgili düşüncelerinizi **en iyi yansıtacak** şekilde, **dürüstçe** ve aynı zamanda **eksiksiz** cevap vermeniz çok önemlidir.*	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Üniversitem geniş bir aile gibidir, insanlar kendileriyle ilgili pek çok şeyi paylaşır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Üniversitem dinamik ve girişimci bir yerdir, insanlar girişken ve risk almaya isteklidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Üniversitem sonuç odaklıdır, insanlar rekabetçi ve başarı odaklıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Üniversitem çok kontrollü ve yapılandırılmış bir yerdir. İnsanların ne yapacağını genelde resmi prosedürler belirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Üniversitemde yöneticiler, genel olarak, rehber, kolaylaştırıcı ve koruyucu olarak görülür.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Üniversitemde yöneticiler, genel olarak, yenilikçi ve risk alabilen kişiler olarak görülür.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Üniversitemde yöneticiler, genel olarak, rekabetçi ve sonuç odaklı kişiler olarak görülür.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Üniversitemde yöneticiler, genel olarak, koordinatör ve bürokratik işleyişe önem veren kişiler olarak görülür.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Üniversitemin yönetim tarzı; takım çalışması, uzlaşı ve işbirliğini teşvik eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Üniversitemin yönetim tarzı; bireysel risk almayı ve özgünlüğü teşvik eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Üniversitemin yönetim tarzı; sıkı rekabet, yüksek beklenti ve başarıyı teşvik eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Üniversitemin yönetim tarzı; istikrarı ve kurallara uymayı teşvik eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Üniversitemde insanları bağlılık ve karşılıklı güven bir arada tutar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. Üniversitemde insanları yenilikçilik ve gelişim tutkusu bir arada tutar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Üniversitemde insanları başarı ve rakipleri geçme tutkusu bir arada tutar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Üniversitemde insanları resmi görevler ve kurallar bir arada tutar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Üniversitem insana değer verir. Kurumda güven, açıklık ve paylaşım değerlidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Üniversitem yeni kaynaklar (araştırma/proje fonları vb.) elde etmeye önem verir. Yeni şeyler denemeye ve fırsatlar aramaya değer verilmektedir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Üniversitem rekabetçiliğe ve diğer üniversiteler arasında öne çıkmaya öncelik verir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Üniversitemde kontrol ve işlerin düzgün yürümesi önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Üniversitemde başarı; takım çalışması ve insana hizmet açısından tanımlanmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Üniversitemde başarı; özgün çalışmalar (araştırma, patent, eser vb.) ortaya koymak ve yenilikçi olmaktır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Üniversitemde başarı; rakipleri geçmek ve alanda lider olmaktır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Üniversitemde başarı; planlamaları iyi yapmak, çalışmaları aksatmadan ve düşük maliyetle tamamlamaktır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

STUDENT ENGAGEMENT SCALE

*Bu ölçek, bu üniversitedeki öğrenim süreniz boyunca edindiğiniz deneyimleri öğrenmek adına oluşturulmuş ifadelerden oluşmaktadır. Aşağıdaki ifadelere deneyimlerinizi **en iyi yansıtacak** şekilde, **dürüstçe** ve aynı zamanda **eksiksiz** cevap vermeniz çok önemlidir.*	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Üniversitenin bana faydalı olduğunu düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Üniversite, yaşamımda büyük önem taşır.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Üniversite eğitimini ciddiye alırım, önemserim.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Kampüsteyken kendimi mutlu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Kendimi kampüsün bir parçası gibi hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Kampüse gitmek için sabırsızlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Kampüste zaman geçirmek hoşuma gider.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Kampüste yapılan etkinlikler hoşuma gider.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Kampüste kendimi güvende hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Kampüs etkinliklerine (spor, kültürel, kulüp vb.) katılırım.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Kampüse isteyerek, zevkle giderim.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Ödevlerimin haricinde de ders çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Derslere hazırlıklı giderim.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Derslerde öğrendiklerimi ders dışında arkadaşlarımla konuşurum/tartışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Derslerde yapabileceğimin en iyisini yapmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Öğrenmek için kendimi motive ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Kendi öğrenme amaçlarımı belirlerim.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Öğrenmek için yeterli çabayı/zamanı harcarım.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Dersleri dikkatlice dinlerim.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Ödevlerimi en iyi şekilde yapmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Derslerde öğrendiklerim benim için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Sınıfımda yakın arkadaş(lar)ım var.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Derslerde arkadaşlarımı görmekten hoşlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5

24. Sınıfta kendimi bir öğrenci grubunun parçası/üyesi olarak hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Kampüsteki arkadaşlarım, onlara ihtiyaç duyduğumda yanımda olur.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Sınıf arkadaşlarımla (grupla) çalışmayı önemserim.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Sınıf arkadaşlarım için bir şeyler yapmaktan hoşlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Derslerime giren öğretim elemanlarını severim.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Derslerime giren öğretim elemanları tüm öğrencilere eşit (adil) davranır.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Derslerime giren öğretim elemanları, onlara ihtiyaç duyduğumda yanımda olur.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Derslerime giren öğretim elemanlarının alanlarında yeterli olduğunu düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Sorunlarımı paylaşabileceğim öğretim elemanları var.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Derslerime giren öğretim elemanları bana bir birey olarak saygı duyar.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Derslerime giren öğretim elemanları benimle etkileşim/iletişim içindedir.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Derslerime giren öğretim elemanları ilgi ve ihtiyaçlarımı dikkate alır.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Dersler eğlenceli geçer.	1	2	3	4	5
37. Derslerime giren öğretim elemanları ile iletişim kurmaktan hoşlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Derslerde kurallara uyarım	1	2	3	4	5
39. Grup çalışmalarında üstüme düşen sorumluluğu en iyi şekilde yerine getirmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
40. Ödevlerimi/görevlerimi zamanında bitiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
41. Derslerde diğer öğrencileri dikkatlice dinlerim.	1	2	3	4	5

B. INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Bu çalışma, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Eğitim Yönetimi ve Planlaması Anabilim Dalı Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi **Ersan BORHAN** tarafından **Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Serap EMİL** danışmanlığında yürütülen bir çalışma olup, **yükseköğretimde öğrenci katılımı ile üniversitelerdeki örgüt kültürü arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır**. Çalışmaya katılımınız **gönüllülük** esasına dayanmaktadır. Çalışma yaklaşık 10 dakika sürmektedir. İsminizi yazmak ya da kimliğinizi açığa çıkaracak bir bilgi vermek zorunda değilsiniz. Araştırma kapsamında toplanan veriler, **sadece bilimsel amaçlar** doğrultusunda kullanılacak olup, araştırmanın amacı dışında ya da bir başka araştırmada kullanılmayacak ve gerekmesi halinde, sizin (yazılı) izniniz olmadan **başkalarıyla paylaşılmayacaktır**. Vereceğiniz cevaplar bu çalışma için çok büyük değer taşımaktadır. Bu nedenle sorulara sizi **en iyi yansıtacak şekilde** ve **dürüstçe** cevap vermeniz araştırmanın güvenirliği açısından çok önemlidir. Dolduracağınız anketlerde size rahatsızlık verebilecek herhangi bir soru/talep olmayacaktır. Yine de katılımınız sırasında herhangi bir sebepten **rahatsızlık hissederseniz çalışmadan istediğiniz zamanda ayrılabileceksiniz**. Çalışmadan ayrılmanız durumunda sizden toplanan veriler çalışmadan çıkarılacak ve imha edilecektir.

Gönüllü katılım formunu okumak ve değerlendirmek üzere ayırdığınız zaman için teşekkür ederim. Çalışma hakkındaki sorularınızı Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Eğitim Yönetimi ve Planlaması Anabilim Dalı Öğretim Üyesi Dr. Serap EMİL ya da yüksek lisans öğrencisi Ersan BORHAN'a yöneltebilirsiniz.

E-posta: semil@metu.edu.tr - ersan.borhan@metu.edu.tr

Bu çalışmaya tamamen kendi rızamla, istediğim takdirde çalışmadan ayrılabileceğimi bilerek verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlarla kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

(Lütfen bu formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra veri toplayan kişiye veriniz.)

E-posta:

İmza:

C. APPROVAL OF METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
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Sayı: 28620816 / 514

08 EKİM 2018

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Dr.Öğretim Üyesi Serap EMİL

Danışmanlığını yaptığınız yüksek lisans öğrencisi Ersan BORHAN'ın **"Yükseköğretimde öğrenci katılımı ve örgüt kültürü arasındaki ilişkinin belirlenmesi"** başlıklı araştırmanız İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay **2018-EGT-143** protokol numarası ile **01.11.2018 - 31.12.2019** tarihleri arasında geçerli olmak üzere verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Prof. Dr. Ş. Halil TURAN
Başkan V

Prof. Dr. Ayhan SOL
Üye

Prof. Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR
Üye

Doç. Dr. Yaşar KONDAKÇI
Üye

Doç. Dr. Zana ÇITAK
Üye

Doç. Dr. Emre SELÇUK
Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Pınar KAYGAN
Üye

D. APPROVAL OF THE AUTHORS TO USE THE SCALES

Student Engagement Scale

Selim Günüç <selimgunuc@hotmail.com>   21 Şub 2018 Çar 00:14   ☆   ↩   ⋮
Alıcı: ben ▾

MErhaba

Kullanabilirsin,

Aynı zamanda nobel yayın evinden çıkan üni öğr bağ kitabımı da almanı öneririm. O kitabın sonunda ölçeğin nasıl
puanlanacağını ve kullanılacağını da anlattım

Kolay gelsin

Doç.Dr. Selim GÜNÜÇ   /   Assoc. Prof. Selim GUNUC

Researcher / Post-Phd   Associate Professor
Cyberpsychology   Technology Integration
Psychology Department   Computer Educ. and Instruct. Technologies
Nottingham Trent University   Y uzuncu Yil University, Turkey

Organizational Culture Assessment Inventory

OCAI Permission Gelen Kutusu ×

Meredith Smith <meredithbusiness@gmail.com>   6 Mar 2018 Sal 16:07
Alıcı: ben ▾

İngilizce ▾   >   Türkçe ▾   İletiyi çevir   İngilizce için kapat ×

Dear Ersan,

Thank you for your inquiry regarding the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI). Kim Cameron copyrighted the OCAI in the 1980s, but because it is published in the Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture book, it is also copyrighted by Jossey Bass.

The instrument may be used free of charge for research or student purposes, but a licensing fee is charged when the instrument is used by a company or by consulting firms to generate revenues. As a graduate student, you may use it free of charge. Please be sure all surveys and your dissertation include the appropriate copyright information (© Kim Cameron). Professor Cameron appreciates your sharing your results with him when you finish your study.

We do have a local company (BDS, Behavioral Data Services, 734-663-2990, Sherry.Slade@b-d-s.com) which can distribute the instrument on-line, tabulate scores, and produce feedback reports for a fee. These reports include comparison data from approximately 10,000 organizations--representing many industries and sectors, five continents, and approximately 100,000 individuals.

I hope this explanation is helpful. Congratulations on your program, and I wish you well on your project.

Best wishes,

Meredith Smith
Assistant to Kim Cameron

Fatih KÖSE <m.fatihkose@gmail.com>   25 Kas 2019 Pzt 14:48
Alıcı: ben ▾

Merhaba,

Ölçeği çalışmalarınızda kullanabilirsiniz.
Başarılar dilerim.

Mehmet Fatih Köse

Ersan Borhan <ersan.borhan@gmail.com> şunları yazdı (25 Kas 2019 14:42):

...

110

E. TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKÇE ÖZET

Giriş

Küreselleşme, bilimsel ve teknolojik gelişmeler ve ekonomik refah eğitimin kitleselleşmesine katkıda bulunmuştur (Scott, 1995). Öte yandan, Türk yükseköğretimi de bundan nasiplenmiştir. 1974-1981 arasında toplam öğrenci sayısı 41.574 iken, bu sayı 2003 yılında yaklaşık 2 milyona yükselmiştir (Günay & Günay, 2016). 2019'da Türk üniversitelerine kayıtlı toplam öğrenci sayısı yaklaşık 7.5 milyondur. (Yükseköğretim Bilgi Yönetim Sistemi, 2019). Ayrıca, Cumhuriyet'in ilanından yirmi yıl sonra Türkiye'de sadece 3 üniversite varken, bu sayı 70'lerde 18 idi. 1981 yılında Yükseköğretim Kurulu'nun kurulması ve aynı yıl yürürlüğe giren özel (vakıf) üniversitelerin kurulmasına izin veren kanun, üniversitelerin sayısını ve kayıt oranlarını arttırmıştır. Ayrıca, Türkiye'nin her ilinde yükseköğretimi yaymaya yönelik hükümet politikaları üniversitelerin sayısında hızlı bir artışa neden olmuştur. Bugün Türkiye'de 129 devlet ve 72 özel üniversite bulunmaktadır (Yükseköğretim Bilgi Yönetim Sistemi, 2019).

Her yıl milyonlarca öğrenci çeşitli amaçlar için yükseköğretim kurumlarına kaydolmaktadır. Bununla birlikte öğrencileri, zamanlarını bu kurumlarda geçirmeye iten şey esas olarak, sosyal sınıfı zaten ebeveynleri tarafından belirlenmiş olanların karşısında, çalışma hayatına atılmak için derece ve yeterlilik elde etmek adına bir üniversiteye kaydolmayı destekleyen 'yukarı hareketlilik' kavramı altında yatmaktadır (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008). Amaçları ne olursa olsun, öğrenciler yükseköğretim kurumlarının sunduklarını deneyimlemeye başladıktan sonra kendi demografik özellikleriyle beraber akademinin bir parçası haline gelirler (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Bu tür deneyimler çoğunlukla kampüs hayatı, akademik iş yükü, hoca ve akran etkileşimleri gibi yükseköğretime özgü deneyimlerle ilişkilidir. Nitekim, yükseköğretim çalışmaları üniversitelerle ilgili sorunları ortaya çıkarmak için yapısal unsurlara odaklandığından bu tür öğrenci deneyimleri her zaman üstü kapalı ve sıradan

kalmıştır. 21. yüzyılda değişen talepler ve kitleselleşme, mevcut olayları tam olarak anlamak ve üniversitelerdeki içselleşmiş problemleri çözmek adına öğrenci deneyimlerinin yanı sıra örgütsel yönleri de incelemeyi zorunlu kılmıştır.

Birçok araştırmacı zaman içinde öğrencilerin üniversite deneyimlerini kavramsallaştırmaya çalışmıştır (Pace, 1990; Astin, 1999; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Axelson & Flick, 2010). Yakın bir geçmişe, George Kuh (2001) öğrenci deneyimlerini tanımlamak ve bu deneyimlerle ilişkili olan başka değişkenler için daha önce ortaya atılan kavramsallaştırmaları pekiştirmiştir. Bu nedenle, öğrencilerin üniversite deneyimlerini tanımlamak için 'öğrenci katılımı' terimini kullanmıştır. Kuh (2001) öğrenci katılımını, öğrencilerin yükseköğretim kurumlarında eğitim amaçlı faaliyetlere ayırdıkları zaman ve enerji ve bu kurumların öğrenciler için etkili eğitim uygulamaları ve çevresi yaratma çabaları olarak tanımlamaktadır. Her ne kadar farklı araştırmacılar öğrenci deneyimleri için farklı terminolojiler kullansalar da hepsinin görüşü, öğrenmenin öncelikle öğrencilerin üniversitede yaptıklarının ve üniversitenin öğrencileri için ne yaptığının uyumundan kaynaklandığını savunan basit fakat oldukça etkili bir önermeye dayanmaktadır (Pike & Kuh, 2005).

Öğrenci katılımı, öğrencilerin hem akademik hem de ders dışı faaliyetlere anlamlı ve amaçlı katılım gösterdiği ve örgütsel uygulamaların bu katılımı zenginleştirici ve tatmin edici hale getirdiği bir süreçtir. Alanyazın, öğrenci katılımını tanımlamak için yoğun bir şekilde öğrenci davranışlarına ve özelliklerine odaklanmaktadır, ancak örgütsel faktörler ikincil öneme sahiptir. Sunulan akademik deneyim ve zorluk (Coates, 2007; Kuh, 2001; Zepke & Leach, 2010), öğretim ve hocaların tutum ve davranışları (Bryson & Hand, 2007; Collaço, 2017; Duzević, 2015), destek hizmetleri (Kuh & Gonyea, 2015; Leach, 2016; Zepke & Leach, 2010), örgütsel çevre (Astin, 1999; LaNasa vd., 2007; Umbach & Porter, 2002; Zhao & Kuh, 2004), örgüt misyonu (Kezar & Kinzie, 2006), itibar ve erişilebilirlik (Duzević, 2015; Trowler, 2010), örgütsel yönetişim ve liderlik (Carey, 2018; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Trowler, 2010) ve fakülte kültürü (Kuh & Whitt, 1988) öğrenci katılımını yordayan örgütsel faktörlerdir. Buradaki eksiklik, öğrenci katılımının bu tür örgütsel özelliklerin bir arada bulunduğu daha kompakt bir kavramla - örgüt kültürü - incelenmesi ihtiyacıdır.

Başka bir deyişle, üniversitelerdeki örgüt kültürü, başarılı öğrenci katılımını neyin farklı kıldığını açıklayabilir (Pike & Kuh, 2005).

Örgüt kültürünün öğrenci katılımı üzerinde büyük bir sorumluluğu olduğu açıktır; çünkü katılım kavramı, öğrenci deneyimleri ve örgütsel özellikler ile iki ayaklı olarak algılanmaktadır. Üniversitelerde örgütsel kültür ögeleri (örgütsel çevre, misyon, itibar, erişilebilirlik, yönetişim ve liderlik ve fakülte kültürü) öğrenci katılımı kavramı içinde alanyazında tanımlanmış ve incelenmiştir. Burada kritik olan, örgütsel kültür ve öğrenci katılımı arasındaki soyut ve bulanık ilişkiyi açıklığa kavuşturmak ve örgütsel kültür anlayışı dahilinde yükseköğretim kurumlarında öğrenci katılımını belirlemek için somut ve anlaşılır bir çerçeve ortaya koymaktır.

Genel olarak, yukarıda verilen arka plan ışığında, araştırmanın amacı, Türkiye'de bir devlet üniversitesinde üniversite öğrencilerinin katılımı ile örgüt kültürü arasındaki ilişkiyi ortaya çıkarmak; bu doğrultuda örgüt kültürü türlerinin öğrenci katılımındaki yordayıcılığını belirlemektir. Dolayısıyla bu araştırmada şu soruya yanıt aranmıştır:

- Yükseköğretimdeki örgüt kültürü türleri öğrenci katılımının anlamlı birer yordayıcısı mıdır?

Öğrenci katılımını anlamak, eğitim kalitesini yeniden değerlendirmek ve üniversitelerin karşılaşılan bazı sorunlarını çözmek için farklı bir perspektif getirecektir. Öğrenci katılımının hem istenen öğrenci kazanımları hem de üniversitelerdeki operasyonel konular üzerinde olumlu etkileri olduğuna dair önemli kanıtlar vardır. Dolayısıyla, bu çalışma ülkemizdeki tüm yükseköğretim paydaşlarının farkındalıklarını arttırmak ve yükseköğretim konularına öğrenci katılım perspektifinden bakmalarını sağlamak adına öğrenci katılım olgusunu örgüt kültürü üzerinden tasvir edecektir.

Sonuç olarak, sınırlı da olsa, araştırmadan elde edilecek veriler, bir devlet üniversitesinde öğrenci katılımı ile ilgili mevcut durumu göreceli olarak ortaya koyacaktır. Bu veriler, üniversitenin gündemine alınması gereken öğrenci katılımına

yönelik uygulamaları hayata geçirmek, katılımı artırıcı stratejilere karar vermek veya öğrenci katılımı üzerinde çalışan mevcut organları geliştirmek için kullanılabilir.

Çalışmanın sonuçları, yükseköğretim kurumlarında öğrenci katılımı ile ilgili bir değişim süreci başlatmada ve ülkemizde yeni açılan üniversitelerin öğrenci katılımına duyarlı bir örgüt kültürü benimsemelerinin yolunu açmak için bir aracı olabilir. Son olarak, bu araştırma, öğrenci katılımının sadece okul bağlamıyla sınırlı araştırmalardan oluştuğu ve örgüt kültürü çalışmalarının farklı bakış açılarından mahrum olduğu Türk alanyazınına ciddi bir katkıda bulunacaktır.

Alanyazın

Öğrenci Katılımı

Öğrenci katılımı, çeşitli şekillerde tanımlanabilecek geniş kapsamlı bir kavramdır (Zepke & Leach, 2010). Bununla birlikte, 1960 ve 1970 arasında Robert Pace'in çalışmaları ciddi sonuçlar vermiş ve bu sonuçlar, müteakip çalışmalarla ve Üniversite Öğrencileri Deneyimleri Ölçeği'nin ilk sonuçlarıyla birlikte üniversite etkisi alanyazının kutsal varsayımlarına meydan okumuştur (Gonyea vd., 2003). Pace'in (1990) varsayımı, öğrencilerin, gelişimleri için üniversite tarafından sunulan imkanları kullanmada daha fazla çaba gösterdiklerinde öğrenecekleri ve yükseköğretimden gerçek manasıyla faydalanacakları ile ilgilidir. Böylece, öğrenciler ve üniversiteleri arasında böylesine benzersiz bir etkileşimi tanımlamak ve üniversitelerde öğrenme ve gelişim için neyin önemli olduğunu özetlemek için "çabanın kalitesi" terimi kullanılmıştır (Pace, 1990).

Sonraki yıllarda, Alexander Astin öncül çalışmaların ortaya attığı katılım kavramın kapsamını genişletmiş ve 'öğrenci bağlılığı' teorisini ortaya koymuştur. Öğrenci bağlılığı, öğrencinin akademik deneyime ayırdığı fiziksel ve psikolojik enerji miktarı olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Astin, 1999). Astin, katılım konusunu ele alırken teorisini üç temel öğretinin etkileşimi üzerine kurmuştur. Birincisi, öğrencilerin demografik özellikleriyle ilgili olan "girdiler;" ikincisi, öğrencilerin üniversite yıllarındaki

deneyimlerini ifade eden "çevre;" üçüncüsü ise öğrencilerin mezuniyetten sonra ne elde ettiklerine atıfta bulunan "kazanımlar"dır (Astin, 1999).

George Kuh, 2000'lerde öğrenci katılımına güncel bir tanım getirmiştir. Ona göre katılım, öğrencilerin üniversitelerde eğitim amaçlı etkinliklere ayırdıkları zaman ve enerji ve üniversitelerin öğrenciler için etkili eğitim uygulamaları ve ortamlar yaratma çabalarıdır (Kuh, 2009). Her ne kadar George Kuh ve Alexander Astin, bağlılık ve katılım terimlerinin neredeyse aynı fenomenin zamansal tasvirleri olduğunu ve aralarında temel farklılıklar olmadığını önermelerine rağmen (Axelson & Flick, 2010), katılım, bağlılıktan daha fazlasıdır (Trowler, 2010). Bağlılık, bir kişinin bir şeye dahil olmak için ne yaptığı ile ilgilenir, ancak katılımın hem öğrencilerin eylemleri hem de eğitim ortamının, öğrenciler tarafından destekleyici ve değer verici olarak algılanması gereken sunduğu ile ilgilidir (Wolf-Wendel vd., 2009).

Öğrenci katılımını tanımlamak ve temel önermelerini ortaya koymak bu kavramı tam olarak anlamak için yeterli değildir; bunun yerine, öğrencilerin katılımının nasıl gerçekleştiğini ortaya çıkarmak gereklidir. Öğrenci katılımını ayrıntılı bir şekilde irdeleyen teorik yaklaşımlar, etkili öğrenci gelişimi ve dolayısıyla öğrenci katılımı ile ilişkili koşulların ve faaliyetlerin yıllar süren irdelenmesi ile ortaya çıkmıştır (Coates, 2007).

Kuh'un Öğrenci Katılımı Teorisi

George Kuh tarafından 2001 yılında geliştirilen ve yorumlanan en etkili modellerden biri, öğrenci katılımı için bir çerçeve çizmekte ve katılımın belirli öğrenci ve örgütsel davranışları içeren bir kavram olması önermesine dayanmaktadır. Buna göre, katılım olgusu, beş temel ilkeden müteşekkil bir model aracılığıyla gözlemlenebilir ve ölçülebilir. Birincisi, *akademik zorluk*, verilen görevler için harcanması gereken süre ve bu tür akademik çalışmalara gösterilen çaba miktarı olarak tanımlanır. İkincisi, *aktif ve işbirlikli öğrenme*, farklı ortamlarda öğrenilenleri düşünme ve uygulama ve sınıf içi ve sınıf dışı ortamlarda akranlar ile birlikte çalışma anlamına gelmektedir (Gonyea & Kuh, 2009). Üçüncüsü, *öğrenci-hoca etkileşimi*, öğrenciler ve fakülte personeli

arasındaki etkileşimlerin kalitesini ifade eder (Kuh, 2001). Dördüncüsü, *zengin eğitimsel deneyimler*, çekici ve etkili sınıf içi pedagojik yöntemler kullanılarak gerçekleştirilen öğrenme faaliyetleri veya akademik bir programın hedeflerini tamamlayıcı olarak yapılan ders dışı faaliyetler ve programlardan oluşur (Kuh, 2001). Beşincisi, *destekleyici kampüs ortamı*, öğrencilerin daha iyi performans gösterdikleri, daha memnun oldukları ve başlarıyla kaliteli ilişkiler geliştirdikleri yerdir (Kuh, 2009).

Okula Katılım Çerçevesi

Fredericks ve arkadaşlarına göre, öğrenci katılımı, öğrenci öğrenmesi ve başarısı üzerine yapılan araştırmanın farklı bakış açıları sayesinde anlamlı olabilen karmaşık ve çok yönlü bir kavramdır (Fredricks vd., 2004). Onlara göre katılım, birden fazla boyutun kaynaşmasının anlamlı bir sonucu olan bir meta-yapıdır. Bu anlamda, katılım perspektifi, öğrenci duyguları ve psikolojisi ile davranışların dahil edilmesi şeklinde genişletilmelidir. Böylece, katılım üç şekilde tanımlanabilir. Birincisi, iştirak fikrine atıfta bulunan ve akademik faaliyetlerin yanı sıra ders dışı etkinliklere de katılımı ifade eden *davranışsal katılımdır*. İkincisi, öğrencilerin personele, akranlarına, akademisyenlere ve üniversiteye verdiği her türlü tepkiyi içeren ve öğrencilerin üniversiteye bir bağlılık geliştirmelerini ve görev yapma istekliliklerini etkileyen *duygusal katılımdır*. Üçüncüsü ise, eğitim faaliyetleri dahilindeki karmaşık konuları anlamak ve zor beceriler edinmek adına çaba harcama ve istekliliği bir arada sunan *bilişsel katılımdır* (Fredricks vd., 2004).

Günüç'ün Öğrenci Katılımı Çerçevesi

Örgütsel faktörler ile birlikte üç boyutlu (davranışsal, duygusal ve bilişsel) bir öğrenci katılımı çerçevesinin uygulanması, öğrenci katılımı konusunda oldukça kapsamlı bir anlayış ortaya koyacaktır. Bu nedenle bu çalışmada, Günüç'ün öğrenci katılımı çerçevesi kullanılmıştır. Günüç, (2016) karma teorisinde, öğrenci katılımını ağırlıklı olarak öğrencilere odaklanan bir açıdan açıklamanın tatmin edici olmayacağını, fenomeni ancak örgütsel tamamlayıcısı ile birlikte açıklamanın gerekli olduğunu öne sürmüştür. Ona göre, öğrenci katılımının, sınıf katılımı ve kampüs katılımı olmak

üzere 2 temel boyutu vardır. Bu modelde, 'sınıf katılımı' boyutu, öğrenci katılımının yukarıda bahsedilen vazgeçilmez üç unsuru (davranışsal, bilişsel ve duygusal) ile ele alınmaktadır. Örgütsel uygulamalar, kampüs iklimi, fiziksel koşullar, ders dışı faaliyetler, güvenlik ve öğrenme toplulukları gibi örgütsel faktörler 'kampüs katılımı' terimi içinde ele alınmaktadır (Günüç & Kuzu, 2014). Kampüs ortamına ait olma duygusu geliştirmek ve üniversiteye ve yükseköğretime değer vermek öğrenci katılımında kritik faktörler olarak görülmektedir (Günüç, 2016). Bu nedenle, bu modelde, aidiyet duygusu ve değer verme 'kampüs katılımı' boyutunun iki unsuru olarak kabul edilmektedir. Aidiyet duygusu, öğrencinin, okuldakilerin (öğretmenler, personel, akranlar) kendisini kabul ettiğini, desteklediğini ve etkinliklere dahil ettiğini hissetmesi olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Goodenow, 1993). Değer verme ise kampüs katılımının bir başka unsurudur ve yükseköğretimi, öğrenmeyi, kampüs ortamını, akranları ve hocaları kıymetlendirmeyi ifade etmektedir.

Öğrenci Katılımı Alanyazını

Öğrenci katılımının neden yükseköğretim çalışmalarının ana odağı haline geldiği, sektörlerin yüksek nitelikli mezun talepleridir (Choi & Rhee, 2014; Yorke, 2006), yükseköğretimde kalite arayışları (Almarghani & Mijatovic, 2017) ve yükseköğretimin piyasalaşması (Leach, 2016; Wanner, 2015; Zepke, 2014) ile alakalıdır. Her şeyden önce, yükseköğretim alanyazınında öğrenci katılımını ön plana çıkaran şey, istenen öğrenci kazanımları ve öğrenci katılımı arasındaki sağlam ilişkidir. İlgili alanyazın, öğrenci katılımı ile öğrenci memnuniyeti (Kuh, 2005; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Umbach & Porter, 2002; Zhao & Kuh, 2004), öğrenme (Astin, 1999; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Trowler & Trowler, 2010; Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005; Wolf-Wendel vd., 2009), daha yüksek not ortalaması ve başarı (Astin, 1999; Carini vd., 2006; Fredricks vd., 2004; Kuh, 2003; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Pike vd., 2011; Walpole, 2003; Webber vd., 2013), beceri, yeterlilik ve yetenek kazanımları (Carini vd., 2006; Choi & Rhee, 2014; Kuh, 2009; Webber vd., 2013) ve kişisel gelişim (Kahu, 2013; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Trowler, 2010; Zhao & Kuh, 2004) arasında olumlu bir ilişki olduğunu göstermektedir.

Öğrenci katılımı, öz kuramlar (örneğin, kendine inanma) (Llorens vd., 2007; Yorke & Knight, 2004), akran ilişkisi (Kember, 2004; Milburn-Shaw & Walker, 2017; Moran & Gonyea, 2003; Zhao & Kuh, 2004), personel ile etkileşim (Bryson & Hand, 2007; Kuh vd., 2006; Xerri vd., 2018), çeşitli kaynaklardan destek (aile desteği ve finansal destek) (Ganotice & King, 2014; Kiernan vd., 2006; Wilcox vd., 2005), iş yükü ve ücretli çalışma (Chambers, 1992; Krause, 2005; Ruohoniemi & Lindblom - Ylänne, 2009; Walpole, 2003) ve demografik özelliklerden (Bauer & Liang, 2003; Kuh, 2009; Pike & Kuh, 2005; Strauss & Volkwein, 2002) oldukça etkilenmektedir.

Öte yandan, öğrenci katılımının tanımında olduğu gibi, kavram örgütsel özelliklerden ayrı düşünülmemektedir. Bu nedenle, katılım aynı zamanda kurumsal uygulamalar ve politikalar (Carey, 2018; Kuh, 2005; Porter, 2006; Zepke & Leach, 2010), zengin ve destekleyici kampüs ortamı (Coates, 2010; Collaço, 2017; Doyle, 2008; Freeman vd., 2007; Kuh, 2003), destek hizmetleri ve tesisler (Almarghani & Mijatovic, 2017; Kiernan vd., 2006; Kuh & Gonyea, 2015; Pittaway & Moss, 2006) ve kampüste ikamet (LaNasa vd., 2007; Pike vd., 2011; Webber vd., 2013; Zhao & Kuh, 2004) ile de yordanmaktadır. Üniversitelerde bu tür özellikler katılım kavramı içerisinde ele alınmasına rağmen, aynı zamanda işlerin nasıl yapıldığının ve ne tür uygulamaların ve politikaların benimsendiğinin ayırt edici yansımalarıdır. Dolayısıyla bu tür özellikler, bir üniversitenin örgüt kültürünü tanımlayan bileşenler olarak da ortaya çıkarlar.

Üniversitelerde Örgüt Kültürü

Araştırmacılar yükseköğretimdeki kültürel ortamı yukarıdaki tanıma dayalı olarak incelemiş, kavramsallaştırmaya çalışmış ve "üniversitelerde işlerin nasıl ele alındığını" anlamak için birkaç kültür modeli veya tipolojileri ortaya atmışlardır.

Baldridge vd. (1974) öncül çalışmalarında üniversiteleri kültürel açıdan klasik bürokratik örgütlerle karşılaştırmışlardır. Bir üniversitenin kültürel bağlamı 'organize anarşi' den başka bir şey değildir, çünkü klasik bürokratik örgütlerle karşılaştırıldığında, üniversiteler belirsiz ve tartışmalı hedeflere sahiptir; yönetimde kayda değer hak talep eden müşterilere hizmet eder; çoğunlukla müşterilerinin

ihtiyaçlarını karşılamayan sorunlu bir teknoloji kullanır; sadece profesyonellerin çalıştığı profesyonel kuruluşlar olarak işlev görür; ve çevrelerinden oldukça etkilenirler (Baldridge vd., 1974). Baldridge ve arkadaşları akademinin bu ayırt edici özelliklerine göre bürokratik, mesleki ve politik olmak üzere üç alternatif yönetim modeli önermişlerdir. 1992'deki ilk araştırmalarını takiben, Bergquist ve Pawlak (2008) yönetsel, gelişimsel, savunucu, sanal ve somut olmak üzere 'akademinin altı kültürü'nü alan çalışmalarına kazandırmıştır. 'Liderlik' kavramını örgütlerin kültür ve yönetim anlayışının merkezinde toplayan ve bütün örgütlerin karmaşık ve belirsiz olduğunu, bunun da sistemlerinde birden fazla gerçekliğin ve durumun ortaya çıkmasına neden olduğunu savunan Bolman ve Deal (2017) 1984'te yapısal, insan kaynakları, politik ve sembolik olmak üzere dört örgüt çerçevesi önermiştir. Akademideki kültürel değişimleri ele aldığı çalışmasında McNay (1995), yükseköğretim kurumlarında görülen mesleki, bürokrasi, şirket ve girişim olmak üzere dört tür örgüt kültürü ortaya çıkarmıştır.

Rekabetçi Değerler Çerçevesi

Bu çalışmada, Quinn ve Rohrbaugh (1983) tarafından geliştirilen Rekabetçi Değerler Çerçevesi'ne (CVM) dayanan Cameron ve Quinn'in (2011) dört kültürel "tipolojisi" kullanılmıştır. Model, örgüt çalışmalarında oldukça dikkat çekmiş ve yükseköğretim kurumlarının kültürel ortamını tanımlamakta popüler hale gelmiştir (Gaus vd., 2019). Birçok araştırmacı, yükseköğretim araştırmalarında CVM'yi kullanmaktadır çünkü sadece yükseköğretim için kültürel bir model olarak değil (Fralinger & Olson, 2007; Hill & Ferreira, 2008; Köse, 2017), aynı zamanda örgütsel etkililik ve kalite gibi öğrenci katılımını yordayıcı diğer fenomenler için bir ölçüm aracı olarak da kullanılmaktadır (Cameron & Freeman, 1991; Smart vd., 1997; Smart & Hamm, 1993; Smart & St. John, 1996). Bu çerçevedeki kültürel tipolojiler - takım, yenilikçi, piyasa ve hiyerarşi - aynı zamanda yükseköğretimde örgüt kültürü için daha önce önerilenlerle ve "üniversitelerde işlerin nasıl ele alındığının" sonuçları ile de uyumludur.

Yöntem

Araştırmanın Modeli

Araştırmada, öğrenci katılımının örgüt kültürleri tarafından yordanıp yordanmadığını tespit etmek adına ilişkisel tarama modeli kullanılmıştır. İlişkisel tarama modeli iki veya daha fazla değişken arasındaki ilişkiyi, herhangi bir manipülasyon girişiminden kaçınarak ortaya çıkarmayı amaçladığından (Creswell, 2012; Fraenkel vd., 2012) bu çalışmanın amacı için uygun bir modeldir. Araştırmadaki yordayıcı değişkenler Rekabetçi Değerler Çerçevesi'ndeki kültür tipleri olup (Cameron & Quinn, 2011) ölçüt değişkeni ise öğrenci katılımıdır.

Evren ve Örneklem

Bu çalışmanın hedef evreni Ankara ilinde yer alan vakıf ve devlet üniversitelerinde öğrenim gören öğrencileridir. Tüm hedef evrenden veri toplamak mümkün olmadığından erişilebilir evren belirlenmiştir. Çalışmanın erişebilir evreni Ankara ilindeki bir devlet üniversitesinin lisans öğrencileridir. Veriler, rastgele örnekleme yöntemi ile seçilen bu üniversitede öğrenim gören 429 öğrenciden toplanmıştır.

Katılımcıların Demografik Özellikleri

Araştırmaya katılan öğrencilerin %60,5'i kadın (n=250), %95,4'ü 19 ila 25 yaş arasında (n=394), %45'i mühendislik fakültesinde okumaktadır (n=186). Katılımcılardan birinci sınıfa gidenlerin sayısı 137 (%33,2), ikinci sınıfa gidenlerin sayısı 108 (%26,2), üçüncü sınıfa gidenlerin sayısı 85 (%20,6) ve dördüncü sınıfa gidenlerin sayısı 83'tür (%20,1). Not ortalaması dağılımı 1,01 – 2,00 (%14), 2,01-3,00 (%56,9) ve 3,01-4,00 (%28,1) şeklindedir. Öğrencilerin %35,8'i kampüste ikamet etmekte iken %64,2'si kampüs dışında yaşamaktadır. Son olarak, katılımcılardan %87,4'ü herhangi bir işte çalışırken, %12,6'sı herhangi bir işte çalışmamaktadır.

Veri Toplama Araçları

Araştırma verileri, araştırmacı tarafından hazırlanmış bir "Demografik Bilgi Formu", Günüç ve Kuzu (2015) tarafından geliştirilen "Öğrenci Katılımı Ölçeği" (ÖKÖ) ve Cameron ve Quinn (2011) tarafından geliştirilen ve Kuzu (2017) tarafından Türkçe'ye uyarlanan "Örgüt Kültürü Değerlendirme Envanteri" (ÖKDE) ile toplanmıştır. Ölçekler, yapı geçerliliğini test etmek adına AMOS 24.0 programı kullanılarak doğrulayıcı faktör analizine (DFA) tabi tutulurmuştur. DFA sonuçlarına göre, ÖKÖ kabul edilebilir bir model uyumu sergilerken (CMIN/DF= 2.042, GFI= ,851, SRMR= ,058, NFI= ,833, CFI= ,906, RMSEA= ,050) ÖKDE iyiye yakın bir model uyumu göstermiştir (CMIN/DF= 2.665, GFI= ,907, SRMR= ,061, NFI= ,856, CFI= ,903, RMSEA= ,064). Ayrıca, ÖKDE'nin Türkçe formundaki 3 faktörlü yapısı doğrulanmıştır (Yenilikçi-takım kültürü, Piyasa kültürü ve Hiyerarşi Kültürü). ÖKÖ'nün güvenirlik katsayısı ,92 iken ÖKDE'nin alt boyutlarından "Yenilikçi-takım Kültürü" ,79, "Piyasa Kültürü" ,66 ve "Hiyerarşi Kültürü" .85 güvenirlik katsayısına sahiptir.

Veri Toplama Süreci

Veriler, ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'ndan alınan etik izin sonrası 2019-2020 akademik yılı güz döneminde belirlenen üniversitenin 429 öğrencisinden toplanmıştır. Katılımcılara öncelikle araştırmanın amacı ve gizlilik konularında bilgi verilmiştir. Daha sonra, yazılı onamlarının ardından demografik bilgi formu ve ölçeklerin bulunduğu anketi doldurmaları istenmiştir.

Verilerin Analizi

Araştırmaya toplam 429 öğrenci katılmıştır. 16 katılımcı sadece demografik bilgiler kısmına yanıt verdiği ve anket bölümlerini doldurmadan bıraktığı için bu anketlerdeki veriler analiz sürecine dahil edilmemiştir; böylece istatistiksel analizler 413 katılımcının verileri ile yapılmıştır. Veriler, ölçeklerin faktör yapılarını yeniden kontrol etmek ve geçerlilikleri doğrulamak adına bir DFA'ya tabi tutulmuştur.

Katılımcıların demografik özellikleri ile katılım düzeyleri arasındaki farklılıkları bulmak için t testi ve ANOVA kullanılmıştır. Öğrenci katılımı ile örgütsel kültür türleri arasındaki ilişkiyü tespit etmek adına basit korelasyon analizi yapılmış ve Pearson korelasyon katsayısı hesaplanmıştır. Son olarak, öğrenci katılımının öğrenciler tarafından algılanan kültür tipolojileri ile yordanıp yordanmadığını görmek için çoklu doğrusal regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Veriler SPSS 26.0 ve AMOS 24.0 programları kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir.

Araştırmanın Sınırlılıkları

Katılımcı özellikleri bu çalışmanın ilk sınırlılığıdır. Katılımcılar arasında kültür şoku yaşayanlar ve üniversite kültürünü algılayamayanlar da olabilir. Bu nedenle, bu çalışma hazırlık sınıfı öğrencilerini kapsam dışı bırakmış ve veriler sadece o üniversitede en az bir yıl geçiren lisans öğrencilerinden toplanmıştır. İkincisi, katılımcılar Türkiye'nin en avantajlı kampüslerinden birinde eğitim görmektedir, bu da onların katılım algılarına ilişkin yanıtlarını olumlu yönde etkileyebilir. Üçüncü sınırlılık, öğrenci katılımının öz bildirim ölçümü ile ilgilidir. Alanyazında, öğrencilerin katılımları ile ilgili görüşlerini sosyal ve psikolojik olarak daha kabul edilebilir bir şekilde ortaya koyabilecekleri ileri sürülmektedir; bu nedenle, öğrencilerin katılıma ilişkin öz bildirim yanıtlarının olumlu yönde yanlı olabileceğine inanılmaktadır (Gerber vd., 2013). Dördüncüsü, örneklem bir devlet üniversitesine kayıtlı öğrencilerden uygun örnekleme yöntemi kullanılarak seçilmiştir. Bu nedenle mevcut çalışmanın genelleştirilebilir olduğunu söylemek mantıklı değildir. Beşincisi, çalışmada kullanılan ölçeklerle alakalıdır. Bu çalışmayı başka ölçeklerle yapmak farklı sonuçlar doğurabilir.

Bulgular

Betimleyici İstatistik

- Katılımcı öğrencilerin katılım düzeyleri ortalamanın biraz üstündedir (O=3.78, SS=.50). Diğer taraftan çalışmanın yapıldığı üniversitenin baskın kültürünün

piyasa kültürü olduğu bulunmuş (*O*=5.04, *SS*=.89) ve bunu hiyerarşi kültürü (*O*=4.40, *SS*=.94) ve yenilikçi-takım kültürü (*O*=4.10, *SS*=1.00) takip etmiştir.

Gruplar Arası Karşılaştırma Sonuçları

- T testi sonuçları kadın katılımcıların (*O*=3.82, *SS*=.46) erkek katılımcılara (*O*=3.71, *SS*=.55) nazaran anlamlı derecede daha fazla katılım gösterdiğini ortaya koymuştur (*t*(408)=-2.249, *p*=.02). Fakat, sonuçlar öğrencilerin katılım düzeylerinin yaşlarına, yaşadıkları yere ve çalışma durumlarına göre değişmediğini göstermiştir.

- Tek yönlü varyans analizi (ANOVA) katılımcı öğrencilerin katılım düzeylerinin not ortalamalarına göre anlamlı derecede farklılaştığını göstermiştir. Buna göre düşük not ortalaması olan grup (*O*=4.03 *SS*=.46) orta not ortalaması (*O*=3.75 *SS*=.42) ve yüksek not ortalaması olan gruplardan; orta not ortalaması olan grup ise yüksek not ortalaması olan gruptan anlamlı derecede daha fazla katılım göstermiştir (*F*(2, 410)=2.41, *p*=.90). Fakat, sonuçlar öğrencilerin katılım düzeylerinin okudukları fakülte türlerine ve sınıflarına göre değişmediğini ortaya koymuştur.

Korelasyon Bağıntısı

- Korelasyon analizi sonuçları öğrenci katılımı ile yenilikçi-takım (*r*=.33, *p*=.00), piyasa (*r*=.34, *p*=.00) ve hiyerarşi (*r*=.16, *p*=.00) kültürleri arasında pozitif yönlü bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir.

Çoklu Doğrusal Regresyon Analizi

- Sonuçlar öğrenci katılımının yenilikçi-takım kültürü (*β*=.22, *SE*=.03, *p*=.00) ve piyasa kültürü (*β*= .21, *SE*=.04, *p*=.00) tarafından anlamlı bir şekilde yordandığını göstermiştir. Bu minvalde kurulan modelin öğrenci katılımındaki varyansın %14'ünü açıkladığı tespit edilmiştir (*F*(3, 409) = 21.32, *p*=0.0005; *R²*=.14).

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Sonuç

Tartışma

Katılımcıların demografik özellikleri ve öğrenci katılımı arasında yapılan analizlerin sonuçlarına göre öğrencilerin katılım düzeyleri cinsiyete göre değişmiştir ve kadın öğrencilerin erkek öğrencilere nazaran daha fazla öğrenci katılımı gösterdiği tespit edilmiştir. Bu sonuç alanyazındaki çoğu çalışma ile uyumludur (Kuh vd., 2006; Porter, 2006; Zhao & Kuh, 2003). Yine, öğrenci katılımı bu çalışmada öğrencilerin not ortalamalarına göre değişmiştir. Buna göre, ilginç bir şekilde, en fazla katılımı gösteren grup düşük not ortalamasına sahip olan grup iken, en düşük katılımı gösteren grup yüksek not ortalamasına sahip olan öğrencilerdir. Halbuki ilgili alanyazın bu durumun tam tersi olduğunu ve öğrencilerin katılımları ve not ortalamaları arasında pozitif bir ilişki bulunduğunu ortaya koymuştur (Astin, 1999; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Trowler, 2010; Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005; Wolf-Wendel vd., 2009). Bu durumun düşük ortalamaya sahip öğrencilerin sınıf katılımın yanı sıra kampüs katılımı fırsatlarından diğer gruba nazaran çok daha faza yararlanması ile alakalı olabileceği düşünülmektedir. Bu sonuçlar dışındaki diğer demografik özellikler ile yapılan öğrenci katılımı karşılaştırmaları anlamlı sonuçlar ortaya koymamıştır. Bu değişkenlere ait sonuçlar da çoğunlukla ilgili alanyazındaki çalışmaların sonuçları ile uyumludur.

Araştırmanın asıl amacı olan öğrenci katılımı ve örgüt kültürü arasındaki ilişkinin belirlenmesi amacıyla yapılan korelasyon ve regresyon analizinin sonuçları, öğrenci katılımı ile bütün kültür tipleri arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu ama öğrenci kültürünün sadece yenilikçi-takım ve piyasa kültürleri ile anlamlı bir şekilde yordandığını ortaya koymuştur. Böylece araştırmanın bütün hipotezleri doğrulanmıştır. Her ne kadar van der Velden'in (2012) çalışması haricinde ilgili alanyazında öğrenci bağlılığı ile örgüt kültürleri arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen bir çalışma olmasa da bu sonuçlar, örgüt kültürü ve öğrenci katılımını dolaylı yoldan ele alan çalışmalar ile uyumluluk göstermektedir (Almarghani & Mijatovic, 2017; Carey,

2018; Milburn-Shaw & Walker, 2017; Krause, 2015; Trowler, 2013; van der Velden, 2012; Wanner, 2015).

Çıkarımlar

Teorik çıkarım olarak, öğrenci katılımı ve öğrencilerin demografik özelliklerinden sadece cinsiyet ve not ortalaması arasında anlamlı değişkenlikler bulunmuştur. Her ne kadar bu çalışma ulusal alanyazın için bir ilk teşkil etse de, sonuçların bir kısmı uluslararası öğrenci katılımı alanyazınında bulunan çalışmalar ile uyum göstermemektedir. Bu nedenle, öğrenci katılımının teorik temeli, daha geniş örneklem ile birden fazla üniversitede yapılacak kapsamlı çalışmalarla Türk yükseköğretiminde yeniden tartışılabilir. Bu çalışma aynı zamanda öğrenci katılımı ve örgüt kültürleri arasında anlamlı ilişkiler tespit etmiş ve bazı kültür tiplerinin öğrenci katılımını yordadığı sonucuna ulaşmıştır. Bu nedenle çalışma, ilgili alanyazında öğrenci katılımını kültür üzerinden değerlendirmesi hasebiyle öncü çalışmalardan biridir. Sonuçlar, öğrenci katılımı ve kültür konusunu ele alan çalışmalara katkı sağlamıştır.

Araştırma çıkarımı olarak, yükseköğretim alanyazınındaki diğer kültür araştırmalarından farklı olarak, bu çalışmadaki temel kaygı üniversite kültürünü öğrenciler üzerinden belirlemekti. Bununla birlikte, bu çalışmadaki kültür ölçeği örgüt çalışanlarına uygulamak üzere tasarlandığından, ölçeğe yapılan yapısal analizler iyi uyumlu ve mükemmel güvenilir bir model ortaya çıkarmamıştır. Bu nedenle, gelecekteki çalışmalar, yükseköğretimdeki kültür türlerini öğrencilerin bakış açılarından değerlendirmek üzere bir ölçek geliştirme üzerine yapılabilir.

Uygulama çıkarımı olarak da bu çalışmada, katılımcıların öğrenci katılımı ortalamanın biraz üstünde bulunmuştur. Bu nedenle, üniversite yönetimi, öğrenci katılımını teşvik edecek uygulamaları ve politikaları benimsemeyi ve mevcut olanları yeniden değerlendirmeyi düşünebilir. Dahası, öğretim üyeleri daha ilgi çekici bir sınıf ortamı yaratmak adına teknikler ve yöntemler uygulayabilir. Yine bu çalışmada kadın öğrencilerin katılımı erkek öğrencilere nazaran daha yüksektir. Bu sonuç alanyazındaki çalışmalarla tutarlı olsa da, farklılığın altında yatan neden,

öğrencilerinin katılımını artırmak isteyen kurumlar tarafından araştırılıp ortadan kaldırılabilir. Son olarak, öğrenci katılımını arttırmayı hedefleyen üniversiteler, bu çalışmada ortaya koyulan öğrenci katılımı ve örgüt kültürü ilişkisini kültür inşa etme ve değişim süreçleri dahilinde göz önünde bulundurabilir.

Öneriler

Bu çalışma, bir devlet üniversitesindeki öğrencilerin katılımı ve örgüt kültürü arasındaki ilişkiyi keşfetmek açısından öncü bir çalışma olarak düşünülebilir. Daha genelleştirilebilir sonuçlar elde etmek ve üniversiteler arasında karşılaştırma yapabilmek adına gelecek çalışmalara başka üniversiteler de dahil edilebilir. İkinci olarak, popülasyonun temsil edilebilirliğini artırmak için daha büyük örneklem boyutu kullanılabilir. Üçüncüsü, bu çalışma, Türk yükseköğretim bağlamında oluşturulan tek teorik çerçeve olan Günüç (2016) tarafından geliştirilen öğrenci katılımı kavramsal çerçevesini kullanmıştır. Türkiye'deki katılım alanyazınını çeşitlendirmek için daha fazla teorik çalışmaya ihtiyacı vardır. Dördüncüsü, öğrencilere okullarının kültürünü değerlendirmek için uygulanabilecek ve Türk yükseköğretimi ile uyumlu bir kültür ölçeği geliştirilmesine açıkça ihtiyaç vardır. Son olarak, nitel bir yaklaşım benimsemek, öğrencilerin katılımı ve öğrencilerin kültür algılarının derinlemesine anlaşılmasına olanak tanıyacaktır.

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