RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND
OCCUPATIONAL STRESS EXPERIENCED BY ENGLISH INSTRUCTORS IN
THE PREPARATORY SCHOOLS OF FIVE UNIVERSITIES IN ANKARA

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ABSTRACT

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AND
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Relationship between the organizational climate and occupational stress experienced by English instructors in the Preparatory Schools of five universities in Ankara was examined. Role of the administrator in either preventing or lessening the occupational stress of the instructors related to his supportive or restrictive approach was explored. In addition, role of the teachers' behavior as being collegial or indifferent, and its relationship with the occupational stress of the other teachers was examined. 276 instructors working in the English departments of five universities completed two questionnaires. The predictor variable was the organizational climate with six subscales as supportive administrator, directive administrator, restrictive administrator, collegial teacher, intimate teacher and indifferent teacher. It was measured by the Organizational Climate Index (OCI) designed by Hoy and Tarter (1997), and translated to Turkish by Yılmaz and Altınkurt (2013). The dependent variable was occupational stress measured by the Teacher Stress Inventory (TSI) designed by Fimian and Fastenau (1990), and translated to Turkish by Kızıltepe (2007). The results indicated that there was a significant relationship between a supportive, and/or restrictive administer and the occupational stress of the

instructors. The results also showed that working with collegial, and/or indifferent instructors had impact on the occupational stress of the instructors. The implications of these findings were discussed and recommendations for further research were made.

ÖZ

ANKARA'DAKİ BEŞ ÜNİVERSİTENİN HAZIRLIK OKULLARINDA GÖREV YAPAN İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETİM GÖREVLİSİ/OKUTMANLARIN ALGILADIKLARI İŞ STRESİ İLE ÖRGÜT İKLİMİ ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ

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Bu çalışma örgüt iklimi ile İngilizce öğretim görevlisi / okutmanların iş stresi arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmak amacı ile yapılmış, yöneticinin iş stresini önlemede veya azaltmadaki rolü araştırılmıştır. Buna ek olarak, meslektaşlar arası işbirlikçi öğretmen davranışı ile umursamaz öğretmen davranışı da incelenmiştir. Çalışmaya, beş universitenin İngilizce bölümlerinde çalışan 276 öğretim görevlisi/okutman katılmış ve iki envanter doldurmuşlardır. Çalışmadaki bağımsız değişken örgüt iklimi olup, Hoy ve Tarter (1997) tarafından geliştirilen, Yılmaz ve Altınkurt (2013) tarafından Türkçe'ye çevirilen Örgüt İklimi Ölçeği (TSI) ile ölçülmüştür. Bağımlı değişken olan iş stresi ise Fimian ve Fastenau (1990) tarafından geliştirilen, Kızıltepe (2007) tarafından Türkçe'ye çevirilen İş Stresi Envanteri (TSI) ile ölçülmüştür. Elde edilen sonuçlar destekleyici ve/veya kısıtlayıcı bir yönetici ile öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların iş stresi arasında bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Sonuçlar aynı zamanda işbirlikçi ve/veya umursamaz öğretim görevlisi/okutmanlar ile meslektaşları arasında iş stresi ile ilgili bir ilişki olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Elde edilen sonuçların etkisi tartışılmış ve gelecekte yapılacak araştırmalar için öneriler getirilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Örgüt İklimi, İş Stresi, Yönetici, Öğretim Görevlisi/Okutman, İngilizce Hazırlık Okulu

This dissertation is dedicated to my family; for my husband, who took on more than his fair share to support me throughout this process, and for my son whose love has always been encouraging and inspiring.

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TSI: Teacher Stress Inventory

OCI: Organizational Climare Index

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

University staff play a vital role in the creation and development of knowledge and innovation, in addition to education and training (Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua, & Stough, 2001). In order to do this, both the administration and the academic staff try hard, however, in the modern era their task is sometimes difficult due to the stress they experience. People suffer from great deal of stress in their daily lives, and job life is one of the most important contributors to this. Every job has a level of stress associated with it and teaching is not an exception. Within the general area of occupational stress, teaching has been identified as one of the most stressful occupations (Cooler, Sloan, & Williams, 1988). Occupational stress of the instructors is defined as their experience of "unpleasant, negative emotions, such as anger, anxiety, tension, frustration, or depression, resulting from some aspect of their work" (Kyriacou, 2001). In order to eliminate or reduce this stress, the starting point would be to identify it, and its sources to provide a successful teaching and learning climate (Bidula & Baruah, 2012; Bhatti, Hashmi, Raza, Shaikh, & Shafiq, 2011). The instructors' occupational stress and its relationship with the organizational climate has been regarded as an important issue that affects the teaching and learning climate (Shah, Khaipur, Memon, & Phulpoto, 2012). Some factors which affect the instructors such as leadership, motivation and job satisfaction are stated as important elements of organizational climate (Miskel & Ogawa, 1988). In their study of organizational climate, Hoy & Miskel (2008) state that the instructors are affected by the climate and their behavior is based on their perception of the climate.

Research on the instructors' occupational stress and organizational climate of educational institutions finds administrators influential and suggests they promote a professional organizational climate (Bryk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu, & Easton, 2010; Hoy & Henderson, 1983; Hoy, Smith, & Sweetland, 2002; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999; Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom, Anderson, Michlin, Mascall, & Moore, 2010; Rosenholtz, 1985). Another research on organizational climate and its

relationship with teacher stress highlights the importance of administrative support since lack of this support has been chosen as the most dissatisfying factor among teachers leading to occupational stress (Clarke & Keating, 1995). That teachers should behave and be treated professionally, and feel valued have been basic facts of education system (Libermann, 1988). In this respect, it is important to find out what kind of problems bring about occupational stress among the instructors in higher education, and whether these stress sources have any relationship with the organizational climate.

1.2 Background to the Study

Specific research related to climate in the workplace began to be explored in the late 1950s and crossed into the realm of education in the 1960s (Caldarella, Shatzer, Gray, Young & Young, 2011; Halpin & Croft, 1963). At first, the concepts of organizational climate and organizational culture were intertwined (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012). However, climate has been separated out as the perception of one's work environment (Zhang & Liu, 2010) and it involves the atmosphere of that environment and the perception of the behaviors of the people within the environment (Norton, 2008).

School climate is what constitutes the school's atmosphere based on the interactions and the perceptions of the people in the school environment (Hoy, Tarter & Bliss, 1990; Norton, 2008). Organizational school climate influences the behavior, productivity and effectiveness of the instructors, and administrators have a considerable influence on the school climate (Ali & Hale, 2009; Azzara, 2001; Hoyle, English & Steffy, 1985; Mine, 2009). Organizational school climate is observed and experienced by each member of the school, however, each of those members may have a different view of the school climate according to their own personal interactions, perceptions, and encounters which affect them (Halpin and Croft, 1963). In all levels of education these different views of the climate have important and influential aspects of satisfaction, retention and effectiveness among academic staff (Thompson, Diamond, McWilliam, Snyder, and Snyder, 2005).

Regarding the relationship between the faculty and the climate at the universities, there has been a great deal of research, however, there has been less research on how the university instructors experience the results of this relationship,

such as occupational stress (Abouserie, 1996). Singh and Bush (1998) claim that the persistent demands of academic life are likely to lead to negative consequences for the instructors. Abouserie (1996) states that academics have a large number of competing roles such as teaching, research, writing papers, and meeting seminar and tutorial commitments, and claim that 74% of staff are moderately stressed and nearly 15% are seriously stressed with instructors the most negatively affected followed by research assistants and professors. Likewise, Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua, and Stough (2001) identify several key factors about organizational climate that are commonly associated with stress in academic staff. These include work overload, time pressure, lack of prospects, poor levels of reward and recognition, fluctuating roles, poor management, and poor resources and funding. Other stressors of the academic staff which have been identified from the literature by Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua, and Stough (2001) include high expectations, low job security, lack of communication, inequality, and lack of feedback.

When organizational climate and its effects on academic staff in Turkey is considered, Mengil and Schreglmann (2013) conducted a study in Turkish universities and found similar results to Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua, and Stough (2001). Their research showed that academic staff was negatively affected by some factors in the organizational climate inlucing lack of support and encouragement, lack of motivation, time management problems, lack of research culture, insufficient support for the instructors, and financial problems. With respect to organizational climate and how the academic staff perceive it in Turkey, Keleşoğlu (2009) found that the academicians had a positive attitude about the existing culture, however, the socialization among themselves was not at expected levels. They did not want to come together for social gatherings, and did not want to do co-operative work, which indicated some problems. All these have pointed that there is a relationship between organizational climate and occupational stress of the academic staff but the nature of this relationship may be different. In this sense, various scholars used various theoretical perspectives complementing each other in their studies, which have been built upon some solid theoretical perspectives.

1.2.1 Theoretical Perspectives about Organizational Climate

The study of organizational climate began in the work environment of businesses before transitioning into schools (Caldarella, Shatzer, Gray, Young & Young, 2011; Halpin & Croft, 1963). At first, there was not a clear distinction between the concepts of organizational climate and culture; however, theorist soon began to unwrap the differences and separated them into two constructs that involved some overlap (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012). Researchers have defined organizational climate based on the policies in an organization, and its members' personalities, values, and needs as having a significant bearing on its effectiveness (Luthans, Norman, Avolio, & Avey, 2008; Thumin & Thumin, 2011; Zhang & Liu, 2010). Rafferty (2008) claims that the foundations for the study of organizational and school climate were laid by Maslow's (1943) study of the motivation factors in organizations and the needs required for the members to be productive. Fulfillment of these basic human needs in every member of the school is essential to the achievement of success in that school (Howard, Howell, & Brainard, 1987; Schoen & Teddlie, 2008;). Both the instructors and the administrators have efficient and effective performance and increased accomplishments when their fundamental needs are met (Heller, 2002; Howard, Howell, & Brainard, 1987; Rooney, 2003).

Another theoretical perspective guiding research in school climate is the theory developed by Malik, Nawab, Naeem, & Danish, (2010). This theory assumes that school climate has a significant effect on teacher job satisfaction. The resarchers claim that in a centralized educational system, the school climate is open to manipulation, and the authorities hold the responsibility to improve job satisfaction of the teachers, and thus they need to be aware of both organizational and individual variables which influence the quality and effectiveness of the teachers' work life and occupational stress. Menon and other researchers (Menon & Christou, 2002; Menon & Saitis, 2006) have also pointed to the importance of the work climate as a contributing factor to teacher satisfaction.

Norton (2008) has described organizational climate as the school atmosphere which is characterized by social and professional interactions within it. A healthy organization gives importance to meeting its required tasks and fulfilling its organizational and human needs by emphasizing continued growth and development. Such schools have clear goals, adequate communicbration, and they foster a climate

that enhances positive and professional human relationships. Climate of a school system is influenced by both internal and external environments, which can lead to changes. This description is supported by the leading theorists in this field, Hoy, Tarter, and Bliss (1990), who agree with internal and external environments, and suggest that the administrator has an important internal effect. They claim that the influence of the administrator is indirect on school achievement but direct on both positive and negative outcomes for the instructors such as occupational stress.

1.2.2 Theoretical Perspectives about Occupational Stress

Lazarus and colleagues have developed a model in stress research which takes into account general aspects of stress definition, such as how the instructors' own perceptions of their circumstances play a major role in explaining their emotional experience. They have defined stress as resulting from the subjective perception of environmental demands (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). After Lazarus and Folkman, Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978) have made an explicit distinction between stressors which are mainly physical and those which are essentially psychological, both of which are related to the organizational climate. Dick and Wagner (2001) have also seen occupational stress in the education institutions as a negative effect with diverse psychological (e.g., job dissatisfaction), physiological (e.g., high blood pressure), and behavioural (e.g., absenteeism) correlates. They claim that these negative stress effects lead to physiological and biochemical changes accompanied by psychosomatic and even chronic symptoms like coronary heart diseases in the long run.

Kyriacou (1989) has also studied certain tensions which the instructors face. According to him, the stress reasons for the instructors may be extensive and include workplace and personal characteristics. He points out that the instructors face with certain stressing factors, which include: teaching low-motivated students, time pressure, working hard, coping with changes, being assessed by others, relations with colleagues, role conflict, and poor occupational conditions. Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978) have presented a model of occupational stress which emphasizes the instructors' understanding of the profession. According to this model, the instructor may use coping strategies to reduce a threat in case he feels that his self-respect or welfare is threatened by potential physical and mental stressing factors such as

excessive occupational demands or lack of control on decision making which results from the environment.

Another theoretical perspective guiding reserach in occupational stress in education institutions is the theory developed by Pearson and Moomaw (2005). This theory assumes that autonomous instructors would demonstrate less occupational stress, greater work satisfaction, higher perceived empowerment, and a higher degree of professionalism. They have claimed that as curriculum autonomy increased occupational stress decreased. Also, they have associated increased job satisfaction and perceived empowerment with decreased occupational stress.

Likewise, Brener and Bartell (1984) have also developed a theory of occupational stress. They have stated that stress is the result of merged characteristics of the instructor and the climate of the school. In addition, they have referred to the stress factors regarding general work understanding, personal characteristics, and coping strategies.

All in all, organizational climate and its relationship with the occupational stress of instructors can be studied by referring to the theoretical perspectives discussed above. Accordingly, the major focus of this study was to investigate the relationship between organizational climate and occupational stress experienced by the instructors.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

Malik, Nawab, Naeem, and Danish (2010) have proposed that organizational climate has crucial impact on the employees' job satisfaction and commitment, which helps with organizational issues, and results in better social and cultural conditions. Other researchers agree with Malik, Nawab, Naeem, and Danish (2010) and add that trust is another important criterion to establish and develop an effective climate among the administration, instructors and students, and it helps to determine whether the relationships among the relevant parties are positive or not (Ennis & McCauley, 2002; Macmillan, Meyer, & Northfield, 2004). Tschannen-Moran (2001) has also made claims about organizational climate and indicated that contribution of the instructors has to be encouraged in order to improve school administration and enhance total quality management. She has also suggested making use of new perspectives and approaches to better the conditions of the instructors. All these

researchers have analyzed one or two perspectives of organizational climate, however, some other perspectives such as role of the administration, relationships among the administers and instructors, behavior of administers and instructors and their outcomes have not been adequately investigated all together in the same research as regards universities. This indicates the need to look at the relationship between organizational climate and occupational stress in higher education.

Furthermore, it is a fact that the primary role of higher education is research and development, and the instructors' responsibility is to enhance their teaching capacities to attain the objectives of education. Chaudhry (2012) claims that stress is inevitable under these conditions, and that it can be tolerated by the level of satisfaction the instructors get from their job. However, these researches have not aimed at studying the relationships of these stress sources with the climate of the organization.

One particular study that on teacher stress has been conducted with a group of English instructors in order to identify the major factors causing occupational stress in Turkey Cephe, 2010). All of the English instructors who were the participants of the study emphasized that a work condition in which they had no right to contribute to the development of the administrative system, improve the educational system they serve for, or get some professional support caused stress, and based on his findings, Cephe has suggested new research on organizational climate and work stress since Turkey as a developing country "respects the performance of the language teachers" (p. 34).

Owing to the concerns above and due to the fact that there is a gap in literature with respect to the relationship between the organizational climate and work stress of the instructors, a study in this topic is important. Therefore, the purpose of this study has been to investigate and explain the answer of a "how" question and it has focused on the relationship between the organizational climate and occupational stress experienced by English instructors in Preparatory Schools of Universities in order to contribute to the current knowledge of this organizational phenomena within its real-life context. This study has examined the instructors' stress related to school climate in order to understand whether this has played a role on their occupational stress. Additionally, the researcher has aimed at analyzing whether leadership styles of the administrators and behaviors of the colleagues have

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an effect on the work stress of the instructors. Specifically, this study has aimed to analyze the following research questions and the hypotheses;

- How does supportive leadership of the administrator predict occupational stress of the instructors?

  Hypothesis: It is hypothesized that supportive leadership of the administrator will significantly predict the occupational stress of the instructors.

- How does the restrictive leadership of the administrator predict occupational stress of the instructors?

  Hypothesis: It is hypothesized that restrictive leadership of the administrator has a considerable contribution to the occupational stress of the instructors.

- How does collegial teacher behavior predict occupational stress of the instructors?

  Hypothesis: It is hypothesized that collegial teacher behavior significantly predicts the occupational stress of the instructors.

- How does disengaged teacher behavior predict occupational stress of the instructors?

  Hypothesis: It is hypothesized that behavior of the teachers, who are not interested or involved in the tasks and responsibilities in the school, significantly predicts the occupational stress of the instructors.

1.4 Significance of the Study

Climate in an institution is perceived through behaviors and focuses on the content of the organizational life (Norton, 2008). It involves socialization, interpersonal relations and environmental factors, and it influences behaviors, attitudes, needs, traditions, and authorization (Norton, 2008, Schneider, 2000). There is nothing inherently good or bad about an organization's climate but it gains value when linked to some critical outcomes which are reflected in the behavior of its members and organizational processes (Muchinsky, 1987). Researchers have referred to the benefits of climate by linking it to desirable organizational and individual outcomes such as administrative support (Litwin & Stringer, 1968), keeping one's job (Mearns, Flin, Gordon & Fleming, 1998), positive relationships within the organization (Michela & Burke, 2000), and job satisfaction (Joyce & Slocum, 1982).

Because employees' perceptions of climate and their relationships within an organization can influence their behavioral outcomes, organizational climate is important for the behaviors of the instructors in higher education, as well. This study is concerned with the relationship of the organizational climate with the instructors to see how a positive climate, supportive administrators and colleagues impact their occupational stress.

In the literature, there are studies to investigate the outcomes of the relationships within an organization. The impact of high expectations from teachers on their occupational stress has been examined (Bhagat & Allie, 1989; Punch & Tuettemann, 1990). Some other studies have focused on the relationship among the colleagues (Blase, & Blase, 2003; DiMartino, 2003; Vickers, 2006;). The impact of supportive climate in teaching profession has been also analyzed (Burke, Greenglass, & Schwarzer, 1996; Greenglass, Fiksenbaum, & Burke, 1994; Pierce & Molloy, 1990). Although the aforementioned studies have analyzed various dimensions regarding the outcomes of the relationships within an organization, they have disregarded the relationship between the organizational climate and stress experienced by the instructors. This study aims at analyzing this relationship, and contributing to literature in terms of practice by showing the importance of creating a healthy work climate. There is research stating that when the university staff is under occupational stress, their quality of both teaching and research is affected, and that further research is needed to gain a better understanding of the challenges facing the instructors (Armour, Caffarella, Fuhrmann & Wergin, 1987; Chaudhry, 2012; Ostroff, 1992; Markham, 1999).

What is known about stress among faculty is limited to a few studies that have investigated specific aspects of faculty life which are likely to become stressors. In these studies, stress-inducing dimensions of the academic workplace such as high level of self-expectation and self-imposed pressures for achievement (Gmelch, Wilke & Lovrich, 1986) excessive time pressures and insufficient resources (Clark, 2001), teaching-related issues such as reward and recognition, time constraints, departmental influence, professional identity, and student interaction (Gmelch, Wilke & Lovrich, 1986) have been analyzed. Neidle (1984) has concluded that stress often occurs at various intervals throughout one's academic career, and Sorcinelli and Gregory (1987) have suggested that junior faculty could be subject to higher levels of stress, with the pressures and expectations related to tenure decisions.

Richard and Krieshok (1989) have found that female teachers have higher strain scores than males. Blackburn, Horowitz, Edington and Klos (1986) have found that job stress manifests itself in low level of life satisfaction, while both Keinan and Perlberg (1987) and Seiler and Pearson (1984) have suggested that high level of stress is an event that precedes consideration of a job change. Blix and Lee (1991) have found a correlation between occupational stress and misfit scores for motivational style and job rewards for university administrators. As noted in the abovementioned research, a variety of workplace stressors have been identified in most of the research on occupational stress. Although researchers have hypothesized the existence of occupational stress among the faculty, (Khan, Shah, Khan, Gul, 2012; Gmelch, 1986), these studies fail to reflect the relationship of the instructors' occupational stress with the organizational climate, and how the behaviors of restrictive or limiting administrators, or indifferent teachers impact the occupational stress of the instructors. This research has aimed to contribute to the theory of occupational stress regarding the instructors, and fill in this gap in literature.

When organizational climate of educational institutions and relationships within that climate are considered, administrators become one of the central figures whose actions directly shape the climate. Research finds administrators influential over the organizational climate where they are able to foster trusting, cooperative, and open environments where input from the instructors is welcome (Anderson, Michlin, Mascall, & Moore, 2010; Bryk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu, & Easton, 2010; Hoy & Henderson, 1983; Hoy, Smith, & Sweetland, 2002; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999; Leithwood, Leonard, & Sharratt, 1998; Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom,; Rosenholtz, 1985, 1989). Research also identifies that the trusting, cooperative, and open characteristics of the climate generate higher levels of satisfaction, cohesion around goals, and commitment among faculty. In addition, the relationships between the administrators and the instructors are found to be central factors for these positive outcomes (Hoy & Henderson, 1983; Hoy, Smith, & Sweetland, 2002; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999; Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom, Anderson, Michlin, Mascall, & Moore, 2010; Moolenaar, Daly, & Sleegers, 2010; Ogawa & Bossert, 1995; Rosenholtz, 1985; Stephenson & Baur, 2010; Wahlstrom & Louis, 2008). However, no studies have been carried out investigating both positive and negative outcomes of this relationship which influence the occupational stress of the instructors. This study contributes to literature by analyzing how the behaviors of both supportive, directive

and restrictive adminstrators, and collegial, intimate and indifferent teachers predict the occupational stress of the instructors, and by showing the importance of having a supportive administrator.

Regarding higher education in Turkey, preparatory schools have a distinctive role because they function like a bridge between the high schools of the students and their faculties. Thus, English instructors working at preparatory schools regard themselves neither as high school teachers since they work in a considerably more autonomous environment compared to high schools, nor faculty members since they do not have an opportunity to achieve an academic degree. There have been several studies on occupational stress in Turkey, however very few of them are about the university academicians in general (Ardıç & Polatcı, 2008; Budak & Sürgevil, 2005; Çavuş, Gök & Kurtay, 2007; Eker & Anbar, 2008; Gürbüz, Tutar & Başpınar, 2007). These studies have either analyzed the occupational stress of the academicians in general, or they have only found out the factors that affect the occupational stress of the academicians. For this reason, there is a need for a new research to be conducted in this area to explore the relationship of the climate in the preparatory schools of the universities and occupational stress of the instructors in Turkey. This study contributes to literature by analyzing this relationship, and demonstrating how the school climate, supportive or restrictive administrators, and collegial or indifferent teachers impact the occupational stress of the instructors.

All in all, while there are various studies focusing on the concept of either organizational climate or occupational stress, there is a complete absence of research with respect to the relationship between organizational climate and occupational stress in higher education in Turkey. Combined with other findings in the literature, the outcomes of this study contribute to the understanding of the relationship between the organizational climate in the higher education context and occupational stress experienced by the instructors.

1.5 Definitions of Terms

Definitions of the terms for variables in this study are as follows:

Stress refers to a state of imbalance of the instructors which is elicited by perceived disparity between the demands of the job and their capacity to cope with these demands, and which is manifested through a variety of physiological, emotional and behavioral responses (Lazarus, 1966). In this study, it has been measured through Teacher Stress Inventory (TSI).

Stressors involve workload, recognition, work politics, interpersonal relationships and work conditions (Dua, 1994). In this study, major stressors that have been measured are time management related, work related, professional career related, discipline and motivation related, and professional investment related stress sources in addition to emotional, fatigue, cardiovascular, gastronomical and behavioral stress manifestations.

Occupational stress refers to the fact which has a debilitating impact on the personal and professional welfare of the university staff, and which clearly affects the quality of education and research produced in the universities (Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua, and Stough, 2001). In this study, occupational stress has been measured through various stress sources and stress manifestations, and the terms *occupational stress, teacher stress* and *job stres* are used interchangeably for the stress that the instructors experience.

Organizational climate is the "total environmental quality within an organization" (Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2012, p. 67). In this study, organizational climate refers to the environment within the English preparatory schools, and it has been measured by Organizational Climate Index (OCI).

Educational administration refers to a practice which is concerned with the performance of the organization in order to reach the goals and objectives (Bush, 2007). In this study, educational administration was measured through supportive, directive and restrictive administrator behavior by OCI.

Supportive principal behavior reflects a basic concern for teachers. "The principal listens and is open to teacher suggestions. Praise is given genuinely and frequently, and criticism is handled constructively. The competence of the faculty is respected, and the principal exhibits both a personal and professional interest in

teachers" (Hoy, Tarter, and Kottkamp, 1991, p. 26). In this study, supportive principal behavior was measured through OCI.

Restrictive principal behavior hinders rather than facilitates teacher work. "The principal burdens teachers with paperwork, committee requirements, routine duties, and other demands that interfere with their teaching responsibilities" (Hoy, Tarter, and Kottkamp, 1991, p. 26). In this study, restrictive principal behavior was measured through OCI.

Directive principal behavior is rigid, close supervision. "The principal maintains constant monitoring and control over all teacher and school activities, down to the smallest detail" (Hoy, Tarter, and Kottkamp, 1991, p. 26). In this study, directive principal behavior was measured through OCI.

Collegial teacher behavior supports open and professional interactions among teachers. "Teachers are proud of their school, enjoy working with their colleagues, and are enthusiastic, accepting, and mutually respectful of their colleagues" (Hoy, Tarter, and Kottkamp, 1991, p. 27). In this study, collegial teacher behavior was measured through OCI.

Intimate teacher behavior is closely united with strong social relations among teachers. "Teachers know each other well, are close friends, socialize together regularly, and provide strong social support for each other" (Hoy, Tarter, and Kottkamp, 1991, p. 27). In this study intimate teacher behavior was measured through OCI.

Indifferent teacher behavior signifies a lack of meaning and focus to professional activities. "Teachers are simply using their time in non-productive group efforts; they have no common goals. In fact, their behavior is often negative and critical of their colleagues and the school" (Hoy, Tarter, and Kottkamp, 1991, p. 27). In this study collegial teacher behavior was measured through OCI.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this exploration was to study the relationship between the organizational climate of the preparatory schools and occupational stress experienced by the instructors. This literature review first presents a comprehensive review of the definition and literature on organizational climate, school climate, and organizational climate in higher education. In the second part, measurement of organizational climate is presented. In the third part, higher education context in Turkey including the preparatory schools of the universities in Turkey is explained. In the fourth part, stress and occupational stress are defined, occupational stress in higher education including the English instructors, factors that impact stress among academic staff, and the role of educational administration in the relationship of organization and stress is presented. In the fifth part, the review continues with measurement of stress. In the sixth part, the relationships betwen organizational climate and stress are discussed broadly. Finally, literature review is concluded with a summary including a discussion of what literature review shows with respect to the relationships between organizational climate of higher education and the instructors' notion of occupational stress.

2.1 Organizational Climate

Research on organizational climate emerged from the research on organizational culture. Since the early 1980s, the culture perspective originally entered the organizational studies scene, and by the mid-1980s there were several publications on organizational culture (Denison, 1996). When some researchers used the term *organizational culture* (Chatman, 1991), some others labelled it as *organizational climate* (Joyce & Slocum, 1982). Culture researchers were more concerned with the evolution of social systems over time, whereas climate researchers were concerned with the impact which organizational systems had on groups and individuals (Denison, 1996).

Emergence of the climate conception is based on the studies carried out by Lewin (1951) on the motivation theory. Lewin (1951) has suggested that psychological domain is effective in organizational behavior and motivation. Later, Litwin and Stringer (1968) have defended that climate mediates the individual motives, and effects of such motives on the behaviors. Climate is defined by Tagiuri (1968) as the relatively continual characteristic of the whole environment which is sensed by the employees at a particular site, which affects their behaviors, which is composed of several particular characteristics of the environment, and which can be identified. Schein (1992) defines climate as the common perceptions of the employees about the organization; Moran and Volkwein (1992) as the permanent characteristics of the organization distinguishing it from other organizations, and perceptions of the employees about autonomy, trust, association, support, recognition, renovation and justice. While climate was preciously perceived by the employees as the long-lasting and continual organizational characteristics (Forehead & Gilmer, 1964; Schneider & Bartlett, 1968); later, the attentions have concentrated on individual characteristics rather than organizational characteristics (Schneider & Hall, 1972). Denison (1996) has described climate in terms of individuals, and has stated that climate is the perception of the social environment by the members.

In addition to the definition, there are theories of climate which have been debated for over a decade (Guion, 1973; Hellriegel & Slocum, 1974; James; & Jones, 1974; Mossholder & Bedeian, 1983; Powell & Butterfield, 1978). At first, an organization was considered as the natural unit of theory in organizational climate research (Argyris, 1958; Forehand & Gilmer, 1964; Litwin & Stringer, 1968). Later, a distinction was made between psychological and organizational climate, and it suggested that different units of theory (individual and organizational) were appropriate for the two constructs (James & Jones, 1974). Researchers concerned with individual perceptions focused on psychological climate, whereas organizational climate has been investigated when organizational attributes were considered. Another set of climate constructs, which are called *subsystem* (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1974), *group* (Howe, 1977), or *subunit* climate (Powell & Butterfield, 1978), have argued for individual, subunit, and organizational units of theory, depending on the climate construct of interest. In addition, there is composition theory put forward by James (1982). This theory refers to "a specification of how a construct operationalized at one level of analysis (e.g., psychological climate) is

related to another form of that construct at a different level of analysis (e.g. organizational climate)" (James, 1982, p. 219). James (1982) has suggested that the unit of analysis for climate is the individual, but that individual climate perceptions (i.e., psychological climate) could serve as a tool for analysis. On the other hand, some theorists argue that the set of conditions which exist in an organizational system is the climate, whereas others argue that the climate is in fact the selective perceptions of its members (Glick, 1988; James, Joyce, & Slocum, 1988). Considering the individual unit of theory, Denison (1996) states that climate research places emphasis on organizational members' perceptions of "observable" practices and procedures that are closer to the "surface" of organizational life (p. 622). It is assumed that the members perceive and make sense of policies, practices and procedures within the organization with meaningful expressions, thus they have a relationship with the climate (James, Joyce & Slocum, 1988; Reichers & Schneider, 1990).

The initial assumption of theory and research in the area of organizational climate was that social environments could be characterized by a limited number of dimensions, however, over the years, the number of climate dimensions has proliferated (Patterson, West, Shackleton, Dawson, Lawthom, Maitlis, Robinson, & Wallace, 2005). Taylor and Bowers (1973) have listed decision-making practices, communication flow, and the organization of work among their key climate dimensions. Other dimensions considered by the researchers are risk taking (Litwin & Stringer, 1968), peer relations (Joyce & Slocum, 1982), social control (Wilkins, 1978), consideration (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawyer, & Weick, 1970), and centralization (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1974). Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler & Weick (1970) have identified four dimensions as individual autonomy; degree of structure imposed on the situation; reward orientation; and consideration, warmth and support. James and his colleagues (James & James, 1989; James & McIntyre, 1996; James & Sells, 1981) have described four dimensions in work contexts such as role stress and lack of harmony; job challenge and autonomy; leadership facilitation and support; work group cooperation, friendliness and warmth. James and Jones (1974) have suggested that individuals develop a global or holistic perception of their work environment which can be applied to any context. This shows that instructors also develop a perception of their organizational climate.

A number of studies have reported relationships between organizational climate and individuals (Carr, Schmidt, Ford, & DeShon, 2003; James, Choi, Ko, McNeil, Minton, Wright, Kim, 2008; Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009; Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2011). Climate researchers have concentrated on the impact that organizational systems have on groups and individuals (Denison, 1996; Ekwall, 1987; Joyce & Slochum, 1984; Koyes & DeCotiis, 1991). Research suggests that organizational climate is also related to several work-related outcomes such as job satisfaction (Johnson & Mc-Intye, 1998; Tsai & Huang, 2008), commitment (McMurray, Scott, & Pace, 2004; Joo, 2010), productivity (Patterson, Warr, & West, 2004), and performance (Dawson, Gonzalez-Roma, Davis, & West, 2008; Tziner, Shultz, & Fisher, 2008). These work-related outcomes reflect the relationship of the members with the organizational climate. However, all of them have concentrated on specific work-related outcome. This shows the need to study the organizational climate by considering these work-related outcomes together to see how they impact the members of the organization, in order to fill in this gap in literature.

Whether climate is a shared perception or a shared set of conditions has remained a basic issue of debate (Denison, 1996; Guion, 1973). According to Guion (1973), organizational climate refers to an attribute, or set of attributes of the work environment. Guion (1973) claims, the idea that organizational climate is perceived seems ambiguous since one cannot be sure whether it implies an attribute of the organization or of the perceiving individual. Hoy and Miskel (1991) define the climate of the organization as the personality of the organization. They claim that there is no single best way to organize, to teach, to do research, or to make decisions, but some approaches are more effective than others, and the best approach is the one that fits the circumstances. As for the schools, they claim that there is a mutual relationship between the teachers' perceptions of the work environment and their commitment towards their work, and that school organizational health is a more appropriate concept to understand the organizational environment of a school, and to study the relationship between school climate and teachers' performance (Hoy & Miskel, 1991). In this manner, the literature review continues with an analysis of school climate.

2.1.1 School Climate

Perry (1908) has been the first educational leader to explicitly write about the school climate, and has described it as the heart and soul of education. Although Dewey (1927) did not write explicitly about school climate, his focus on the social dimension of school life and the notion that schools should focus on enhancing the skills and knowledge of the students, touched on what kind of climate the school reflects. Empirically grounded school climate research began in the 1950s when Halpin and Croft (1963) initiated a tradition of studying the impact of school climate on student learning and development. By the late 1970s, researchers were attempting to associate school climate with student outcomes in schools. For example, Brookover, Schweitzer, Schneider, Beady, Flood, and Wisenbaker, (1978) examined the climate, and defined it as the set of norms and expectations that were defined and perceived by the individuals within the school. Early school climate studies also gave importance to observeable characteristics like the condition of the school (Anderson, 1982).

In the early and mid-1990s, studies focused on individual classes or teachers (Griffith, 1995; Stockard & Mayberry, 1992). Griffith (1995) argued that in an educational environment where classes are held in different rooms with different teachers, the unit of school climate measure is the school as a whole, whereas the individual classroom would be the appropriate measurement unit where students spend most of the day with the teacher. Since the end of the 1990s researchers have attempted to link school climate to different outcomes including school achievement (Hoy & Hannum, 1997); aggression and school crime (Gottfredson, Gottfredson, Payne, & Gottfredson, 2005; Wilson, 2004); attachment, bonding, connectedness, and engagement (Libbey, 2004).

Researchers have used various definitions of climate; Hoy and Miskel (2005) have defined school climate as "the set of internal characteristics that distinguish one school from another and influence the behaviors of each school's members" (p.185). Kottkamp (1984) suggested that climate consists of shared values, interpretations of social activities, and commonly held definitions of purpose. Hoy, Tarter, and Kottkamp (1991) have stated that "school climate is the relatively enduring quality of the school environment that is experienced by participants. It affects their behavior, and is based on their collective perception of behavior in schools" (p.10). Most

recently, Cohen, McCabe, Michelli, and Pickeral (2009) suggested that school climate refers to the quality and character of school life based on people's experience of school life, and "reflects norms, goals, values, interpersonal relationships, teaching and learning practices, and organizational structures" (p. 10).

Regarding what defines and composes school climate, there have been common domains measured over time. Cohen (2006) and Freiberg (1999) have revealed five important school climate domains: *order, safety, and discipline* (Furlong, Greif, Bates, Whipple, Jimenez, & Morrison, 2005; Griffith, 2000; Wilson, 2004); *academic outcomes* (Griffith, 2000; Loukas, Suzuki, & Horton, 2006; Worrell, 2000); *social relationships* (Furlong, Greif, Bates, Whipple, Jimenez, & Morrison, 2005; Griffith, 2000; Wilson, 2004); *school facilities* (Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, Ouston, & Smith, 1979; Wilson, 2004); and *school connectedness* (Blum, 2005; Catalano, Haggerty, Oesterie, Fleming, & Hawkins, 2004). These domains offer clues as to what actually composes school climate including norms, values, and expectations.

Safe, caring, participatory, and responsive school climates tend to foster social relationships and school connectedness, and provide the optimal foundation for social, emotional, and academic teaching and learning environment (Blum, McNeely, & Rinehart, 2002; Osterman, 2000; Wentzel, 1997). A positive school climate can enhance staff performance, and promote higher morale (Freiberg, 1998). Lunenberg and Ornstein (2012) described school climate as the environmental quality of any school, department or district. They referred to the organizational climate of schools by using some adjectives such as open, closed, healthy and sick. Open and closed climates were conceptualized by Halpin and Croft (1963), and health was conceptualized by Hoy and Tarter (1997). The open school climate is the one in which behavior of both teachers and principals is authentic; teachers and principals respect each other (Hoy, Smith, Sweetland, 2002). There is an energetic climate, and it moves towards its goals, and provides satisfaction for the social needs of its members. On the other hand, a closed climate is characterized by apathy of its members, and they lack both social needs satisfaction and task-achievement satisfaction. Thus, the organization seems like it is not growing or developing (Lunenberg and Ornstein, 2012).

Organizational health is another perspective for examining school climate. The idea of positive and healthy relations in organizations was first defined by Miles (1969) who referred to a healthy organization as the one that survives in its environment, copes adequately, develops continuously, and expands its coping abilities. Hoy and Tarter (1997) conceptualized health in organizational climate at three levels as institutional, administrative and teacher. The institutional level is related to the environment of a school. The administrative level controls the internal managerial function of the organization, and teacher level is concerned with the teaching and learning process. Hoy and Tarter (1997) define a healthy school as the one that keeps instructional, administrative and teacher levels in harmony. Schools are thought to be healthy when teachers frequently observe the administrator and their colleagues, and work in order to accomplish the school goals. The administrator has an open and collegial leadership, and encourages the teachers to try new and more effective ways of teaching. The teachers provide appropriate assistance to the students to meet high expectations. They are open to their colleagues, and to new ideas. There is trust and goodwill among the teachers, and between the teachers and the administration (Hoy & Tarter, 1997; Tarter, Sabo, & Hoy, 1995). A healthy school climate has positive student, teacher, and administrator interrelationships. Teachers like their colleagues, their school, their job, and their students. They believe in themselves and their students; and set high, but achievable goals. Students work hard and have successful performance. The administrator's behavior is also positive; s/he is friendly and supportive. In brief, the interpersonal dynamics of the school are positive (Hoy, Smith, & Sweetland, 2002). In this study, health concepth of the organization is considered in order to analyze the relationship of the organizational climate with teacher stress. Research supports that organizational climate of the schools affect teachers' occupational stress, and that the teachers working in a healthy climate do not suffer from high levels of stress, or they can cope with stress (Kyriacou, 2001; Punch, & Tuetteman, 1996; Sheffield, Dobbie, & Carroll, 1994).

2.1.2 Organizational Climate in Higher Education

The ability of the universities to realize the tasks expected from them, and to conduct studies depends on its members' having a positive climate perception (Arabacı, 2010). In higher education research, the climate has been defined as the

current perceptions, attitudes, and expectations that define the institution and its members (Peterson and Spencer 1990). One way to study higher education is by examining the organizational climate, how its members perceive the environment, and how it relates to other organizational processes and outcomes (Schulz, 2013). Presence of a positive, supportive and open climate at the universities can positively affect the individual and organizational performance. Therefore, the perception of organizational climate is important for the benefit of organizational efficiency (Arabacı, 2010). In examining universities, Stern (1966) has found that the students' and the administrators' perceptions of organizational climate have been more positive than the instructors' perceptions, and that he has found that perception quite unrealistic. However, Stern (1966) has noted that this very positive perception is shared only by the administrators, not the instructors. In a related study, Hartnett and Centre (1974) have found that college administrators have a slight but consistently more positive perception of organizational functioning than the instructors.

The basic structure of the organizational climate in higher education institutions has been described with reference to several models such as open, closed, independent, restricted, sincere, friendly, restricted, and reserved (Halpin, 1966; Çelik, 2000). The basic structure of the organizational climate has been derived from examinations of various factors such as the focus of the organization, and the flexibility and stability of procedures within the organization (Bergquist, 1992; Birnbaum, 1988; Bolman & Deal, 1991; McNay, 1995; Smart & Hamm, 1993). Halpin and Croft (1963) postulate the concept of open and closed climates. Open climate refers to an energetic and lively organization that provides satisfaction for its members. The main characteristic of an open climate is authenticity of the members. On the other hand, a closed climate is described by the apathy of the members. They lack authenticity and the organization is stagnant (Halpin & Croft, 1963). Later, Halpin (1966) has described organizational climate with reference to dissolution, morality, sincerity, haughtiness, close control, work orientation, and showing understanding. There is research claiming that organizational climate in higher education has impact on the occupational stress of the instructors with respect to workload, conflict, demands from colleagues and administrators, inadequate resources, and inadequate autonomy to make decision (Ahmandy, Changiz, Masiello & Bromnels, 2007; Alexandros-Stamatios, Matilyn & Cary, 2003; , Blix, Cruise, Mitchell & Blix, 1994; Boyd & Wylie, 1994; Ofoegbu & Nwadiani, 2006).

In higher education, the relationship between an individual's perception of the organization's climate and work outcomes such as job satisfaction, commitment and performance has received considerable attention by researchers. Research has suggested that climate perceptions are associated with a variety of important outcomes for the instructors in higher education. Some other climate perceptions which impact the instructors include administrator behavior (Rousseau, 1988; Rentsch, 1990) and job satisfaction (Mathieu, Hoffman, & Farr, 1993; James & Tetrick, 1986; James & Jones, 1980). In his study, Arabacı (2010) has concluded that although the instructors had positive climate perceptions in general, they believed that they were not involved in decision making. Yaman (2010) has found a similar result which shows that although there are administrators who seem as role-models, they do not allow the instructors to participate in the decision-making process, and the instructors relate this with unhealthy climate. In another study which examined the impact of organizational climate on the instructors, the results have shown that the instructors had negative perceptions of the administrators who did not set clear goals, let the instructors be involved in decision-making process, or who were not supportive leaders (Narasimhan, 1997). Regarding the administrators, Bucak (2011) cliams that when an instructor becomes an administrator, s/he keeps some distance with the instructors, and does not provide sufficient support which results in negative perceptions of the instructors about the school climate. In addition, Bakioğlu and Yaman (2004) have found that the administrators ask the instructors to do additional jobs that do not have academic nature such as photocopying the exam packs of the whole department, or stapling the documents, which has negative impact on the instructors.

There is also some research of organizational climate which has studied individual job performance (Brown & Leigh, 1996; Pritchard & Karasick, 1973). For example, Fink and Chen (1995) have found that the instructors who had collegial relationships had positive perceptions of the climate, and they had better job performance and higher satisfaction compared to the indifferent instructors. Thompson (2005) stated that variables related to the organizational climate such as supportive administrators, autonomous instructors, and social and professional relationships among the colleagues and administrators have significant influences on the positive perception of the instructors about the school climate. Regarding the instructors in Turkey, research shows that the instructors who have graduated from

Turkish universities feel degraded since the ones who have their degrees abroad are believed to have higher degree of culture and knowledge, and this impacts their individual job performance (Köksoy, 1998; Yaman, 2002). In another study, Yaman (2010) has concluded that the climate in higher education institution impacts all its members with regard to their task and job descriptions, and that when there are not clear descriptions, this causes the faculty from different academic positions to do similar jobs, which leads to problems.

The results of these studies concluded that there were significant relationships between climate and work outcomes of the instructors (Carr, Schmidt, Ford, & Deshon, 2003; Parker, Baltes, Young, Huff, Altman, Lacost, & Roberts, 2003; Rafferty, 2008; Thompson, 2005). However, these studies did not consider the relationship between organizational climate and occupational stress among the work outcomes, and this study has filled in this gap in literature.

2.2 Measurement of Organizational Climate

Compared to the number of studies in organizational climate research, there are few measures of organizational climate (Patterson, West, Shackleton, Dawson, Lawthom, Maitlis, Robinson and Wallace, 2005). Organizational Climate Questionnaire (OCQ) which is developed by Litwin and Stringer (1968) assesses perceived beliefs and values of the organizational members of their work environment. These beliefs and values are about the structure of the organization, members' taking responsibilities, encouragement of the organization, friendliness in the organizational climate, performance of the members, supportive organizational climate, and organizational commitment (Litwin and Stringer, 1968). This scale gives information about the perceptions and values in general without considering the relationships between them. Another measure, Business Organization Climate Index (BOCI), has scales measuring concern for customer service, the impact of information quality, and ability to manage culture (Payne, Brown, & Gaston, 1992). This measure has been developed mainly for business organizations since it is related to customer services, and is not applicable for educational institutions. Another measure, named Team Climate Inventory (TCI), is developed by Anderson and West (1996), and focuses on shared objectives or vision; group participation and safety; team support for innovation; and the task orientation of the members of the

organization. This scale aims at the teams and groups within an organization, and ignores personal perceptions and relationships. The Organizational Climate Measure (OCM) which has been developed by Patterson, West, Shackleton, Dawson, Lawthom, Maitlis, Robinson and Wallace (2005) is a measure which conceptualizes climate as a broad construct by including various dimensions. These dimesions are about human relations, internal processes, open systems, and goals of the organization, and tests theoretical propositions about the relationships between climate and organizational effectiveness. Although this is a very comprehensive measure, and includes human relations and open systems, the main aim is to test the effectiveness of the organization, and for this reason, OCM is not an appropriate tool for the current study.

The organizational climate of schools has been developed and measured in a variety of ways, and some instruments have been developed to view the organizational climate of schools. These instruments have aimed to measure the pressures, practices, and policies intended to influence the development of students (Pace & Stern, 1958), person-environment fit in schools (Stern, 1970), and school management and organization (Hoy, Tarter & Kottkamp, 1991). Earlier work (Halpin & Croft, 1963; Hoy, Hannum, & Tchannen-Moran, 1998; Hoy & Sabo, 1998) on a simplified inventory of climate has focused on middle schools and used health and opennes as extensive climate measures such as the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ), and the Organizational Health Inventory (OHI).

There have been some other inventories developed to measure school climate such as The School Climate Inventory-Revised (SCI-R), which provides feedback to school administrators on the perceptions of teachers and identifies potential interventions that prevent a school's effectiveness (Butler & Alberg, 1991). The measured constructs are order, leadership, environment, involvement, instruction, expectations, and collaboration (Butler & Alberg, 1991). Alliance for the Study of School Climate–School Climate Assessment Inventory (ASSC–SCAI) is another inventory to understand the school's function, health, and performance. The measured constructs are physical appearance, faculty relations, student interactions, leadership and decisions, discipline environment, learning and assessment, attitude and culture, and community relations (Shindler, Taylor, Cadenas, & Jones, 2003). A measure developed by Brand, Felner, Seitsinger, Burns, and Bolton (2008) is the Inventory of School Climate-Teacher (ISC-T) to collect information on teachers'

views of school climate in order to understand the effect of school climate on school functioning and school reform efforts. The measured dimensions are peer sensitivity, disruptiveness, teacher-student interactions, achievement orientation, support fr cultural pluralism, and safety problems. All of these measures (SCI-R, ASSC-SCAI, ISC-T) have beed developed to find out some problems, or to assess the school climate, and ignored the members' relationships.

Organizational health and openness are other perspectives for examining school climate (Hoy & Sabo, 1998; Hoy, Tarter & Kottkamp, 1991; Tarter, Bliss & Hoy, 1989). The openness of organizational climate is measured by exploring open and authentic relationships between teachers and administrators, and among teachers themselves. Typically, four to six dimensions of these relationships are measured by the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ), with various versions having 34 (Hoy & Tarter, 1997) to 64 Likert-items (Halpin & Croft, 1963). The health of the organizational climate of schools is related to the positive interpersonal dynamics between teachers and administrators, and among teachers themselves. In addition, the framework considers relationships between the school and students, and the school and the community, which is not included in the scope of this study. Similarly, OHI (Hoy & Tarter, 1997) measures opennes and health, but although opennes and health are different, there is some overlap in the measured constructs because open schools tend to be healthy and healthy schools tend to be open. For this reason neither OCDQ, nor OHI are appropriate measures for this study.

Regarding health of the organizational cimate in schoools, Miles (1969) was the first to define it as the one that "not only survives in its environment, but continues to cope adequately over the long haul, (that takes a long time) and continuously develops and expands its coping abilities (p. 378). Later, Hoy and Feldman (1987) framed and measured the concept of organizational health. A healthy school climate is affected with positive student, teacher, and administrator interrelationships. Teachers like their colleagues, their school, their job, and their students, and they are driven by a goal for academic excellence. Administrators have high expectations for teachers, and they try hard to help them. In brief, the interpersonal dynamics of the school are positive (Tagiuri, 1968). In this study health concept of the organizational climate has been considered since the aim was to analyze the relationship between organizational climate and the stress experienced by

English instructors in preparatory schools. For this reason, the Organizational Climate Index (OCI) developed by Hoy, Smith, and Sweetland (2002) has been used. OCI is a descriptive questionnaire that measures four aspects of school climate: the relationship between the school and institutional vulnerability, the relationship between the administrator and the teachers (collegial leadership), the relationship among the teachers, and achievement press. Institutional vulnerability is the extent to which the school is susceptible to the vocal citizens. High vulnerability suggests that both teachers and the administrators are unprotected and put on the defensive position. Collegial leadership explains the administrator behavior directed toward meeting both social needs of the faculty and achieving the goals of the school. The relationship among the teachers is shown by the respect for colleague competence, commitment to students, autonomous judgement, and mutual cooperation and collegial support. Achievement press describes a school that stesses high but achievable academic standards and goals. Yılmaz and Altınkurt (2013) have adapted OCI into Turkish and had six factors; supportive, restrictive, and directive administrator behavior, and intimate, collegial and indifferent teacher behavior. In fact OCI has been developed for high schools, but it is an appropriate tool to measure the climate in the preparatory schools of the universities since the climate in preparatory school setting has many similarities with high school setting. In standard high schools and vocational schools, there is no preparatory year to learn English but the students have approximately eight hours a week of instruction in English language, and the total amount of these classes is similar to the instruction in the preparatory schools. There are also Anatolian high schools and private high schools, which have a year of preparatory English, and use English as the medium of instruction (Doğanaçay-Aktuna, & Kızıltepe, 2005). The classes in preparatory schools as are mostly conducted in a teacher-centered manner like the ones in high schools (Demirtaş & Sert, 2010). In this manner, English preparatory schools at the universities are acting as a bridge between the high school and the university. They resemble high schools in practice, but the climate is more autonomous. In addition, there are similarities regarding occupational stress of the instructors, which is discussed in the following part.

2.3 Higher Education Context in Turkey

In Turkey, before the establishment of the Republic, there was only one higher education institution, named *Istanbul Darülfünunu* (Istanbul Academy of Sciences), and a few other military and civilian higher education institutions, a total of 8, in all Istanbul during the early 1900s (The Ministry of Education (MNE), 2013). Since the foundation of the Republic, the escalation of higher education has been adapted as the primary goal in order to live up to the globalized world in terms of both quality and quantity. The development process has gained momentum especially in the 1990s to meet the manpower needs of a growing market economy, and the most obvious characteristics of this change has been the establishment of numerous universities. While some of these are new state universities in various cities throughout the country, an increasing number of private universities have also been established in the big cities, and as of 2013, the number of universities has reached 192, comprising of 120 state and 72 private universities (MNE, 2013).

There is a hierarchical structure in the nature of higher education system in Turkey (Çelik, 2010). All of the nation's public colleges and universities are overseen by a centralized committee known as the Higher Education Council, or HEC (Yükseköğretim Kanunu [Higher Education Law], 1981). This regulatory body has the authority to exert extensive interference in university administration through a series of government policies, resulting in a monumental bureaucracy which tends to reinforce the political rather than the scientific focus of Turkish academia, severely limiting the possibility for any innovation and acting as a major obstacle to change (Arıkan, 2002; Bostrom, 2007; Timur, 2000). Under this system, academic administrators and faculty are recruited according to the requirements set by the Higher Education Law (Yüksek Öğretim Kanunu, 1981). Teaching contracts are offered for limited periods and may be extended or revoked at the decision of university and HEC officials. Because tenure, salaries, and even the continuation of employment are dependent to some degree on maintaining the favorable opinion of those in authority, competition and resentment between faculty members are not unusual, and those who propose changes to the curricula or the way that classes are taught are not always well-received (Arıkan, 2002).

Both academic and administrative employees, who are office staff, experts, clerical staff, and service personnel in state universities in Turkey have civil servant

status. Full professors and associate professors have tenure. The number of academic and administrative employees' posts allocated to each state university is determined by the acts of the Parliament, while staff appointments at all levels are made exclusively by the universities themselves. The law only sets forth the minimum requirements for academic promotions and the procedures to be followed in making appointments (Higher Education Council of Turkey (HECT), 2013).

Küskü (2003) concludes that it is important to pursue their career for the academic staff, however, they are not satisfied with the incompetent working conditions, mainly regarding their salaries and material aspects, in the state universities. In addition, while old universities can make long-range plans, the new universities are concerned with building their image, which is consistent with their new status, and this brings forward different problems for the faculty working in state or private universities (Kanji & Tambi, 1999). Arabacı (2010) has found that the employment variable regarding the status of the faculty (professors, research assistants, specialists, instructors) constituted a meaningful difference in the perception of the organizational climate in a positive way compared to the administrative staff, however, this variable had differences within the academic position held by the faculty. In another study, Gizir (1999) has identified insufficient communication, individualism, insufficient sharing of knowledge, grouping, lack of motivation, administrative problems, lack of common goals, introvert status of the department, criticism, and organizational climate of the department as the factors that impede communication among the academic staff. Other researchers have found that although there are efforts to improve the conditions of higher education institutions in Turkey, the academic staff has problems regarding quality manpower, financial resources, bureaucratic administration, education and research (Aypay, 2003; Küskü, 2003; Şimşek, 1999). As a result of the academic climate research conducted by Öge (1996), Çağlar (2008) and Özdemir (2006), the instructors were of the opinion that they were not involved in decision-making process, and they were not rewarded, which caused occupational stress.

In Turkey, the English language instructors are working in the preparatory schools of the universities. Some of the state and private universities are English-medium universities offering a one-year intensive English preparation for all the new students who are not successful in the English proficiency exam administered at the beginning of the first academic year (Doğançay-Aktuna & Kiziltepe, 2005). The

general aim of these programs is to teach university students to read in English so that they can cope with departmental courses offered in English in their faculties. Konig (2003) suggests that in Turkey, main aims for the teaching of English for higher education is better job opportunities and following technological and scientific improvements. Despite the importance attached to preparatory English programs in Turkey to bring university students up to an adequate level in terms of English, and to help students use English internationally in various fields (Toker, 1999), the preparatory school programs have some problems. For example, Karataş and Fer (2009) have suggested determining the level of English needed in the business area, and designing preparatory school curriculum accordingly so that the instructors would be goal oriented and work more efficiently. Another study was carried out by Tunç (2010), who found that the implementation process of the English language curriculum showed differences in relation to the facilities of schools and classrooms, teacher and student characteristics and perceptions. This may appear to be similar with the departments of the faculties, however, in the faculties there are different courses designed individually by the faculty whereas in the preparatory schools the same course is taught in all the classes, by all the instructors. The current preparatory programs are based on a modular system which requires the students to pass all four levels of English proficiency (A1, A2, B1, B2) as described in the Common European Framework of reference (CEFR) (Coşkun, 2013). In this respect, the preparatory schools resemble the high schools, since the application of the curriculum is similar. Although it is believed that the nature and quality of the teacher influences effective teaching, Toker (1999) states that the major problem with the instructors at preparatory schools is that most of them are from an arts background, they have not been trained as teachers, and they have no or little interest in science. Additionally, some people think that preparatory schools are insufficient to teach English, and that valuable time at the university is being wasted to learn a language (Kulemaka, 1994). Lamson (1974) describes that another problem in Preparatory School instruction is accommodating the students who learn a foreign language very slowly, which affects the motivation of the instructors. Since all the instructors have to follow the same curriculum and have limited time to teach specific information, they have no time to repeat for the students who learn slowly, and feel stressed since they become insufficient to teach those students. In another study, Cem (1978) claims that the instruction in the preparatory schools is

insufficient because the instructors do not give importance to professional investment and do not make use of new approaches to teaching English as a foreign language. Since these instructors do not have opportunities for an academic degree, they do not have any ambition to improve themselves professionally. When lack of motivation is considered together with lack of participation in decision making, insufficient sharing of knowledge (Gizir, 1999), and lack of tenure (Arikan, 2012), occupational stress of the preparatory school instructors becomes inevitable.

The aforementioned research has aimed at evaluating the curriculum (Karataş & Fer, 2009; Gerede, 2005), identifying the problems about the students, or the Preparatory Program in general (Gökdemir, 2010; Özkanal & Hakan, 2010; Örs, 2006). Although Özkanal and Arıkan (2010) found a significant relationship between perceived stress level of the instructors and emotional exhaustion about work related factors, occupational stress of the instructors was not analyzed in these studies. Although several studies have been conducted about preparatory schools of universities, there is a need for a study regarding how the instructors perceive the organizational climate of the preparatory schools, and how this climate impacts their occupational stress in order to contribute to literature.

2.4 Stress

Lazarus (1966) has defined stress as the relationship between an individual and his environment that is appraised as dangerous, and evaluated as beyond his ability to deal with. It is also defined as a physiological non-specific reaction to external or internal demands (Selye, 1976). Therefore, it is not the event (the stressor) that causes stress but the individual's perception, and his emotional reaction to it. McGrath (1976) defines stress as a dynamic condition in which an individual is confronted with an opportunity, constraint or demand on being, having, and/or doing whatever he desires. Selye (1976) gives a thorough overview of stress from practical and medical perspectives, and claims that stress is not necessarily something bad, nor is it necessarily something good; it is simply something that cannot be avoided. In line with Selye (1976), other researchers define stress as a multivariate process and claim that when environmental conditions are appraised as being potentially harmful, threatening or challenging, people interpret the conditions as exceeding their individual resources to cope with, and this results in stress (Adeyemo & Ogunyemi,

2010; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Ofoegbu & Nwadiani, 2006). These environmental conditions lead to occupational stress, which is discussed in the following part.

2.4.1 Occupational Stress

Occupational stress has been described as the physical, mental and emotional wear and tear brought about by being incompatible between the requirement of the job and the capabilities and the resources by Akinboye, Akinboye and Adeyemo (2002). They claim that occupational stress is pervasive and invasive, and define occupational stress as the twentieth century disease. Within the general area of occupational stress, teaching has been identified as one of the most stressful occupations (Cooper, Sloan, & Williams, 1988; Travers & Cooper, 1996; Benmansour, 1998; Dunham & Varma, 1998; Guglielmi & Tatrow, 1998; Pithers & Soden, 1998; Kyriacou, 2001; Van Dick & Wagner, 2001). Research conducted by Sorenson (2007) reveals that working in the field of education can always cause stress, and that some systems even create a culture characterized by tension, stress, and anxiety. Stress can have serious implications for both the healthy functioning of the instructor and the organization in which s/he serves.

There have been studies that focused on identifying the sources of occupational stress of the teachers. Travers and Cooper (1996), Benmansour (1998), Pithers and Soden (1998) indicate that the main sources of teacher stress are: time pressures and workload, coping with change, being evaluated by others, poor professional relationships with colleagues, expectations of other staff, self-esteem and status, administration, role conflict and ambiguity, maintaining discipline, and poor working conditions. These stress sources have also been defined by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) in their theory which they developed in stress research. They have claimed that stress is the result of how the person perceives these stress sources in their environment.

Travers and Cooper (1996) have also identified the stressors, and their impact on the health and well-being of the teachers. In addition, lack of resources and inadequate salary have been shown as sources of stress in other studies (Boyle, Borg, Falzon & Baghoni, 1995; Pierce & Molloy, 1990; Pithers & Soden, 1998). These sources of stress have been associated with increased depression (Schonfeld, 1992), psychological distress (Punch & Tuettemann, 1991), and absenteeism

(Chambers & Belcher, 1993). Borg, Riding and Falzon (1991) have found that *professional recognition needs* as a source of stress has the strongest inverse relationship with job satisfaction and career commitment. In their study to find out the sources of teacher stress, Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978) have made a distinction between stressors which are mainly physical (e.g., too many students in the classes) and those which are essentially psychological (e.g., poor relationships with colleagues). Their theory of occupational stress emphasizes how the instructors behave when they feel threatened by physical or psychological stressing factors in their environment. Teacher stress, its sources, and how they impact the instructors working in the universities are discussed in detail in the following parts.

Teaching related stress is defined as a teacher's experience of "unpleasant, negative emotions, such as anger, anxiety, tension, frustration, or depression, resulting from some aspect of their work as a teacher" (Kyriacou, 2001, p. 38). Like other forms of occupational stress, it can have serious implications for the healthy functioning of the individual as well as for the organisation in which the individual serves. At a personal level, teaching related stress can affect a teacher's health, well-being, and performance (Larchick & Chance, 2004). As Dick and Wagner (2001) have stated in their theory of occupational stress, members of educational institutions may be affected psychologically, physiologically, and they may have behavioral manifestations due to occupational stress. From an organisational perspective, it may result in unproductive behaviours such as alienation, apathy, and absenteeism (Gugliemi & Tatrow, 1998). Since this exploration focuses on the stress of university instructors, occupational stress in higher education is explored in the following part.

2.4.2 Occupational Stress in Higher Education

The academic profession has long been highly respected and higher education institutions have been viewed as secure workplaces focusing on research and education (Sang, Teo, Cooper, & Bohle, 2013). However, following reforms of the higher educational systems in many countries, work stress in higher education institutions has recently attracted attention from researchers (Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua, & Stough, 2001; Tytherleigh, Webb, Cooper, & Ricketts, 2005; Winefield, Gillespie, Stough, Dua, Hapuarachchi, & Boyd, 2003).

Research on stress among academic staff of universities from across the globe indicates that the phenomenon of occupational stress in universities is alarmingly widespread and increasing (Winefield, 2000; Lam & Punch, 2001). A study in British universities revealed that there was high amount of occupational stress, and that stress in these universities was significantly correlated with job insecurity, poor work relationships, lack of control and insufficient resources and communication (Sang, Teo, Cooper, & Bohle, 2013). Another study in Australia indicated that high levels of stress were associated with insufficient funding, lack of resources, work overload, poor management practices, and poor recognition and rewards (Winefield, Gillespie, Stough, Dua, Hapuarachchi, & Boyd, 2003).

Some other studies on universities have identified significant increases in teaching loads, research targets, fears concerning job security, and reductions in job satisfaction (Blix, Cruise, Mitchell, & Blix, 1994; Metcalf, Rolfe, Stevens, & Weale, 2005; Tytherleigh, Webb, Cooper, & Ricketts, 2005; Winefield, Boyd, Saebel, & Pignata, 2008). Kinman and Jones (2003) have found that although most of the instructors felt their jobs were rewarding, just over a half felt their satisfaction had declined and a significant number of academic staff had considered leaving their jobs. These findings are similar to those of Tytherleigh, Webb, Cooper and Ricketts (2005), who have found that academic staff are becoming increasingly stressed by changes in control and autonomy, resourcing and communication in their universities. The results of these studies support the theory developed by Pearson and Moomaw (2005) who emphasized the importance of autonomy to reduce the amount of occupational stress. Harrison's (1999) research shows many issues that the instructors deal with on a regular basis, including pressures from the management, conflicts, demands, and too few emotional rewards, accomplishments, and successes. He discusses the unrealistic goals and expectations set for people without input, and frustrations in achieving professional growth as reasons of occupational stress.

Blix, Cruise, Mitchell and Blix (1994) have found that occupational stress correlated positively with health problems and productivity, and that faculty with higher levels of stress are more likely to consider job changes. The study of Blix, Cruise, Mitchell and Blix (1994) on the occupational stress among university teachers has been a very comprehensive one at the university level. The researchers have identified some factors that are associated with stress among the academicians such as work overload, time constraints, lack of promotion opportunities, inadequate recognition,

inadequate salary, inadequate management and/or participation in management, and inadequate resources and funding.

On the same line, Singh, Mishra, and Kim (1998) found a negative relationship between occupational stress, and motivation to do research and job satisfaction. Their research showed higher levels of occupational stress for the instructors and research assistants compared to the tenured faculty members (professors). Sorcinelli and Gregory (1987) found a similar result with Singh, Mishra, and Kim (1998). They concluded that the instructors were subject to higher levels of stress, with the pressures and expectations related to their job security. It is stated that high levels of teacher stress, left unchecked and unmanaged, affect the quality, productivity and creativity of the academicians' work in addition to their health, well-being, and morale (Calabrese, Kling & Gold, 1987; Everly, 1990; Kiecolt-Glaser, Stephens, Lipetz, Speicher, & Glaser, 1985; Matteson & Ivancevich, 1987; Nowack, 1989; Osipow & Spokane, 1991; Terry, Tonge & Callan, 1995).

With reference to Turkey, all of the higher education institutions are organized under the Higher Education Council (HEC), which is a centralized council run by a rigid hierarchy of rectors and deans, and controlled by the president of Turkey. Çelik (2011) describes the HEC as a top-down establishment in which individual institutions lack the autonomy to make decisions regarding academic standards, curricula, or recruiting of faculty. Moreover, HEC limits the opportunities for innovation and reform within the educational system. Under these restraints, the academic staff are depressed with heavy teaching loads, inadequate salaries, and insufficient classroom resources. Professional standards are not always clearly defined, and this results in inconsistencies in recommendations about promotion and tenure. Faculty members have little right to take part in the decisions that affect them, and often struggle to fulfill their responsibilities with little support from their colleagues, superiors or administrators, all of which contribute to their occupational stress (Çelik, 2010). This supports Pearson and Moomaw's (2005) theory of occupational stress. Pearson and Moomaw (2005) associate stress with lack of empowerment and job satisfaction.

Norris (2011) claims that there is no desire to be a faculty member because there is little reward, yet a great deal of effort is required in order to be successful in Turkish universities. In addition, Turkish faculty particularly in the private universities are always in fear of losing their jobs, which contributes to occupational

stress, and a lack of desire to enter the profession (Norris, 2011). Bilge, Akman, and Kelecioglu (2007) conducted a research in state universities in Ankara and their results show significant differences on occupational stress. Older faculty members, those with academic experience abroad, those with greater seniority, and those with higher academic statuses had lower scores than did younger academic staff, persons with no academic experience abroad, those with lower seniority, and those with lower academic statuses including the preparatory school instructors. Full professors had the lowest scores on occupational stress.

The abovementioned researchers have given attention to stress, but with limited attention to the relationship of teacher stress with organizational climate. As for Turkey, there is research conducted on the preparatory schools of universities, however, these studies have focused on evaluating the curriculum from various perspectives (Gerede, 2005; Güllü, 2007; Tunç, 2010; Toker, 1999), and job satisfaction among academicians (Toker, 2011). The results of research suggest a need for further investigation and understanding of stress among English instructors, and the relationship of teacher stress with organizational climate. Since there are several factors that lead to stress among the academic staff, next these factors are discussed.

2.4.3 Factors That Lead to Stress Among Academic Staff

In order to analyze the relationship of teacher stress with organizational climate, role of the academic staff, sources of stress, and impacts of stress on the academic staff need to be clarified. The popular view about the role of the academic staff is that the instructors spend their time teaching. They have face-to-face contact with students, and they are interested in research (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, 1998). As a new trend, they create sources of income for the university by undertaking research for external organizations, or by selling the 'products' of their research (Becher & Kogan, 1992). Academics also contribute to their field through reviewing publications and presenting their studies at conferences (Schulz, 2013).

Studies indicate that the phenomenon of occupational stress in universities is alarmingly widespread and increasing (Winefield, 2003). Several key factors commonly associated with stress among the academic staff include work overload, time constraint, lack of promotion opportunities, inadequate recognition, inadequate

salary, changing job role, inadequate management or participation in management, inadequate resources and funding, and student interaction (Gillispie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua & Stough, 2001). Cartwright and Cooper (2002) have developed the ASSET (An Organisational Stress Screening Tool) model to measure an employee's stress and to recognise additional factors such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment. According to this model, the sources of stress commonly reported in literature have been classified in eight different stressor categories. These include work relationships (poor relationships with colleagues and/or administrators), work-life imbalance, overload, job security (fear of job loss), lack of control (in the way work is organised and performed), resources and communication, pay and benefits, and aspects of the fundamental nature of the job itself. Commitment, including the individual's to the organisation, and the organisation's to the individual, refers to an effect of stress. The results of another study conducted by Tytherleigh, Webb, Cooper, & Ricketts (2005) have shown job insecurity as the most significant source of stress for higher education staff. The staff have also reported significantly higher levels of stress related to work relationships, control, and resources and communication, and significantly lower levels of commitment both from and to their organization.

Regarding the factors that impact stress among academic staff, findings by Ofoegbu and Nwadiani (2006) reveal significant organizational factors which include lack of instructional facilities, preparation of examination results, invigilation of examination, high cost of living, office accommodation, and lack of research facilities. Additional sources of occupational stress identified in studies have been lack of financial support for research, insufficient opportunities for professional development, slow progress on career advancement, and long meetings as causes of stress among academic staff (Blix, Cruise, Mitchell & Blix, 1994; Rutter, Hezberg & Paice, 2002; Sorcienelli & Greg, 1987). In addition to these, administration and its demands is claimed to cause occupational stress of the academicians (Blix and Lee, 1991). The factors that have already been stated support the theory of Brener and Bartell (1984) who assume that occupational stress is a combination of individual characteristics of the instructor and the climate in the school. They associate stress with the perception of the instructor.

Some other research about occupational stress of academic staff have identified role ambiguity and performance pressure as causes of it (Ahsan, Abdullah, Fie & Alam, 2009; Abousierie, 1996; Ahmandy, Changiz, Masiello & Bromnel, 2007, Goldenberg & Waddell, 1990). Additionally, findings of the research have showed increasing levels of stress due to working conditions among many university staff (Boyd & Wylie, 1994; Winfield, 2000; Lam & Punch, 2001; Goldenburg & Waddell, 1990). In addition to work overload and working conditions, role ambiguity and performance pressure, research has shown that conflict, demands and expectations from colleagues and administrators, incompatible demands from different personal and organization roles, inadequate autonomy to make decision on different tasks, and feeling of being used below the potential are factors that lead to job stress of the academicians (Ahmandy, Changiz, Masiello & Bromnels. 2007; Alexandros-stamatios, Matilyn & Cary, 2003; Lam & Punch, 2001; Boyd & Wylie, 1994).

As a result of the reasons related to the roles of the instructors and the organization they are working in, academic staff suffer from stress, and as Neidle (1984) has concluded, these cause stress which occurs at various intervals throughout one's academic career, and manifests itself in various ways. Sorcinelli and Gregory (1987) suggest that instructors, when they are not experienced enough, could be subject to higher levels of stress, with the pressures and expectations related to the decisions in the academic environment. According to the studies, when the instructors encounter too much critical reflection, the outcome is negative feelings and dissatisfaction, and in such an environment it is difficult to maintain motivation and avoid stress (Morgan, Ludlow, Kitching, O'Leary & Clarke, 2009). Richard and Krieshok (1989) have found that female teachers have higher stress scores than males. Blackburn, Horowitz, Edington, and Klos (1986) have found that teacher stress manifests itself in a reduced level of getting satisfaction from one's life, while both Keinan and Perlberg (1987), and Seiler and Pearson (1984) have suggested that teacher stress is a reason of changing jobs. Some other studies have found high levels of stress related to work relationships, control, resources, communication, and job insecurity (Tytherleigh, 2003; Tytherleigh, Webb, Cooper, & Ricketts, 2005). In Boyd and Wylie's (1994) study, 80% of the academic staff has indicated both work overload and work-life imbalance, and this result has been related to low

psychological well-being among the academic staff (Daniels & Guppy, 1994; Kinman & Jones, 2003; Winefield, Gillespie, Stough, Dua, & Hapuararchchi, 2003).

Referring to the previous studies in literature, there is research on what the academic staff are expected to do, what kind of problems they encounter about their official work and the organization they work in, outcomes of their occupational stress, and how they manifest their teacher stress. However, there is a missing part regarding the relationship of the organizational climate with the occupational stress of the teachers. A major purpose of this study is to contribute to literature in this respect. In order to do this, the role which educational administration has in the organizational climate and stress relationship is also considered and discussed.

Administrators are central figures in schools, and their actions directly shape the climate of the schools. Research finds the role of the administrators especially influential over the organizational climate of the school where they are able to foster trusting, cooperative, and open environments, and where input from the instructors is welcome (Bryk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu, & Easton, 2010; Hoy & Henderson, 1983; Hoy, Smith, & Sweetland, 2002; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999; Leithwood, Leonard, & Sharratt, 1998; Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom, Anderson, Michlin, Mascall, & Moore, 2010; Rosenholtz, 1985). It is stated that the trusting, cooperative, and open characteristics in schools generate higher levels of satisfaction, union of the instructors around the goals and objectives of the school, and their support for each other (Price, 2012). Research also shows that the central factors for these outcomes are the relationships between the administrators and the instructors (Hoy, Smith, & Sweetland, 2002; Hoy & Henderson, 1983; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999; ; Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom, Anderson, Michlin, Mascall & Moore, 2010; Moolenaar, Daly, & Sleegers, 2010; Ogawa & Bossert, 1995; Rosenholtz, 1985; Stephenson & Baur, 2010; Wahlstrom & Louis, 2008). Having trust in the administrator has been shown as the basic principle to build and sustain positive organizational relationships (Bryk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu, & Easton, 2010; Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Tschannen-Moran, 2004).

In addition to the studies conducted on trusting, cooperative and open climates shaped by the administrators, there is research on administrative applications and their outcomes. In this research, time pressure, too much paper work, inadequate time for preparation, unrealistic deadlines, and the workload of the instructors have been reported as factors that lead to teacher stress (Dinham and

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Scott, 1998; Kyriacou, 2001; Pithers & Soden, 1998). In addition, Rice and Schneider (1994) claim that when the administrators prevent the instructors from being involved in decision making process, this results in lack of satisfaction from their work, which leads to occupational stress. A study by Mazur and Lynch (1989) investigating the relationship between the administrator's leadership style and occupational stress of the instructors has showed that although the leadership style was not a significant predictor of job stress, organizational stress factors such as work overload, lack of support, and isolation were very significant predictors. In addition, some dissatisfying work conditions such as inadequate recognition and tense relationships have been reported as factors that lead to occupational stress (LeFevre, Mathen, Kolt, 2003; Muthuvelayutham and Mohanasundaram, 2012; Blix, Cruise, Mitchell, & Blix, 1994).

All in all, as literature shows, although the personal leadership style of the administrator may not affect the occupational stress of the instructors, administrative demands and applications such as too much work, lack of support, lack of involvement in decision making, work policy, time pressure and interpersonal relationships are the factors that cause occupational stress of the instructors (Mazur and Lynch, 1989; Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, 1959; Rice and Schneider, 1994). These studies have revealed the factors that caused occupational stress among instructors in higher education regarding administrators, who shape the climate of the school. However, researchers in educational administration have neglected the impact of administrators in the relationship of organizational climate with teacher stress. This study has assumed that behavior of the administrator is important in predicting the occupational stress of the instructors, and has investigated the relationship between the organizational climate and occupational stress of the instructors, and it has considered the impact of administrators on this relationship.

2.5 Measurement of Stress

In the literature of occupational stress, studies have reported a wide range of measuring instruments such as diary reports, interviews and self-report questionnaires, however, Pithers and Soden (1998) state that there are problems about the validity and reliability of these scales, which represent serious methodological issues in comparing teacher stress outcomes. Considering the

importance of stress in the maintenance and motivation of teachers, various measures have been developed (Fimian, 1984). However, research, which has analyzed teacher stress, has discussed it only in general terms, or it has measured burnout, or the result of long term stressful experiences (Coates & Thoreson, 1976; Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Styles & Cavanagh, 1977).

A model of teacher stress is elaborated, and measured by Travers and Cooper (1996). The main claim of this approach to teacher stress is that undesirable responses to the pressure in the climate result from a misfit between the characteristics of the teacher and the situational aspects of the job. To operationalize their model of teacher stress and to measure its influence, Travers and Cooper (1996) created the Teacher Stress Questionnaire. This questionnaire comprises six sections to measure personal and job demographics, perceived mental ill-health, behavioural style, job satisfaction, sources of pressure in teaching, and coping style Travers and Cooper (1996).

Other measures of stress are The Crown-Crisp Experimental measure (Crown & Crisp, 1979), and The Coping Style Inventory (Cooper, Sloan & Williams, 1988). The Crown-Crisp Experimental (Crown & Crisp, 1979) measures psychological well-being and mental health in six subscales including anxiety, depression, obsession, and hysteria. The Coping Style Inventory is developed to measure teachers' coping strategies with occupational stress (Cooper, Sloan & Williams, 1988).

Pithers and Fogarty (1995) have adopted a standardised psychological scale which has been developed to measure occupational stress. This scale, named the Occupational Stress Inventory (OSI), measures three aspects of occupational adjustment: occupational stress, strain and coping resources (Osipow & Spokane, 1991). Researchers have aimed at using it in technical, business and professional fields. The theoretical model behind the OSI is based on the assumption that various stressors lead to certain levels of strain which can be moderated through the personal coping resources.

Although there are various aproaches to measure teacher stress, most of them have adopted a perspective which includes burnout, mental health, influence of teacher stress, or its sources. Research in literature has concentrated mainly on the causes or consequences of teachers stress. It was Fimian (1982) who summarized 135 sources and manifestations of stress cited in the literature into 13 categories. In

1984, he developed the Teacher Stress Inventory (TSI) to provide a better definition and a measure for teacher stress, which was an instrument measuring the perceived strength of different stress experiences related to teaching roles. Later, Fimian and Fastenau (1990) have updated the inventory which measures the strength of occupational stress in teachers.

In TSI, there are ten stress-related problems which are noted in terms of their relative impact upon teachers. Each of these factors is internally consistent and significantly related to the others. These are: time management, work-related stressors, professional distress, discipline and motivation, and professional investment, which describe the stress sources. The other factors are: emotional manifestations, fatigue manifestations, cardiovascular manifestations, gastronomical manifestations, and behavioral manifestations, which describe the stress manifestations. For example, teachers who score high on professional investment as a stress source feel that they are not allowed to be personally involved in their job. They believe that their personal opinions are not aired sufficiently, and that they do not have opportunities for professional development. Behavioral manifestations describe the inappropriate ways which teachers use in order to cope with their occupational stress. These may be use of drugs, alcohol, or reporting sickness in response to stress. On the other hand, the teachers who feel occupational stress due to time management problems become impatient against slow people. They feel that they should do more than one thing at a time because of not having enough time to get things done. Discipline and motivation incorporates two parts related to teacher-student relationships. High discipline scores describe teachers who continually watch the students' behavior, and inadequate or poor discipline policies in the school. High motivation scores describe teachers who feel occupational stress when they teach poorly motivated students. High emotional manifestation scores are related to teachers who feel insecure, and unable to cope, or who are anxious. Work-related stressors represent having little time to prepare, or too much work to do. These teachers believe that their personal priorities are neglected due to job demands. Gastronomical manifestations include long lasting stomach pain, stomach acid, and stomach cramps. High scores on cardiovascular manifestations show that the teachers feel increased blood pressure, rapid breath, and heart pounding. Fatigue manifestations are the symptoms of the teachers who sleep more than usual, always delay doing things, and feel physically exhausted. Finally, the teachers who feel that

they lack promotion opportunities, and recognition, they receive inadequate salary, and that they need more respect, suffer from professional distress as an occupational stress source.

TSI is an appropriate tool to measure teacher stress in this study because it covers all the stress sources and stress manifestations related to the teachers' job, and it measures the perceived strength of stress regarding organizational climate. Since this study focuses on the relationship of organizational climate with teacher stress experienced by the instructors, it is discussed in the following part.

2.6 Relationships Between Organizational Climate and Stress

Several studies have explored the mechanisms that impact the interactions among the members of a climate (Lazarus, 1999; Dewe, Leiter, & Cox, 2000), how they perceive the climate, and how this perception is reflected in their work outcomes such as job satisfaction, commitment and performance (Schulz, 2013). Changes in the climate of an organization are claimed to be the source of occupational stress for the employees (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). Role conflict, ambiguity, and work overload have also been shown as factors that lead to occupational stress (Brief & Aldag, 1976; Ivanceyich, Matteson, & Preston, 1982; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964; Manning, Ismael, & Sherwood, 1981; Rosse & Rosse, 1981). Some other research suggests that a poor work climate has adverse effects on the staff (Schaefer, & Moos, 1996), and distress caused by such a climate has been linked to lower job satisfaction (Norbeck, 1985), decreased job performance (Motowidlo, Packard, & Manning, 1986), and health problems among staff (Jennings, 1990; Revicki & May, 1989). Likewise, work climates characterized by a lack of support, autonomy, or clarity are associated with job dissatisfaction (Blegan, 1993; Revicki & May, 1989; Lucas, Atwood, & Hagaman, 1993; Parkes & Von Rabenau, 1993), emotional exhaustion, and depression (Constable & Russell, 1986; Revicki, Whitley, Gallery, & Allison, 1993). Research also shows that adverse work experiences such as working with people who have psychological problems, or experiencing negative events or situations contribute to occupational stress (Quick, Murphy, & Hurrell, 1992; Sauter, & Murphy, 1995).

Having an important role in the organization, the administrator's support has been linked to greater job satisfaction (Parkes & Von Rabenau, 1993) and less emotional exhaustion (Robinson, Roth, Keim, Levenson, Flentje, & Bashor, 1991) together with respect and empathy (Firth, McIntee, McKeown, & Britton, 1986). The employees' job satisfaction and commitment to their organization have been greater when they work with administrators who are perceived as supportive leaders having positive relationships with the employees (Glisson & Durick, 1988). On the other hand, an organizational climate with rigid administrators, and impersonal structure, where there are political battles, inadequate supervision or training, and nonparticipative decision making have been found as the sources of occupational stress (Braaten, 2000).

With reference to stress in teaching, research has identified some factors of the organizational climate as sources of stress, such as role ambiguity (Blix, Cruise, Mitchell & Blix, 1994), and work overload (Cooper & Kelly, 1993). In order to assess the occupational stress of both the instructors and the administrators, Cooper and Kelly (1993) have collected data on personal and job demographics, sources of job stress, mental health, job satisfaction and coping strategies, and have conducted univariate, bivariate and multivariate analysis to identify the major sources of teachers' occupational stress. In her study on school climate, Gordon (2002) has analyzed the classroom management and identified particular stressors associated with discipline in the school climate. She has used a mixed methodology approach of quantitative (a survey) and qualitative (interviews) components, and collected data from the instructors. Brown, Ralph and Brember (2002) have studied lack of participation in decision making at a university in two academic years and conducted interviews to collect data. Moriarty, Edmonds, Blatchford and Martin (2001) have conducted a quantitative research among the teachers and have found that the teachers felt they were being impeded and stressed by organizational factors such as changes in educational policies, and not being able to use initiatives. Dewe (1986) has studied sources of occupational stress in a mail survey among the teachers and has found lack of support, work overload and administration as the sources of occupaional stress which was manifested through anxiety and tiredness. Pithers and Soden (1998) have examined the occupational stress and coping strategies of teachers by using OCI to gather data, and have found work overload as a strong source of occupational stress. Another quantitative research on teacher stress has

been conducted by Zurlo, Pes and Capasso (2013), who have used the Italian version of the Teacher Stress Questionnaire (Travers & Cooper, 1996). They have found teachers' age and school climate as determining factors for occupational stress. Moreover, some personal factors such as self-esteem and coping strategies, which influence the assessment of stressful events, have been identified (Travers & Cooper, 1996). Although research has shown the organizational and personal factors which have been the sources of teacher stress, or how the members assess them, it has not considered the relationship of these with the occupational stress experienced by the instructors.

Some other research has analyzed negative aspects of the school climate focusing on occupational stress, for instance work overload, student misbehaviour, lack of autonomy, or conflict with colleagues (Kokkinos, 2007; Malach-Pines, 2005). Other researchers (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) have analyzed a combination of positive and negative aspects of the school context. They have discriminated between job demands such as work overload, and job resources like social support, or have just analyzed a number of job characteristics which lead to excessive amount of stress (Brown, Ralph & Brember, 2002; Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001; Punch & Tuetteman, 1990). Research has also indicated that school climate and support from the colleagues are negatively related to teacher stress. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) have found negative correlations between support from colleagues and teacher stress, whereas Hakanen, Bakker and Schaufeli (2006) have found negative correlations between administrative support and teacher stress. By means of regression analysis Cano-Garcia, Padilla-Munoz and Carrasco-Ortiz (2005) has found that teachers' relationships with the school administration has significantly predicted the exhaustion dimension of teacher stress. Thus, research has studied the impact of school climate, collegial support, and administrative support on teacher stress seperately. This has called for another study which analyzes these relationships all together, which has been conducted in this research.

Accordingly, when literature on the relationships between organizational climate and teacher stress is considered, the topics which have been studied the most have been those which are related to the organizational characteristics such as role stressors, working conditions, the need for professional recognition, level of specialization, lack of resources, relationship with colleagues, and social support (Boyle, Borg, Falzon, & Baglioni, 1995; Dick & Wagner, 2001). Considering that

the topics in the aforementioned research have been studied separately, this shows a gap in literature in regard to the relationship of the organizational climate of the school with the occupational stress of the teachers. This study assumes that the relationships of teachers with the administrators, with their colleagues, and with their organizational climate impact their occupational stress.

2.7 Summary of Literature Review

In this chapter, literature regarding organizational climate, instructors' notion of occupational stress, and its relationship with organizational school climate in higher education has been reviewed in detail. Review of literature shows that climate researchers have concentrated on the impact of organizational systems on groups and individuals (Denison, 1996; Ekwall, 1987; Joyce & Slochum, 1984; Koyes & DeCotiis, 1991). Organizational climate is related to several outcomes about work such as job satisfaction (Johnson & Mc-Intye, 1998; Tsai & Huang, 2008), commitment (Joo, 2010; McMurray, Scott, & Pace, 2004), productivity (Patterson, Warr, & West, 2004), and performance (Dawson, Gonzalez-Roma, Davis, & West, 2008; Tziner, Shultz, & Fisher, 2008). These studies have analyzed the relationship of the members with the organizational climate by considering one or a limited number of work-related outcomes, but not together to see how they impact the members of the organization.

Another weakness in research on organizational climate is about the relationships between climate and work outcomes of the instructors. Although the studies have described the perceptions, attitudes, and expectations of the organization and its members (Peterson & Spencer 1990), these have concentrated on the importance of the perception of the members, and have concluded that there are significant relationships between organizational climate of the educational institution and work outcomes of the instructors (Arabacı, 2010; Hartnett & Centre, 1974; Stern, 1966). The relationship between organizational climate and occupational stress among the work outcomes has been generally neglected.

The other issue that needs to be addressed is the organizational climate in higher education in Turkey. There has been research conducted on the perceptions and/or possible problems of the organizational climate (Arabacı, 2010; Çağlar, 2008; Küskü, 2003; Öge, 1996; Özdemir, 2006; Şimşek, 1999). This research has evaluated

the curriculum (Karataş & Fer, 2009; Gerede, 2005), identified the problems of the students, or the Preparatory Program (Gökdemir, 2010; Örs, 2006; Özkanal & Hakan, 2010). Although Özkanal and Arıkan (2010) found a significant relationship between perceived stress level of the instructors and emotional exhaustion about work related factors, occupational stress of the instructors was not analyzed in these studies. A study regarding how the instructors perceive the organizational climate of the preparatory schools, and how this climate impacts their occupational stress has been neglected.

The research that has been conducted on the sources of occupational stress has shown time pressures and workload, coping with change, being evaluated by others, poor professional relationships with colleagues, expectations of other staff, self-esteem and status, administration, role conflict and ambiguity, maintaining discipline, and poor working conditions as the main sources of stress (Benmansour, 1998; Pithers & Soden, 1998; Travers & Cooper, 1996). In addition, lack of resources and inadequate salary have been identified as other stress sources in the studies (Boyle, Borg, Falzon & Baghoni, 1995; Pierce & Molloy, 1990; Pithers & Soden, 1998). The outcomes of these stress sources have been found as increased depression (Schonfeld, 1992), psychological distress (Punch & Tuettemann, 1991), and absenteeism (Chambers & Belcher, 1993).

When higher education is considered, job insecurity, poor work relationships, lack of control, insufficient resources, poor communication, insufficient funding, work overload, poor management practices, and poor recognition and rewards have been found as stress sources (Blix, Cruise, Mitchell, & Blix, 1994; Metcalf, Rolfe, Stevens, & Weale, 2005; Sang, Teo, Cooper, & Bohle, 2013; Tytherleigh, Webb, Cooper, & Ricketts, 2005; Winefield, Boyd, Saebel, & Pignata, 2008; Winefield, Gillespie, Stough, Dua, Hapuarachchi, & Boyd, 2003). The outcome of occupational stress has been found as health problems and low productivity (Blix, Cruise, Mitchell & Blix, 1994). It has been expressed that the quality and creativity of the instructors' work is affected negatively when they suffer from high levels of occupational stress, and when they cannot cope with this stress. Stress affects their health, welfare, and confidence, as well (Calabrese, Kling & Gold, 1987; Everly, 1990; Kiecolt-Glaser, Stephens, Lipetz, Speicher, & Glaser, 1985; Matteson & Ivancevich, 1987; Nowack, 1989; Osipow & Spokane, 1991; Terry, Tonge & Callan, 1995).

Higher education in Turkey is organized under the Higher Education Council (HEC). Since the decisions are made top-down, universities cannot make decisions about their curricula or faculty recruitment (Çelik, 2011). Research results show that the academic staff suffer from occupational stress due to heavy teaching loads, inadequate salaries, insufficient classroom resources, unclear professional standards, and the fear of losing their jobs (Çelik, 2010; Norris, 2011). The abovementioned researchers have given attention to stress, but with limited attention to the relationship of teacher stress with organizational climate. As for Turkey, there is research conducted on the preparatory schools of universities, however, these studies have focused on evaluating the curriculum from various perspectives (Gerede, 2005; Güllü, 2007; Toker, 1999; Tunç, 2010), and job satisfaction among academicians (Toker, 2011). The result of this review calls for further investigation and understanding of stress among English instructors, and the relationship of teacher stress with organizational climate.

The factors that cause stress in academic staff have been examined separately in the research on organizational climate and teacher stress, however, the relationship of these stress sources and the organizational climate has not been investigated, which is a gap in literature. The factors commonly associated with stress among the academic staff have been found as work overload, time constraint, lack of promotion opportunities, inadequate recognition, inadequate salary, changing job role, inadequate management or participation in management, inadequate resources and funding, and student interaction (Gillispie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua & Stough, 2001; Tytherleigh, Webb, Cooper, & Ricketts, 2005). Additionally, some other factors have been identified as lack of financial support for research, insufficient opportunities for professional development, slow progress on career advancement, and long meetings (Blix, Cruise, Mitchell & Blix, 1994; Rutter, Hezberg & Paice, 2002; Sorcienelli & Greg, 1987). Despite the fact that there is research on what the academic staff are expected to do, what kind of problems they encounter about their official work and the organization they work in, outcomes of their occupational stress, and how they manifest their teacher stress, the relationship among these factors has been disregarded.

One other important point that needs to be made is about educational administration, and the leadership style of the administrator. As evident in literature, administrators shape the climate of the school, and their demands and applications

such as too much work, lack of support, lack of involvement in decision making, work policy, time pressure, and interpersonal relationships impact perception of the instructors regarding the school climate, and their occupational stress (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959; Mazur & Lynch, 1989; Rice & Schneider, 1994). These studies have revealed the factors that cause occupational stress among instructors in higher education regarding administrators, however, they have neglected the impact of administrators in the relationship of organizational climate with teacher stress.

Another point that needs to be dealt with is the relationship between organizational climate and occupational stress of the instructors. Several studies have explored how members of a climate perceive it, and how their perception is reflected in their work outcomes (Blegan, 1993; Dewe, Leiter, & Cox, 2000; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964; Revicki & May, 1989; Schulz, 2013). Having an important role in the organizational climate, the administrator's support has also been studied, and a climate with rigid administrators, inadequate supervision or training, and nonparticipative decision making have been found as the sources of occupational stress (Braaten, 2000). Although research has shown the organizational and personal factors which have been the sources of teacher stress, or how the members assess them, it has not considered the relationship of these with the occupational stress experienced by the instructors.

Accordingly, when literature on the relationships between organizational climate and teacher stress is considered, the topics which have been studied the most have been those which are related to the organizational characteristics such as role stressors, working conditions, the need for professional recognition, level of specialization, lack of resources, relationship with colleagues, and social support (Boyle, Borg, Falzon, & Baglioni, 1995; Dick & Wagner, 2001). Considering that the topics in the aforementioned research have been studied separately, this shows a gap in literature as regards the relationship of the organizational climate of the school with the occupational stress of the teachers.

Within the scope of this study, literature regarding occupational stress and organizational climate has been reviewed to elaborate on the factors that cause stress, and their relationship with organizational climate in the work environment in higher education. It has been assumed that there is a relationship between organizational climate and occupational stress experienced by the instructors.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This chapter is organized under seven main parts. In the first part, the overall design of the study is presented, followed by operational descriptions of the variables. In the third part, population and demographic characteristics of the participants is explained. In the fourth part, data collection instrument, and reliability-validity analyses of the scales in the instrument are discussed in details. In the next part, data analysis and statistical methods followed in the data analysis are presented. Following a brief explanation about reliability and validity analyses, in the final part, limitations of the study are stated.

3.1 Design of the Study

This study investigated the relationship between organizational climate and occupational stress experienced by the instructors by using quantitative research method. As the aim of the study was to investigate the relationships between the variables that cannot be manipulated, quantitative research, and particularly the correlational design has been chosen. According to Johnson and Christensen (2008), in correlational research, the researcher studies the relationship between two or more quantitative predictor variables and one or more quantitative dependent variables; that is, in correlational research, the independent and dependent variables are quantitative. They add that there is no manipulation of the predictor variable by the researcher. Thompson, Diamond, William, Snyder and Snyder (2005) state that in a correlational study, the participants are not randomly assigned to treatment conditions, the evidence that is obtained can be used to inform causal inferences, and thus it is an evidence-based practice. Moreover, the findings of a quantitative research can be generalized to a larger population and inferences can be made from the findings as stated by Borrego, Gouglas and Amelink (2009). Depending on the above-mentioned explanation, the questions this study attempts to answer are

appropriate to be analyzed in terms of quantitative research method. For the purposes of this study a correlational research design was used.

3.2 Operational Descriptions of Variables

The operational description of the variables used in this study are as follows;

Organizational climate: It was the predictor variable of this study showing how the instructors understood the organizational climate in their work environment, and it was a continuous variable. The Turkish version of Organizational Climate Index (OCI) designed by Hoy and Tarter (1997), and translated to Turkish by Yılmaz and Altınkurt (2013) was used. Yılmaz and Altınkurt have translated the OCI, and have tested reliability and validity of the Turkish version. The subscales in the Turkish version include three parameters for administrators' and three parameters for teachers' behavior. The subscales are; supportive administrator, directive administrator, restrictive administrator, collegial teacher, intimate teacher and indifferent teacher. The index is made up of 39 items with a 4-point-likert-type, ranging from rarely occurs (1) to very frequently occurs (4).

Occupational Stress: It was the dependent variable of this study, and it was a continuous variable. The Turkish version of Teacher Stress Inventory (TSI), which was designed by Fimian and Fastenau (1990), and translated into Turkish by Kızıltepe (2007) has been used to test occupational stress. Kızıltepe (2007) tested its reliability and validity. The inventory is made up of 49 items with a 5-point-likert-type, ranging from no strength/not noticeable (1) to major strength/extremely noticeable (5).

3.3 Population and Sample Selection

Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) have noted that in correlational research design, sampling should be conducted carefully to get the exact degree of relationship between the variables. Although they have suggested random sampling be used as a selection method if possible, this has not been appropriate for this study because the researcher has aimed at conducting the study by including all the instructors in the Schools of Foreign Languages of two state and three foundation universities where the study was done. So, all the instructors working in the preparatory schools of the

relevant five universities made up the sample of the study. Having worked in the preparatory school for more than twenty years, the researcher has access to and has connections in the selected Schools of Foreign Languages. As a consequence, she has used convenience sampling due to the convenient accessibility and proximity of the subjects.

According to the data gathered from the internet resources of two state and three foundation universities in Ankara, in the first state university there is a chair, an assistant chair and four academic coordinators in the administration of the preparatory school, and there are 205 instructors, 10 of whom were native speakers. This is an English medium university. In the Department of Basic English the students are placed in five groups according to their levels of English and have 12, 15, 20 or 25 class hours per week all through the academic year. The instructors teach 15-25 class hours per week.

In the second state university, there is a department head, two administrative affairs coordinators and four academic affairs coordinators in the administration of the preparatory school. There are 97 instructors, and all of them are Turkish. The medium of instruction is Turkish, partially (30%) English or completely English in different departments. In the Department of Basic English the students are placed in four groups according to the English, and have 20 or 25 class hours per week. The instructors teach 24-32 class hours per week.

In the first foundation university, there is a department head and an academic coordinator in the administration of the English Language Department which is offering courses for the preparatory school students. There are 111 instructors, one of whom is a native speaker. The medium of education is Turkish in all but the English Language Department and the Department of American Culture and Literature, however, English is a mandatory part of the curriculum. The students are placed at three levels depending on their placement and/or proficiency test results and have 24 or 27 hours per throughout the academic year. The instructors teach 20 class hours per week.

In the second foundation university there is a director, a vice director, an administrative coordinator and an academic coordinator in the administration of the Preparatory School. There are 74 full-time and 10 part-time instructors, and six of them are native speakers. The medium of instruction is English in the Department of English Language and Literature, partly English in the Department of Translation

and Interpretation, and Turkish in the other departments. The students are placed in three groups according to their levels of English, and have 27-30 class hours per week all through the academic year. The instructors teach 18-21 class hours per week.

In the third foundation university, there is a director in the administration of the English Preparatory School. There are 50 full-time instructors, 5 part-time instructors, and three of them are native speakers. The medium of instruction is English except from the Faculty of Law. In the English Preparatory School, the students are placed in six groups according to their levels of English and have 23-25 class hours per week throughout the academic year. The instructors teach 18-20 class hours per week.

The researcher has been unable to do a pilot study due to limitations of time. For this reason, she has used the Turkish version of OCI and TSI after getting the approval of the researchers (Yılmaz & Altınkurt, 2013; Kızıltepe, 2007) who had translated the inventories to Turkish, and applied and tested them for reliability and validity. As for the population, she has targeted all of the English instructors in the above-mentioned five universities where she collected data from, and the instructors who volunteered to participate in the study have up the sample of the study. In the first university there were 61 participants, in the second there were 75 participants, in the third university there were 60 participants, in the fourth university there were 40 participants and in the fifth university there were 40 participants, which added up to 276 participants. Given these numbers, the response rate was 42%.

When the balance between state and foundation universities is considered, two hundred and ninety-two participants were employed by the state universities (54,9%) and two hundred and thirty-six participants were employed by foundation universities (45,1%). The administration in both state and foundation universities were similar. As for the instructors, they had similar course loads, teaching hours, and the content they taught were similar, as well.

3.4 Data Collection Instrument

In the study, three inventories consisting of several different scales and questions were utilized for collecting data. In the first inventory there were questions related to demographic information. The second one was Organizational Climate

Index (OCI) developed by Hoy and Tarter (1997) (see Appendix H), and the third one was Teacher Stress Inventory developed by Fimian and Fastenau (1990) (see Appendix I).

3.4.1 Demographic Questions

Demographic questionnaire consisted of four close-ended questions about gender, age, total years of experience as an English instructor, and total years of teaching at the current university. The questions in this section were developed by the researcher and the advisor. There were options for the close-ended questions and the instructors were asked to mark the boxes provided next to the options for gender, age groups, total years of experience as an English instructor, and total years of teaching at the current university.

3.4.2 Organizational Climate Index

Organizational Climate Index (OCI) developed by Hoy and Tarter (1997), and adapted to Turkish by Yılmaz and Altınkurt (2013) was used for this study to collect data related to the relationship between organizational climate and occupational stress experienced by the instructors. OCI is used because it has the relevant dimensions to impact the climate in a school such as the behaviors of the administrators and the teachers. Among the many organizational factors in schools, researchers have stated that administrator's behavior and teachers' attitudes are important to describe the climate of the organization (Cheng, 1991; Hackman, 1976; Sergiovanni, 1984).

The first OCI designed by Hoy and Tarter (1991) had four dimensions: collegial leadership, professional teacher behavior, pressure on the students to perform academically, and institutional vulnerability to the community. Later, Hoy and Miskel (2010) identified six dimensions for the school climate as supportive administrator, directive administrator, restrictive administrator, collegial teacher, intimate teacher, and indifferent teacher. Yılmaz and Altınkurt (2013) have used the OCI designed in 1997, but they have included six dimensions in the Turkish adaptation of the scale. The items are scored by assigning 1 to "rarely occurs," 2 to "sometimes occurs," 3 to "often occurs," and 4 to "very frequently occurs".

As for the reliability of original OCI, each of these dimensions was measured by a subtest. The reliability scores for the scales were relatively high: collegial leadership 0.94, professional teacher behavior 0.88, achievement press for students to perform academically 0.92, and institutional vulnerability 0.87. In addition to its reliability, a factor analysis of the instrument supports the construct validity of the concept of school climate (Hoy, Smith, and Sweetland, 2002). These show that the Organizational Climate Scale was found to be a valid and reliable measurement tool.

In this study, the Turkish version of the measure was used which was translated and adapted to Turkish by Yılmaz and Altınkurt (2013). In order to adapt the scale considering the differences in language, context and culture, the researchers have made necessary changes paying attention to their uses in the original scale, added nine more questions, piloted the study, and have published it after conducting their research. The Turkish version has six dimensions: supportive administrator behaviour, intimate teacher behaviour, directive administrator behaviour, collegial teacher behaviour, restrictive administrator behaviour, and indifferent teacher behaviour. The items about supportive administrator aims at finding out if he listens to the teachers and is open for suggestions. Such an administrator is realistic and praises the teachers. His criticisms are constructive and helpful. When directive administrator behaviour is considered, it is shown by autocracy of the administrator with unrestricted authority. He strictly follows the teachers and wants to learn everything about all the activities. Restrictive administrator is described as the one who restricts the teachers rather than helping them. He wants the teachers to be involved in unnecessary bureaucracy, routine tasks, and too much work. Collegial teacher represents the ones who support each other. These teachers are ambitious, they accept each other, they are helpful and respectful for the professional qualifications of their colleagues. Intimate teacher behaviour reflects the strong and warm social support support in the school. The teachers know each other, they have close frienships and meet very often. In the inventory, indifferent teacher shows lack of understanding and focusing on the professional activities. The teachers seem to be in the school just to go to class, do something and then leave in a dull manner. Their behaviour is negative and they criticize their colleagues.

In the Turkish adaptation, some of the factors of the original OCI have been tested in different behavior groups and factor numbers. Collegiality has been measured by factors related to supportive administrator behavior, intimate teacher

behavior, directive administrator behavior and restrictive administrator behavior. Health of the organizational climate is tested by factors in supportive administrator behavior, intimate teacher behavior, collegial teacher behavior, and restrictive administrator behavior. The original factors about academic achievement for the students, and institutional vulnerability are the same as the ones in restrictive administrator and directive administrator respectively. The factors for Turkish adaptation of the original OCI are presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Factors for Turkish Adaptation of OCI

Item number	Tested behavior
1-9	Supportive administrator
10-16	Directive administrator
17-21	Restrictive administrator
22-28	Intimate teacher
29-35	Collegial teacher
36-39	Indifferent teacher

The factors are scored in the same way as the original survey by assigning 1 to *rarely occurs*, 2 to *sometimes occurs*, 3 to *often occurs*, and 4 to *very frequently occurs*. Item factor loadings in the related scale range from 0.46 to 0.82, corrected item-total correlations range between 0.35 to 0.77, and reliability coefficient ranges between 0.70 to 0.89. Using the Pearson correlation coefficient, the researchers state that the correlations between 0.70-1.00 show high, between 0.69-0.30 show medium, and lower than 0.29 show statistically insignificant relationship between the variables (Büyüköztürk, 2009; Yılmaz and Altınkurt, 2013). As a result of the findings of their study, the researchers claim that the Turkish adaptation of OCI is a valid and reliable measurement tool to be used in describing the organizational climate of educational institutions. Yılmaz & Altınkurt (2013) have also calculated opennes index for the climate regarding the administrators and the instructors. This openness index is interpreted the same way as the subtest scores, that is, the mean of the average school

is 500. Thus, a score of 650 on openness represents a highly open faculty. Yılmaz & Altınkurt (2013) have changed the numbers into categories ranging from high to low by using the following conversion scale:

Above 600 Very High

551-600 High

525-550 Above Average

511-524 Slightly Above Average

490-510 Average

476-489 Slightly Below Average

450-475 Below Average

400-449 Low

Below 400 Very Low (Yılmaz & Altınkurt, 2013).

3.4.3 Teacher Stress Inventory

Teacher stress inventory (TSI) developed by Fimian and Fastenau (1990) and adapted to Turkish by Kızıltepe (2007) has been used to collect data for this study to measure occupational stress of the instructors. The original inventory is composed of ten stress manifestation factors and it was developed to measure the perceived strength of different sources of stress experiences related to teaching. The TSI is a self-reporting questionnaire and contains 49 stress-related items serving to assess the strength of each event. The general framing question guiding the participants to respond to items on sources of stress are; "How much do you feel stressed by the following?" and for the items referring to manifestations of stress, the framing question was; "How often do you experience the following?" To complete the questionnaire, the instructors were asked to circle the number that best reflects their response to each item. *Not at all* (for the stress source responses) and *Never* (for the manifestation responses) were scored as 1 point, which meant *no strength; not noticeable*. The scoring for the responses of *An extreme lot* (for the stress source responses) and *Always* (for the manifestation responses) were 5 points, which meant *major strength; extremely noticeable*. All in all, Likert-type response items are used with a rating scale of ranging from 1 to 5, with 1 representing no strength/not noticeable, and 5 representing major strength/extremely noticeable.

The TSI instrument clusters 20 experiences into five types of stress sources, and 29 experiences into five types of stress manifestations. The stress sources are; time management related stressor, work-related stressor, profession related stressor, discipline and motivation related stressor, and professional investment related stressor. Time management as a stress source tests the degree to which subjects feel impatient, how they perceive time shortages, multi-tasking and time-management skills. Work-related stressors are about preparation time, work load, scholarly pace and personal priorities. Professional distress items aim at finding out the assessment of the teachers about their professional status, respect and recognition, control over school-related matters, and professional improvement opportunities.

When discipline and motivation scale is considered, it involves questions about on-the-job stimulation, opportunities for professional improvement, monitoring student behavior, discipline policies and teacher authority. Professional investment is shown by the availability of expressing personal opinions, controlling decisions, emotional and/or intellectual stimulation, and opportunities for improvement. Sample experiences for each type of stress source are as follows; *Having to do more than one thing at a time*, *Finding that the school day pace is too fast*, *Needing more status and respect*, *Having to deal with inadequate or poorly defined discipline policies*, and *Lacking opportunities for improvement*.

The five types of stress manifestations are; emotional, fatigue, cardiovascular, gastronomical, and behavioral. Emotional manifestations describe various negative feelings about insecurity, vulnerability, depression and anxiousness. The purpose of fatigue manifestations is to describe the problems of exhaustion, physical weakness, the frequency and degree of fatigue that they experience; and the occurrence and duration of stomach acid, stomach cramps, and stomach pain. Cardiovascular manifestations are related to blood pressure, heart beat and rapid breath, and how the teachers cope with these problems. Gastronomical manifestations show problems in the stomach such as cramps, pains and stomach acid. Behavioral manifestations are about using drugs and/or alcohol and reporting sickness. Sample experiences for each type of stress manifestations are as follows; *Feeling depressed*, *Sleeping more than usual*, *Feelings of increased blood pressure*, *Stomach cramps*, and *Using alcohol*.

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the TSI experience clusters were reported to range from 0.75 to 0.88, and for the total scale, and the whole scale alpha of 0.93 (Fimian & Fastenu, 1990). The test-retest reliability of the inventory has been found to be 0.76 (Fimian & Fastenu, 1990). The Turkish version of this measure was adapted to Turkish by Kızıltepe (2007), and the reliability tests conducted indicated that the alpha levels for the subscales of the measure were above 0.65. For TSI, the correlations between 0.60-1.00 showed a high relationship, between 0.59-0.30 showed medium, and lower than 0.29 showed statistically insignificant relationship between the variables (Fimian & Fastenau, 1990). Related to the items, the number and order of the Turkish version of the inventory has been kept the same as the original TSI developed by Fimian and Fastenau (1990). The factors for Turkish adaptation of the original OCI are presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2

Factors for Turkish Adaptation of TSI

Item number	Tested behavior
1-6	Work related stressor
7, 8, 9, 10, 12	Profession related stressors
11, 13, 14, 15	Professional investment related stressors
16 - 21	Discipline and motivation related stressors
42 - 49	Time management related stressors
22 - 26	Emotional manifestations
27, 28, 29, 31	Behavioral manifestations
30, 32, 33	Cardiovascular manifestations
34, 35, 39	Gastronomical manifestations
36, 37, 38, 40, 41	Fatigue manifestations

3.5 Data Collection Procedure

The aim of the study was to analyze the relationship between the organizational climate and occupational stress experienced by the instructors at the English Language Peparatory Schools. For this purpose, a total number of five universities including two state and three foundation universities were chosen to have a balanced number of participants for state and foundation universities.

In this study, the data were collected via a survey including demographic questions (see Appendix A), the Turkish version of Organizational Climate Index (Hoy & Tarter, 1997), (see Appendix B) and the Turkish version of Teacher Stress Inventory (Fimian & Fastenau, 1990) (see Appendix C) administered to the instructors. First, the necessary permissions were obtained from Yılmaz and Altınkurt (2013) (see Appendix D) who had translated Organizational Climate Index into Turkish, and had tested its reliability and validity. Secondly, the necessary permission was obtained from Kızıltepe (2007) (see Appendix E) who had translated Teacher Stress Inventory, into Turkish, and had tested its reliability and validity.

After receiving the approval of METU Human Subjects Ethical Committee (see Appendix F), METU Graduate School of Social Sciences wrote a letter to the selected universities informing them about the study, and requesting their participation. Following that, the researcher contacted Department Heads to explain the purpose of the study in detail, to assure the confidentiality of the data, and to make necessary arrangements for conducting the questionnaires. After that, she administered all the surveys herself. In three of the universities, the data was collected on a departmental meeting day, just before the meeting started. In the other two universities, the classes had finished, and the instructors were either giving final exams or reading and grading the papers. For this reason, the researcher visited each instructor one by one and asked them if they wanted to participate in the survey in these universities.

Hard copies of the questionnaires and the consent form declaring willingness to participate in the study were taken to the universities by the researcher. In the consent form (see Appendix G), the participants were ensured about the confidentiality of the data and they were not asked any questions that would reveal their identity. It was stated in the consent form that participation was on voluntary basis, and that the participants could quit the study whenever they wanted in order to

ensure the essence of willingness. After the consent forms were collected, the instructors filled in the surveys in a single meeting. Using paper-and-pencil procedures, it took totally 25 minutes for each participant to fill in the consent form, answer demographic questions, and complete two surveys - Organizational Climate Index and Teacher Stress Inventory. The whole data were collected between May 27, 2013 and June 28, 2013.

In fact the researcher has aimed at having all the instructors at the relevant universities (a total of 531), participate in the study. For this reason, she has visited the universities, contacted and spoken to all of them one by one, explaining the aim of the study and giving the necessary information about the consent form they would fill in and sign, related to confidentiality of the gathered data. However, some of the instructors did not want to participate in the study saying that they had papers to read, or had to make preparation for teaching, and as a result 61 instructors in the first university, 75 in the second, 60 in the third, 40 in the fourth and 40 in the fifth accepted to participate in the study, with a total of 276 participants.

3.6 Data Analysis Procedures

Once survey data was collected from the participants, it was statistically analyzed and interpreted. Based on the interpretation, conclusions and recommendations pertaining to the research purpose was written. First, the data was edited and coded. Then, frequency distribution, means analysis and cross-tabulation was made. This was followed by correlation and regression analysis.

Descriptive analysis with range, minimum, maximum, mean, standard deviation and variance of Teacher Stress Inventory (TSI) and Organizational Climate Index (OCI) was conducted for dependent variable (total stress) and predictor variables (supportive administrator, directive administrator, restrictive administrator, intimate teacher, collegial teacher, indifferent teacher).

Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (K-S test) was applied with the significance value of $p<0.05$ to calculate the probability of the sample having the distribution it had, assuming that it was drawn from a normal distribution. The assumption of normality was violated and the data did not form a normal distribution, and for this reason Kruskal Wallis H Test (one-way analysis of variance), which is a nonparametric test was employed for data analysis (Hartas, 2010). Non-parametric tests do not assume a

regular bell-shaped curve of distribution in the wider population. Assumptions about the shape of the population distribution are not required, and for this reason, they are used when small sample sizes are involved, as the population of this study (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). Nonparametric analyses are part of inferential statistics, so the chain of reasoning for inferential statistics applies (Wiersma, 1995).

Spearman correlation coefficient with a significance value of $p < 0.05$ was used to analyze the relationship between the organizational climate and the instructors' notion of occupational stress. Multiple regression analysis was used in order to analyze the relationship between the dependent variable and predictor variables, that is to say, to see if the predictor variables (OCI) predicted the changes in the dependent variable (TSI). In this study, a significant R value shows how much of the variance in occupational stress could be explained by the predictor variables (organizational climate). Multiple regression provides a way to do this by calculating correlation coefficients, referred to as beta weights (β) for each predictor variable. The beta weight indicates how many standard deviation units are changed in the dependent variable for each standard deviation unit of change in each of the predictor variables (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000). That is to say, beta weight indicates the relationship between the predictor variable and dependent variable after the effects of all other predictor variables have been statisticaly removed (Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2006).

When the assumptions of multiple regression analysis are tested, multicollinearity, which is the outcome of two or more predictor variables being highly correlated, is considered (Hartas, 2010). When the predictor variables are very strongly correlated with each other, it is difficult to isolate the individual contribution of each predictor variable and this can cause problems in estimating the relationship between the predictors and the outcome (Hartas, 2010). Homogeneity of variance (homoscedasticity) is also considered. It is an assumption that the variance of a variable is equal across groups, that the data have been derived from normal distributions with equal variance (Kinnear & Gray, 2006). Violation of the assumption of homogeneity of variance is acceptable as long as the samples are not too small, the samples do not contain atypical scores and the group sizes are nearly equal (Hartas, 2010). Considering the frequency distribution, the data showed that skewness (deviation from normal distribution in terms of symmetry) and kurtosis (the extend to which the data is pointry or flat) levels were acceptable (Hartas, 2010).

3.7 Reliability and Validity Analyses

The reliability scores of Organizational Climate Index (OCI) for the scales have been relatively high – between 0.87 and 0.94 (Hoy Smith & Sweetland, 2002). Factor analysis of the instrument has been made and it also supports the construct validity (Hoy Smith & Sweetland, 2002). The Turkish version of this measure was used which was adopted to Turkish by Yılmaz & Altınkurt (2013), and reliability coefficients were between 0.70 and 0.89, which show that The Organizational Climate Scale was found to be a valid and reliable measurement tool.

The Teacher Stress Inventory (TSI) has been found to be a highly reliable measure of teacher stress with all the subscale alphas at or above 0.70 and the whole scale alpha of 0.93 (Fimian & Fastenau, 1988). The test-retest reliability of the inventory was found to be 0.76. The Turkish version of this measure was used which was adopted to Turkish by Kızıltepe (2007), and the reliability tests conducted indicated that the alpha levels for the subscales of the measure were above 0.65. The reliability of the measures of the current study have been tested and reported in Chapter 4.

Internal validity was provided by controlling for any possible threats. The researcher herself conducted the study and stayed with the instructors when they were completing the inventories to avoid sharing of information.

Construct validity was provided by giving careful operational definitions. Statistics and statistical tests were used appropriately in order to have correct inferences, and the reasons for using the relevant tests were explained. Correlations of OCI and TSI have been calculated, and multiple regression analyses have been performed to test the relationships regarding the data.

In addition to internal validity and construct validity, this study has external validity since the inferences drawn from the results can be generalized to all the English instructors in the preparatory schools of both state and foundation universities in Ankara.

3.8 Limitations of the Study

Although there is a broad range of behaviors that are considered important for the instructors, some potentially important competencies might not be included since the content of the data was limited to the demographic questions and two inventories, whose legal approval were taken. In this study, the sample was mostly made up of female instructors since the majority of the instructors in the Schools of Foreign Languages are women.

The study was conducted in five universities in Ankara. The researcher had aimed at including all the English instructors working in the Schools of Foreign Languages in these universities, however, some of the instructors did not want to participate in the study, which was on voluntary basis. Having given careful attention to make sure that underlying assumptions of multiple linear regression were met, the study can be generalized to all the English instructors in the preparatory schools of other universities in Ankara.

Moreover, the data was collected from 5 different universities under varying physical conditions. Out of these five universities, two of them being state universities and three of them being foundation universities could contribute to the physical differences. Thus, the environmental conditions and facilities of the schools could be an internal validity threat for the study.

In addition, the characteristics of the participants could be another threat for internal validity. The study was limited to the instructors with Turkish nationality since the permissions to use the inventories were obtained for their Turkish versions. Although there were international staff working as instructors in the relevant five universities, they were not included among the study participants. Another characteristic of the participants was about their age. The age of the participants varied between 23 and 44+, and the years of experience as a teacher ranged from 1 to 20+ years. Despite such differences in age and experience, the sample can be considered as a homogeneous group, since it is made up of instructors working at the preparatory schools, which can be an internal validity threat.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis concerning descriptive and inferential statistics. The chapter is organized under six main parts. In the first part, demographic characteristics of the participants are presented. In the second part, descriptive statistics of the scales are discussed. It is followed by data analysis. In the fourth part, correlations between scales in the instrument are presented. It is followed by an analysis of occupational stress and organizational climate by multiple regression to see if the components of organizational climate are significant predictors of occupational stress. In the sixth part, findings are presented based on research questions.

4.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Study Participants

Data were collected from 276 English instructors teaching at the School of Foreign Languages of two state and three foundation universities in Ankara. As presented in Table 4.1, majority of the participants were female constituting 85.1% of the whole population while 12.3% of them were male. Gender of the 2.5% of participants is unknown since they did not mark the question related to gender (see Table 4.1).

The age of almost one-third of the participants (36.6%) was within the range of 33-43, followed by 44+ age group (22.8%). 21.0% of the participants were between the ages of 23-28 while 18,8% were aged between 29-33. However, the age information of 0.7% is unknown since they did not mark their age (see Table 4.1).

When the instructors were asked about their total work experience as a teacher, the results revealed that 37% of them had a teaching experience of 11-20 years, and 22.1% accumulated within the experience group of 6-10 years. The percentage of the teachers who had teaching experience of more than 20 years, and less than 5 years had very similar percentages, 19.9 and 19.2 respectively. Out of 276

respondents, 5 teachers (1.8%) did not mark the demographic question regarding their teaching experience (see Table 4.1).

When the instructors were asked about their work experience at the university where they are currently employed, the results showed that 36.6% of the participants have been working in their current institution for 11 to 20 years, 34.1% of them have been employed in their current institution for 1 to 5 years, 19.2% have been employed for 6 to 10 years, and the remaining 9,1% have been working at their current institution for more than 20 years. Out of 276 respondents, 3 instructors (1.1%) left this question unanswered (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1

Demographic Characteristics of the Study Participants

Variables	Category	n	Percent (%)
Gender	Female	235	85.1
	Male	34	12.3
	No answer	7	2.5
	Total	276	100.0
Age	23-28	58	21.0
	29-33	52	18.8
	33-43	101	36.6
	44+	63	22.8
	No answer	2	0.7
	Total	276	100.0
Total teaching experience	1-5	53	19.2
	6-10	61	22.1
	11-20	102	37.0
	20+	55	19.9
	No answer	5	1.8
	Total	276	100.0
Total experience at the current university	1-5	94	34.1
	6-10	53	19.2
	11-20	101	36.6
	20+	25	9.1
	No answer	3	1.1
	Total	276	100.0

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between organizational climate and occupational stress experienced by the instructors. Two inventories, OCI and TSI were used for this purpose, and data were collected from 276 instructors working at two state and three foundation universities in Ankara. In both of the inventories, the participants were asked to respond the items on a likert type scale, but at various levels ranging between 1-4 (OCI), and 1-5 (TSI) respectively.

Descriptive analysis was conducted for dependent (total stress) and predictor variables (supportive administrator, directive administrator, restrictive administrator, intimate teacher, collegial teacher, indifferent teacher) used in this study. Descriptive analysis summarizes a set of data that makes them easy to understand and interpret (Zikmund, 2000). This analysis gives information for the data through the frequency distribution, central tendency, and the dispersion. Data are collected on demographic variables are processed and reported in percentages (Zikmund, 2000). The results of descriptive statistics with minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation of Organizational Climate Index (OCI) and Teacher Stress Inventory (TSI) are presented in Table 4.2 and Table 4.3 respectively.

Considering predictor variables, supportive administrator has the highest mean score (supportive administrator mean= 4.6; standard deviation=1.2) while indifferent teacher has the lowest mean score (indifferent teacher mean=1.3; standard deviation=0.4), and score for restrictive administrator is slightly higher (restrictive administrator mean=1.7; standard deviation=0.5) but close to indifferent teacher (indifferent teacher mean=1.3; standard deviation=0,4). Mean score for intimate teacher is slightly higher (intimate teacher mean=2.8; standard deviation=0.9) than that of directive administrator (directive administrator mean=2.2; standard deviation=0.7), and the mean score for collegial teacher is high (collegial teacher mean=3.3; standard deviation=0.7), but relatively lower than supportive administrator (supportive administrator mean=4.6; standard deviation=1.2).

Table 4.2

Descriptive Statistics for OCI

	n	Mean	Min	Max	St. Dev.
Supportive Administrator	276	4.6	1.6	6.4	1.2
Directive Administrator	276	2.2	1.2	4.3	0.7
Restrictive Administrator	276	1.7	0.8	3.2	0.5
Intimate Teacher	276	2.8	1.2	4.8	0.9
Collegial Teacher	276	3.3	1.4	4.8	0.7
Indifferent Teacher	276	1.3	0.6	2.4	0.4

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

Table 4.3

Descriptive Statistics for TSI

	n	Mean	Min.	Max.	St. Dev.
Professional investment related stressors	276	46.63	20.0	100.0	19.542
Behavioral manifestation	276	24.837	20.0	80.0	9.1389
Time management related stressors	276	57.663	20.0	100.0	15.403
Discipline and motivation related stressors	276	53.333	20.0	100.0	21.333
Emotional manifestation	276	41.406	20.0	100.0	18.454
Work related stressors	276	53.961	23.333	100.0	16.571
Gastronomical manifestations	276	39.517	20.0	100.0	22.92
Cardiovascular manifestations	276	36.401	20.0	100.0	17.04
Fatigue manifestations	276	50.014	20.0	100.0	19.463
Profession related stressors	276	57.942	20.0	100.0	22.048
Stress inventory score	276	48.274	26.1	96.3	12.313

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

4.3 Data Analysis

Considering the low p values (p< .05, p< .01), Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic, goodness of fit test, was applied which is based on the empirical distribution function of the data (Justel, Peña, and Zamar, 1997). With the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test the results came out statistically significant (the largest p value was p<0.005, see Table 4.4), meaning that the distribution was not normal, and hence the assumption of normality was violated.

Table 4.4

Tests of Normality for OCI and TSI

OCI	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a] Statistic	df	p
Professional Investment	0.118	276	0.000**
Behavioral Manifestation	0.347	276	0.000*
Time Management	0.066	276	0.005
Discipline and Motivation	0.115	276	0.000*
Emotional Manifestations	0.154	276	0.000**
Work-Related Stressors	0.117	276	0.000**
Gastronomic Manifestation	0.198	276	0.000**
Cardiovascular Manifestation	0.169	276	0.000**
Fatigue Manifestation	0.094	276	0.000**
Professional Distress	0.107	276	0.000**

TSI	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a] Statistic	df	p
Supportive Administrator	0.067	276	0.004*
Directive Administrator	0.112	276	0.000**
Restrictive Administrator	0.116	276	0.000**
Intimate Teacher	0.085	276	0.000**
Collegial Teacher	0.094	276	0.000**
Indifferent Teacher	0.097	276	0.000**
Total Stress Score	0.074	276	0.001*

* p< .05   ** p< .01

Considering that all the demographic information (gender, age, total years of teaching experience, and total years of experience at the current university) is categorical, frequency distribution of the data is calculated (see Table 4.1).

Instructors' understanding of the school climate has been analyzed by taking into consideration six dimensions in the Turkish version (Yılmaz & Altınkurt, 2013) of Organizational Climate Index by Hoy and Tarter (1997). These dimensions are supportive administrator, restrictive administrator, directive administrator, intimate teacher, collegial teacher, and indifferent teacher.

On the other hand, instructors' occupational stress has been analyzed by five types of stress sources and five types of stress manifestations as variables, just as the original version of Teacher Stress Inventory by Fimian (1988). The above-mentioned five stress sources are; time management related stressor, work-related stressor, professional related stressor, discipline and motivation related stressor, and professional investment related stressor. When stress manifestations are considered, they are; emotional, fatigue, cardiovascular, gastronomical, and behavioral. The reliability and validity analyses for the Turkish translation of both Organizational Climate Index (OCI) and Teacher Stress Inventory (TSI) had been done by Yılmaz and Altınkurt (2013), and Kızıltepe (2007) respectively. In this study, Cronbach's Alpha (Cronbach, 1951) coefficient was calculated to determine the internal consistency, which ranges in value from 0 to 1. For Cronbach's Alpha, the higher the score, the more reliable the generated scale is, and Nunnaly (1978) has indicated 0.7 to be an acceptable reliability coefficient. Kalaycı (2009) states that Cronbach's Alpha value higher than 0.90 shows a perfect fit (see Table 4.5).

As Table 4.5 shows, the values of Cronbach's Alpha for the measured constructs in the current study range between 0.661and 0.943 for OCI, and between 0.660 and 0.92 for TSI, which show the internal consistency of the data (Nunnaly, 1978; Kalaycı, 2009). This indicates that the items of OCI and TSI measure the underlying constructs.

Table 4.5

Reliability Analysis for the Measured Constructs for OCI and TSI

OCI

Construct	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Supporting Administrator	9	0.943
Directive Administrator	7	0.808
Restrictive Administrator	5	0.744
Intimate Teacher	7	0.917
Collegial Teacher	7	0.749
Indifferent Teacher	4	0.661

TSI

Construct	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Work-related Stress	6	0.842
Professional Distress	5	0.835
Professional Investment	4	0.803
Discipline and Motivation	6	0.902
Emotional Manifestation	5	0.886
Behavior Manifestation	4	0.660
Cardiovascular Manifestation	3	0.749
Gastronomical Manifestation	3	0.920
Fatigue Manifestation	5	0.852
Time Management	8	0.795

The relationship between organizational climate and occupational stress experienced by the instructors was analyzed by Spearman correlation coefficient with a significance value of $p<0,05$. Multiple regression analysis was performed in order to analyze the relationship between organizational climate and occupational stress of English instructors in five universities in Ankara. Total points for occupational stress include time management related stressor, work-related stressor, professional related stressor, discipline and motivation related stressor, and professional investment related stressor as stress sources. In addition, emotional, fatigue, cardiovascular, gastronomical, and behavioral stress are used to describe

stress manifestations. These stress sources and stress manifestations refer to total stress, which is the dependent variable, whereas supportive administer behavior, restrictive administer behavior, directive administrator, collegial teacher behavior, intimate teacher behavior and indifferent teacher behavior account for predictor variables.

4.4 Correlations between the Variables

Correlations for all scale scores are presented in Table 4.6. As expected, there was a moderate correlation between the organizational climate and occupational stress experienced by the instructors. Scatter plots showing comparison of supportive administrative behavior, directive administer behavior, restrictive administrative behavior, collegial teacher behavior, and disengaged teacher behavior with stress sources and manifestations are also given below (see Figures 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, 4.4, 4.5). Supportive administer behavior, restrictive administrator behavior, collegial teacher behavior, and disengaged teacher behavior as the predictor variables are plotted along the x-axis and total stress points as the dependent variables are plotted along the y-axis. The clustered dots in the scatter plots imply correlation, which is the case in the figures below (see Figures 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, 4.4, 4.5).

Table 4.6

Correlations for the scales in the OCI and TSI

Spearman's rho Correlations	r	Supportive Admin.	Directive Admin.	Restrictive Admin.	Intimate Teacher	Collegial Teacher	Indifferent Teacher	Professional Investment	Behaviour	Time Management
Supportive Admin.	r	1								
Directive Admin.	r	-0,197**	1							
Restrictive Admin.	r	-0,349**	0,196*	1						
Intimate Teacher	r	0,385**	-0,016	-0,153*	1					
Collegial Teacher	r	0,483**	-0,068	-0,330**	0,521**	1				
Indifferent Teacher	r	-0,430**	0,176*	0,395**	-0,07	-0,469**	1			
Professional Investment	r	-0,586**	0,204**	0,388**	-0,357**	-0,502**	0,490**	1		
Behaviour	r	-0,200**	0,159	0,225**	-0,065	-0,148*	0,250**	0,275	1	
Time Management	r	-0,253**	0,091	0,298**	-0,1	-0,206**	0,334**	0,351**	0,253**	1
Discipline and Motivation	r	-0,328**	0,152*	0,198**	-0,256**	-0,406**	0,288	0,581**	0,192**	0,349**
Emotional Manifestation	r	-0,336**	0,101	0,284	-0,120*	-0,267	0,347**	0,436**	0,347**	0,355**
Work-related Stress	r	-0,296**	0,155**	0,514**	-0,083	-0,235**	0,326**	0,354**	0,245**	0,564**
Gastronomical Manifestation	r	-0,232**	0,148	0,285	0,010	-0,128*	0,264	0,252**	0,344**	0,307**
Cardiovascular Manifestation	r	-0,218**	0,177	0,188*	-0,174**	-0,219**	0,127*	0,247**	0,375**	0,234**
Fatigue Manifestation	r	-0,210**	0,041*	0,266	-0,138*	-0,193**	0,211**	0,297**	0,328**	0,455**
Professional Distress	r	-0,508**	0,160	0,389**	-0,265	-0,445**	0,391**	0,786**	0,231**	0,400**
Total Stres Score	r	-0,481**	0,174	0,454**	-0,241**	-0,432**	0,441**	0,712**	0,418**	0,699**

* p< .05   ** p< .01

N= 276   r=Correlation Coefficient

Table 4.6 Continues

Spearman's rho Correlations		Discipline and Motivation	Emotional Manifestation	Work-related Stress	Gastronom. Manifestation	Cardiovascular Manifestation	Fatigue Manifestation	Professional Distress	Total Stres Score
Supportive Admin.	r								
Directive Admin.	r								
Restrictive Admin.	r								
Intimate Teacher	r								
Collegial Teacher	r								
Indifferent Teacher	r								
Professional Investment	r								
Behaviour	r								
Time Management	r								
Discipline and Motivation	r	1							
Emotional Manifestation	r	0,597**	1						
Work-related Stress	r	0,259**	0,321**	1					
Gastronomical Manifestation	r	0,234**	0,453**	0,254**	1				
Cardiovascular Manifestation	r	0,358***	0,341**	0,205**	0,352**	1			
Fatigue Manifestation	r	0,453**	0,610**	0,276	0,516***	0,380**	1		
Professional Distress	r	0,496***	0,383***	0,369***	0,178***	0,191**	0,276	1	
Total Stres Score	r	0,743***	0,733***	0,605***	0,514***	0,472***	0,697**	0,706**	1

* p< .05   ** p< .01

N= 276   r=Correlation Coefficient

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Stress sources and stress manifestations as dependent variables were tested against supportive administrator behavior as the predictor variable (see Table 4.6). Supportive administrator had the strongest correlation with professional investment ($r = -.59$, $p <= .01$). The relationship of supportive administrator with all the other stress sources and manifestations was statistically significant; behavior manifestation ($r = -.2$, $p <= .01$), time management ($r = -.25$, $p <= .01$), discipline and motivation ($r = -.33$, $p <= .01$) emotional manifestation ($r = -.34$, $p <= .01$), work-related stress ($r = -.30$, $p <= .01$), gastronomical manifestation ($r = -.23$, $p <= .01$), cardiovascular manifestation ($r = -.22$, $p <= .01$), fatigue manifestation ($r = -.21$, $p <= .01$), professional distress ($r = -.51$, $p <= .01$) (see Table 4.6). As displayed in Figure 4.1, scatterplot of comparison of supportive administrative behavior with total stress points show the negative linear correlation, and how the data was distributed.

Figure 4.1 Scatterplot of the Comparison of Supportive Administrative
Behavior with Total Stress Scores

It was assumed that the directive administrator would have a strong positive correlation with stress sources and manifestations. Spearman's rho correlations

showed that the relationship of directive administrator was statistically significant with restrictive administrator (r= .20, p<=.05), indifferent teacher (r= .18, p<=.05), discipline and motivation (r= .15, p<=.05), gastronomical manifestation (r= .15, p<=.05), and total stress score (r= .17, p<=.05) (see Table 4.6). It also had a significant relationship with professional investment (r= .20, p<=.01), work-related stress (r= .16, p<=.01) and cardiovascular manifestation (r= .18, p<=.01) (see Table 4.6). The relationship of directive administrator with intimate teacher (r= -.02, p<=.01), collegial teacher (r= -.07, p<=.01), behavior manifestation (r= .16, p<=.01), time management (r= .09, p<=.01), emotional manifestation (r= .1, p<=.01), fatigue manifestation (r= .04, p<=.01) and professional distress (r= .16, p<=.01) was statistically insignificant (see Table 4.6). Directive administrator had the strongest correlation with professional investment (r= -.20, p<=.01). Figure 4.2 below displays the correlation and distribution of data for directive administrator.
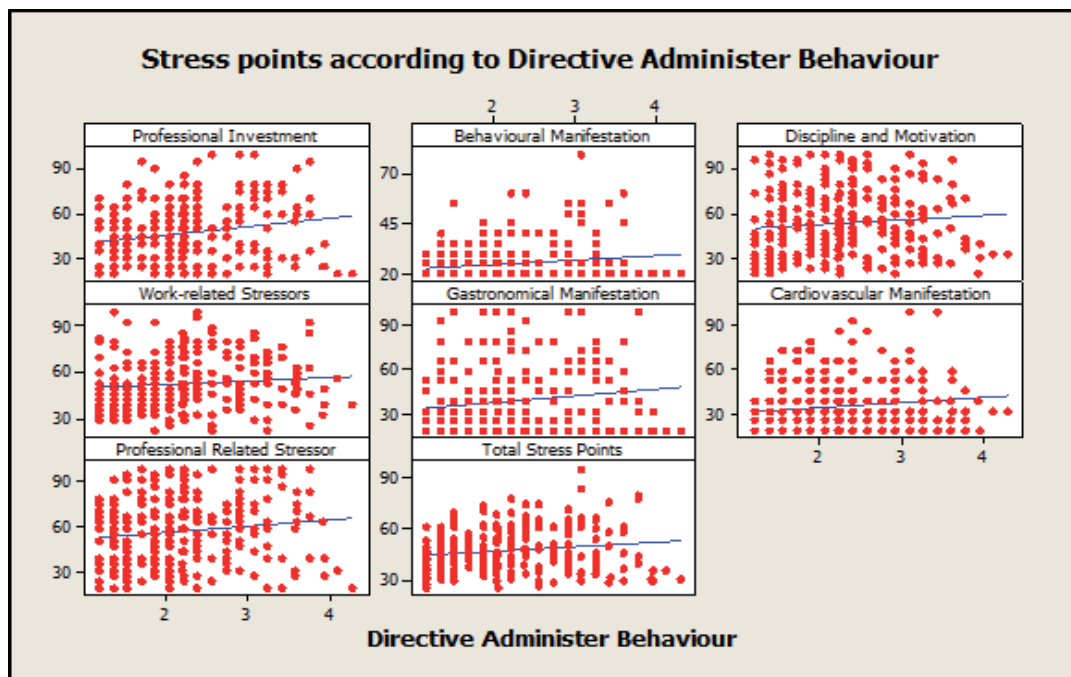
Figure 4.2 Scatterplot of the Comparison of Directive Administrative Behavior with Total Stress Scores

Restrictive administrator had the strongest correlation with work-related stress (r= .51, p<.01). It had a statistically significant relationship with intimate teacher (r= -.15, p<.05)and cardiovascular manifestation (r= .19, p<.05). It also had statistically significant relationship with collegial teacher (r= -.33, p<.01), indifferent teacher (r= .40, p<.01), professional investment (r= .39, p<.01), behavior manifestation (r= .23, p<.01), time management (r= .30, p<.01), discipline and motivation (r= .20, p<.01), professional distress (r= .39, p<.01), and total stress score (r= .45, p<.01) (see Table 4.6). The relationship of restrictive administrator with emotional manifestation (r= .28, p<.01), gastronomical manifestation (r= .29, p<.01) and fatigue manifestation (r= .27, p<.01) was statistically insignificant (see Table 4.6). As displayed in Figure 4.3, scatterplot of comparison of restrictive administrative behavior with total stress points show positive linear correlation, and how the data was distributed.
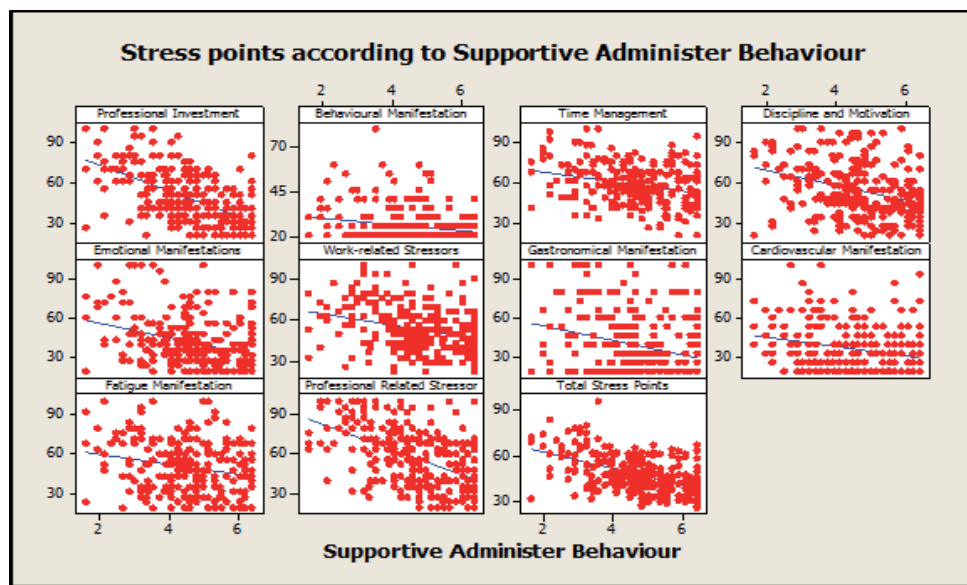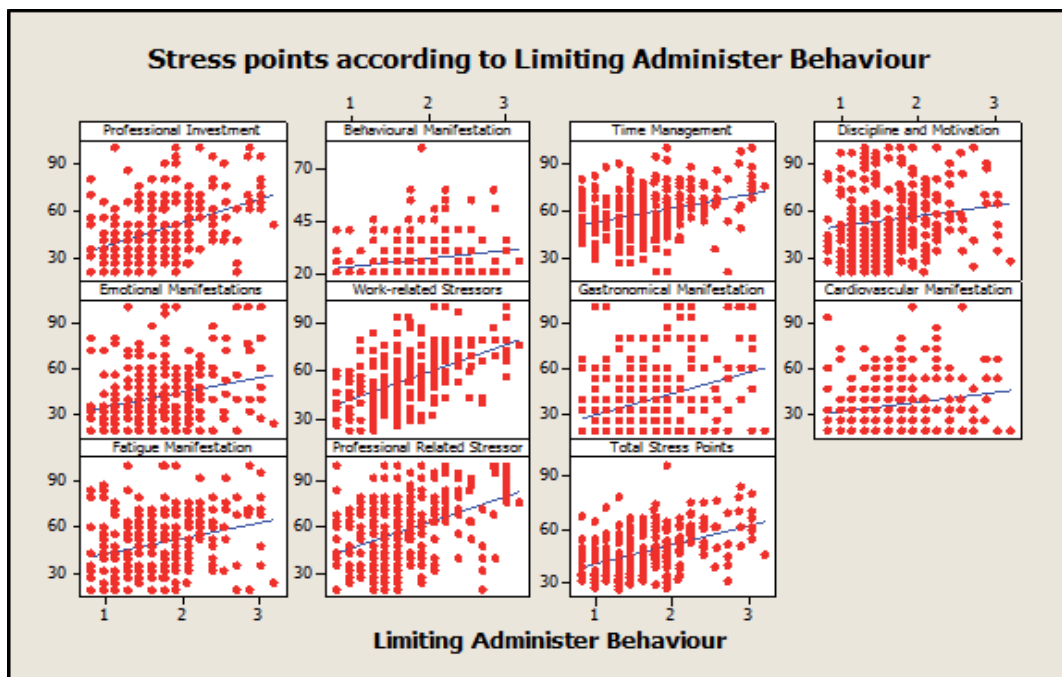

Figure 4.3 Scatterplot of the Comparison of Restrictive Administrative Behavior with Total Stress Scores

Intimate teacher had the strongest correlation with collegial teacher (r= .52, p<.01). It had a statistically significant relationship with emotional manifestation (r= -.12, p<.05) and fatigue manifestation (r= -.14, p<.05). It also had statistically significant relationship with professional investment (r= -.36, p<.01), discipline and motivation (r= -.26, p<.01), cardiovascular manifestation (r= -.17, p<.01) and total stress score (r= -.24, p<.01). The relationship of intimate teacher with indifferent teacher (r= -.07, p<.01), behavior manifestation (r= -.07, p<.01), time management (r= -.1, p<.01), work-related stress (r= -.08, p<.01), gastronomical manifestation (r= .01, p<.01) and professional distress (r= -.27, p<.01) was statistically insignificant (see Table 4.6).

Collegial teacher behavior had the strongest correlation with professional investment (r= -.5, p<.01). It had statistically significant relationship with behavior manifestation (r= -.15, p<.05) and gastronomical manifestation (r= -.13, p<.05), and indifferent teacher (r= -.47, p<.01), time management (r= -.21, p<.01), discipline and motivation (r= -.41, p<.01), work-related stress (r= -.24, p<.01), cardiovascular manifestation (r= -.13, p<.01), fatigue manifestation (r= -.19, p<.01), professional distress (r= -.45, p<.01), and total stress score (r= -.43, p<.01), however, it had statistically insignificant relationship with emotional manifestation (p<.01) (see Table 4.6). Figure 4.4 below displays the correlation and distribution of data for collegial teacher behavior.

Indifferent teacher behavior had the strongest correlation with professional investment (r=.5, p<.01). It had a statistically significant relationship with cardiovascular manifestation (r=-.13, p<.05), and behavior manifestation (r= .25, p<.01), time management (r= .33, p<.01), emotional manifestation (r= .38, p<.01), work-related stress (r= .33, p<.01), fatigue manifestation (r= .21, p<.01), professional distress (r= .39, p<.01) and total stress score (r= .44, p<.01). Its relationship with discipline and motivation and gastronomical manifestation was statistically insignificant (p>.05) (see Table 4.6). Figure 4.5 below displays the correlation and distribution of data for collegial teacher behavior.
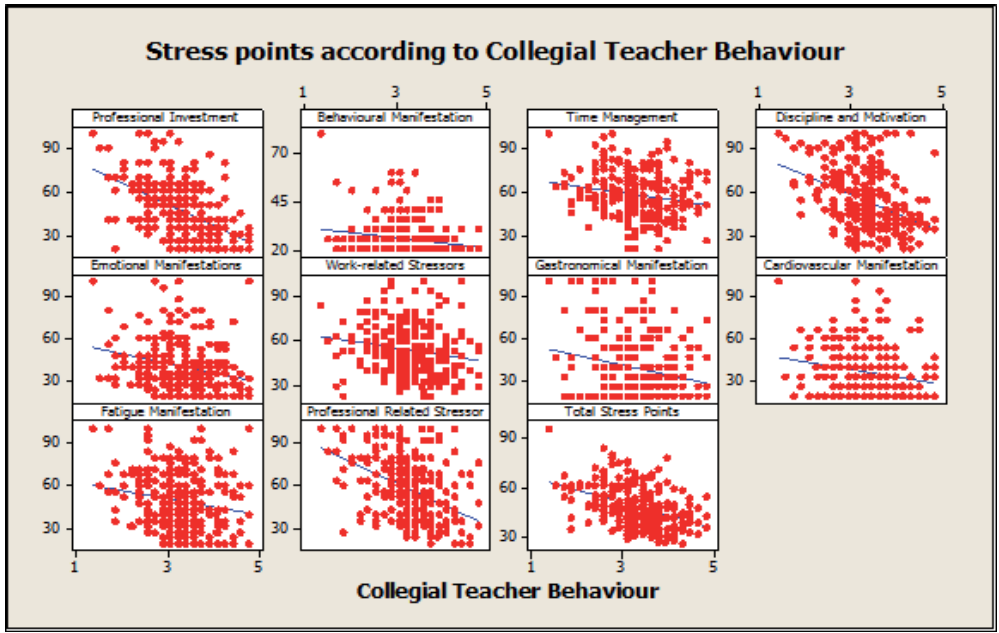
Figure 4.4 Scatterplot of the Comparison of Collegial Teacher Behavior
with Total Stress Scores
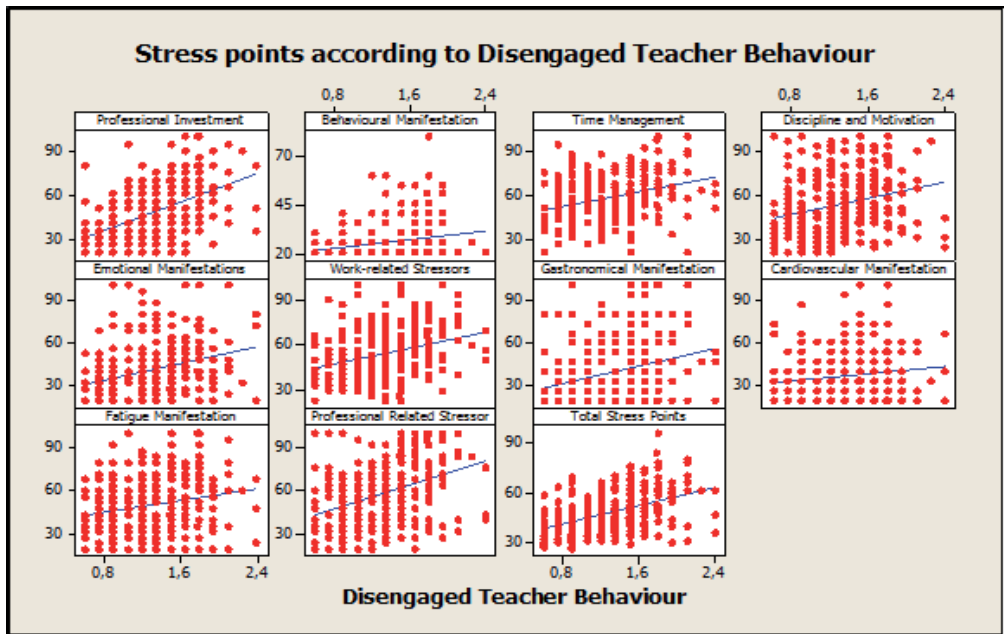
Figure 4.5 Scatterplot of the Comparison of Disengaged Teacher Behavior
with Total Stress Scores

4.5 Analysis of Occupational Stress by Using Multiple Regression Model

Regression analysis is used to evaluate relationships between a group of predictor variables and dependent variable, while the impact of a different group of predictor variables on the dependent variable is controlled (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). In this study, separate regression analyses were performed for ten dependent variables, namely, work-related stress, professional distress, professional investment, discipline and motivation, time management, emotional manifestation, behavioral manifestation, cardiovascular manifestation, gastronomical manifestation, and fatigue manifestation (see Table 3.2). The predictor variables were supportive administrator, directive administrator, restrictive administrator, intimate teacher, collegial teacher, and indifferent teacher (see Table 3.1).

The sample size was evaluated before performing the regression model. The minimum sample size can be calculated by the formula $N > 50 + 8k$, where k refers to the number of dependent variables (Green, 1991). The minimum sample size for this study was calculated as 130 with 10 dependent variables. Thus, sample size n this study (N=276) was appropriate.

For the purpose of predicting the relationship between organizational climate and occupational stress of the instructors, a multiple linear regression analysis was performed using as predictor variable supporting administer behavior, restrictive administer behavior, collegial teacher behavior, and disengaged teacher behavior (see Table 4.7). A logit transformation was conducted on the dependent variables before the regression analysis was performed in order to linearize data distribution (Armitage and Berry, 1990). The results were not significant, the data was not distributed normally. Then, square root of the data was calculated, and there was not a normal distribution of data. Accordingly, a regression analysis was performed considering N=276, which was acceptable for the normality assumption of central limit theorem. As claimed by the central limit theorem, given certain conditions, the arithmetic mean of a sufficiently large number of iterates of independent random variables, each with a well-defined expected value and well-defined variance, will be approximately normally distributed (Rice, 1995). Also other assumptions of linear regression linearity, heteroscedasticity (absence of homoscedasticity) and multicollinearity were taken into consideration.

Table 4.7

The Multiple Regression Model on Total Stress

	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Coefficient (Beta)	t	p
Constant variable	55.176		9.721	0.000
Supporting Administrator Behavior	-2.832	-0.271	-4.776	0.000
Restrictive Administrator	5.857	0.256	4.766	0.000
Collegial Teacher	-2.886	0.151	-2.765	0.006
Indifferent Teacher	4.637	-0.155	2.618	0.009

R=0.623; R^2=37.9%

F=42.876; p=0,000

Total stress regression model: Total work stress=55.176 + (-2.832)* Supporting administrator behavior + (5.857)* Restrictive administrator behavior + (-2.886)* Collegial Teacher + (4.637)* Indifferent teacher

In the relationship between the organizational climate and total stress of the teachers, predictor variables are supporting administrator, restrictive administrator, collegial teacher, and indifferent teacher. The dependent variable is the occupational stress. The regression model on total stress is statistically significant (R^2=0.379, F(4.271)=42.876, p=0.000) (see Table 4.7).

The regression coefficient for supportive administrator behaviour has been -2.832, which shows that when the points of supportive administrator behaviour as an predictor variable increase by one unit, total stress points of the instructors decrease by 2.832 units. On the other hand, the regression coefficient for collegial teacher behaviour has been -2.886, which shows that when the points of collegial teacher behaviour as an predictor variable increase by one unit, total stress points of the instructors decrease by 2.886 units (see Table 4.7).

The regression coefficient for restrictive administrator behaviour has been 5.857, which shows that when the points of restrictive administrator behaviour as an

predictor variable increase by one unit, total stress points of the instructors increase by 5.857 units. On the other hand, the regression coefficient for indifferent teacher behaviour has been 4.637, which shows that when the points of indifferent teacher behaviour as an predictor variable increase by one unit, total stress points of the instructors increase by 4.637 units (see Table 4.7). The regression on total stress was rather poor fit, but the overall relationship was significant (R^2 =0.379, F=42.876, p=0.000) (see Table 4.7).

In the relationship between the organizational climate and professional investment of the teachers, predictor variables are administrators' openness, teachers' openness, and indifferent teacher. Dependent variable is professional investment. The regression model is statistically significant, and it indicates that administrators' and teachers' openness, and indifferent teacher emerged as significant predictors of professional investment as a stress source. The regression on professional investment was rather poor fit, but the overall relationship was significant (R^2 =0.223, F=81.09, p=0.000) (see Table 4.8).

Table 4.8

The Multiple Regression Model on Professional Investment

	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Coefficient (Beta)	t	P
Constant variable	12227.9		10.5	0.000
Administrators' openness index	-12.9	-0.390	-7.3	0.000
Teachers' openness index	-10.7	-0.281	-5.3	0.000
Indifferent Teacher	8.0	0.165	3.0	0.003

R=0.472; R^2 =22.3%

F=81.09; p=0.000

Professional investment regression model:

Total stress=12227.9 + (-12.9)* Administrators' openness index + (-10.7)* Teachers' openness index + (0.8)* Indifferent Teacher

In the relationship between the organizational climate and behavioral manifestation of the teachers, predictor variables are administrators' openness and indifferent teacher. Dependent variable is behavioral manifestation. The regression model is statistically significant, and it indicates that administrators' openness and indifferent teacher emerged as significant predictors of behavioral manifestation as a stress source. The regression on behavioral manifestation was poor fit, but the overall relationship was significant (R2 =0.102, F=26.01, p=0.00) (see Table 4.9). Administrator openness was also assessed to understand the overall contribution of administrator to the organizational climate as perceived by the instructors. The finding that administrator openness was a significant predictor of the professional investment stress source with a negative beta value highlights that an open work climate has a positive impact on the reduction of occupational stress. In addition, teacher opennes was assessed to comprehend the contribution of teachers to the organizational climate as perceived by the other instructors. The finding that teaher openness was a significant predictor of the professional investment stress source with a negative beta value highlights that an open work climate contributes to the lessening of occupational stress.

Table 4.9

The Multiple Regression Model on Behavioral Manifestation

	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Coefficient (Beta)	t	P
Constant variable	2352,779		3.453	0.001
Administrators' openness index	-3,497	-0.226	-3.427	0.001
Indifferent Teacher	3,189	-0.140	2.130	0.034

R=0.319; R^2=10.2%

F=26.01; p=0.000

Behavioral manifestation regression model:

Total stress=2352.779 + (-3.497)* Administrators' openness index + (3.189)* Indifferent teacher

In the relationship between the organizational climate and time management of the teachers, predictor variables are administrators' openness, indifferent teacher, and restrictive administrator. Dependent variable is time management. The regression model is statistically significant, and it indicates that administrators' openness, indifferent teacher, and restrictive administrator emerged as significant predictors of time management as a stress source. The regression on time management was poor fit, but the overall relationship was significant $(R^2= 0.102, F=26.01, p=0.00)$ (see Table 4.10).

Table 4.10

The Multiple Regression Model on Time Management

	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Coefficient (Beta)	T	P
Constant variable	2334.9		1.8	0.076
Administrators' openness index	-3.4	-0.132	-1.8	0.081
Indifferent Teacher	7.4	0.192	3.0	0.003
Restrictive Administrator	4.3	0.152	2.1	0.036

R=0.319; R^2=10.2%

F=26.01; p=0.000

Time management regression model:

Total stress=2334.9 + (-3.4)* Administrators' openness index + (7.4)* Indifferent Teacher + (4.3)* Restrictive Administrator

In the relationship between the organizational climate and discipline and motivation of the teachers, predictor variables are collegial teacher, and supporting administrator. Dependent variable is discipline and motivation. The regression model is statistically significant, and it indicates that collegial teacher and supporting administrator emerged as significant predictors of discipline and motivation as a stress source. The regression on discipline and motivation was poor fit, but the overall relationship was significant (R^2= 0.339, F=56.6, p=0.000) (see Table 4.11).

Table 4.11

The Multiple Regression Model on Discipline and Motivation

	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Coefficient (Beta)	t	p
Constant variable	103.1		16.3	0.000
Collegial Teacher	-10.7	-0.332	-5.5	0.000
Supporting Administrator	-3.1	-0.171	-2.8	0.005

R=0.184; R^2=3.39%

F=56.6; p=0.000

Discipline and motivation regression model:

Total stress=103.1 + (-10.7)* Collegial Teacher + (-3.1)* Supporting Administrator

In the relationship between the organizational climate and emotional manifestation of the teachers, predictor variables are administrators' openness, and indifferent teacher. Dependent variable is emotional manifestation. The regression model is statistically significant, and it indicates that administrators' openness and indifferent teacher emerged as significant predictors of emotional manifestation. The regression on emotional manifestation was poor fit, but the overall relationship was significant (R^2=0.24, F=42.1, p=0.000) (see Table 4.12).

Table 4.12

The Multiple Regression Model on Emotional Manifestation

	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Coefficient (Beta)	t	p
Constant variable	5862.6		4.4	0.000
Administrator's openness index	-8.7	-0.280	-4.4	0.000
Indifferent Teacher	8.0	0.174	2.7	0.007

R=0.156; R^2=2.4%

F=42.1; p=0.000

Emotional manifestation regression model:

Total stress=5862.6 + (-8.7)* Administrator's openness index + (8.0)* Indifferent Teacher

In the relationship between the organizational climate and work-related stress of the teachers, predictor variables are restrictive administrator, and indifferent teacher. Dependent variable is work-related stress. The regression model is statistically significant, and it indicates that restrictive administrator, and indifferent teacher emerged as significant predictors of work-related stress. The regression on work-related stress was poor fit but the overall relationship was significant ($R^2 = 0.9$, F=110.1, p=0.000) (see Table 4.13).

Table 4.13

The Multiple Regression Model on Work-related Stress

	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Coefficient (Beta)	t	p
Constant variable	22.4		6.9	0.000
Restrictive Administrator	14.9	0.484	8.7	0.000
Indifferent Teacher	5.2	0.125	2.3	0.025

R=0.3; R^2=9%

F=110.1; p=0.000

Work-related stress regression model:

Total stress=22.4 + (14.9)* Restrictive Administrator + (5.2)* Indifferent teacher

In the relationship between the organizational climate and gastronomical manifestation of the teachers, predictor variables are administrators' openness, and restrictive administrator. Dependent variable is gastronomical manifestation. The regression model is statistically significant, and it indicates that administrators' openness, and restrictive administrator emerged as significant predictors of gastronomical manifestation. The regression on gastronomical manifestation was poor fit, but the overall relationship was significant ($R^2 = 0.174$, F=35.5, p=0.000) (see Table 4.14).

Table 4.14

The Multiple Regression Model on Gastronomical Manifestation

	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Coefficient (Beta)	t	p
Constant variable	57011		3.1	0.002
Administrators' openness index	-8.5	-0.219	-3.1	0.002
Restrictive Administrator	8.3	0.194	2.7	0.007

R=0.132; R^2=1.74%

F=35.5; p=0.000

Gastronomical manifestation regression model:

Total stress=5701.1 + (-8.5)* Administrators' openness index + (8.3)*, Restrictive Administrator

In the relationship between the organizational climate and cardiovascular manifestation of the teachers, predictor variables are administrators' and teachers' openness. Dependent variable is cardiovascular manifestation. The regression model is statistically significant, and it indicates that administrators' and teachers' openness emerged as significant predictors of cardiovascular manifestation. The regression on cardiovascular manifestation was poor fit, but the overall relationship was significant (R^2= 0.894, F=42.5, p=0.000) (see Table 4.15).

Table 4.15

The Multiple Regression Model on Cardiovascular Manifestation

	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Coefficient (Beta)	t	p
Constant variable	5608.3		5.0	0.000
Administrators' openness index	-6.2	-0.213	-3.3	0.001
Teachers' opennex index	-4.4	-0.131	2.0	0.046

R=0.299; R^2=8.94%

F=42.5; p=0.000

Cardiovascular manifestation regression model:

Total stress=5608.3 + (-6.2)* Administrators' openness index +

(-4.4)* Teachers' opennex index

In the relationship between the organizational climate and fatigue manifestation of the teachers, predictor variables are restrictive administrator and supporting administrator. Dependent variable is fatigue manifestation.

The regression model is statistically significant, and it indicates that restrictive administrator and supporting administrator emerged as significant predictors of fatigue manifestation. The regression on fatigue manifestation was poor fit, but the overall relationship was significant $(R^2= 0.93,$ F=21.05, p=0.000) (see Table 4.16).

Table 4.16

The Multiple Regression Model on Fatigue Manifestation

	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Coefficient (Beta)	t	p
Constant variable	49.5		7.0	0.000
Restrictive Administrator	7.6	0.209	3.4	0.001
Supporting Administrator	-2.6	-0.159	-2.6	0.011

R=0.305; R^2 =9.3%

F=21.05; p=0.000

Fatigue manifestation regression model:

Total stress=49.5 + (7.6)* Restrictive Administrator + (-2.6)* Supporting Administrator

In the relationship between the organizational climate and professional distress of the teachers, predictor variables are administrators' openness, collegial teacher, and directive administrator. Dependent variable is professional distress. The regression model is statistically significant, and it indicates that administrators' openness, collegial teacher, and directive administrator emerged as significant predictors of professional distress. The regression on professional distress was poor fit, but the overall relationship was significant (R^2= 0.116, F=99.3, p=0.000) (see Table 4.17).

Table 4.17

The Multiple Regression Model on Professional Distress

	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Coefficient (Beta)	t	p
Constant variable	13258.9		7.7	0.000
Administrators' openness index	-19.7	-0.528	-7.6	0.000
Collegial Teacher	-7.7	-0.232	-4.2	0.000
Directive Administrator	-5.4	-0.179	-2.8	0.005

R=0.341; R^2=11.63%

F=99.3; p=0.000

Professional distress regression model:

Total stress=13258.9 + (-19.7)* Administrators' openness index + (-7.7)* Collegial Teacher + (-5.4)* Directive Administrator

4.6 Findings Based on Research Questions

Research Question 1: How does supportive leadership of the administrator predict occupational stress of the instructors?

It was hypothesized that supportive leadership of the administrator would be important in either preventing or lessening the occupational stress the instructors would have. A meaningful relationship was found between supportive administrator behavior, and total stress scores ($p<.05$) (see Table 4.6). Dependent variable (occupational stress) was found to be negatively correlated with predictor variable (supportive administrator) ($p<.05$) (see Figure 4.1). In addition, multiple regression analysis also showed that supporting administrator behavior was a significant predictor of occupational stress ($\beta = -0.271$, $p=0.000$) (see Table 4.7). Supporting administrator behavior exerted a negative but statistically insignificant influence on discipline and motivation as a stress source, and fatigue manifestation of the teachers ($\beta = -0.171$, $p=0.005$; $\beta = -0.159$, $p=0.011$) (see Tables 4.11, 4.16). All these demonstrated that a supportive administrator helped decrease the occupational stress of the instructors.

Research Question 2: How does the restrictive leadership of the administrator predict occupational stress of the instructors?

Hypothesis: It was hypothesized that restrictive leadership of the administrator would have a considerable contribution to the occupational stress of the instructors. A meaningful relationship has been found between restrictive administrator behavior, and total stress scores ($p<.05$) (see Table 4.6). Dependent variable (occupational stress) was found to be positively correlated with predictor variable (restrictive administrator) ($p<.05$) (see Figure 4.3). Restrictive administrator behavior was also shown to be a significant predictor of occupational stress by multiple regression analysis ($\beta = 0.256$, $p=0.000$) (see Table 4.7). It is observed that relative to each other, restrictive administrator behavior exerted the greatest influence on work-related stress of the instructors ($\beta = 0.484$, $p=0.000$) (see Table 4.13), small and statistically insignificant influence on fatigue manifestation, gastronomical manifestation, and time management ($\beta = 0.209$, $p=0.001$; $\beta = 0.194$, $p=0.007$; $\beta = 0.152$, $p=0.036$) See Tables 4.16, 4.4.14, 4.10). All these pointed that a restrictive administrator had impact on occupational stress among the instructors.

Research Question 3: How does collegial teacher behavior predict occupational stress of the instructors?

Hypothesis: It was hypothesized that collegial teacher behavior would help the instructors to stay away from occupational stress. A meaningful relationship was found between collegial teacher behavior, and total stress scores ($p<0,05$) (see Table 4.6). Dependent variable (occupational stress) was found to be negatively correlated with predictor variable (collegial teacher) ($p<0,05$) (see Figure 4.4). Multiple regression analysis showed that collegial teacher was a significant predictor of occupational stress ($\beta = 0.151$, $p=0.006$) (see Table 4.7). It is observed that relative to each other, collegial teacher behavior exerted a negative but statistically significant influence both on discipline and motivation, and professional distress of the instructors ($\beta= -0.332$, $p=0.001$; $\beta= -0.232$, $p=0.000$) (see Tables 4.11, 4.17). All these demonstrated that a when the instructors shared responsibilities with their colleagues, they had a positive atmosphere which helped them refrain from occupational stress.

Research Question 4: How does indifferent teacher behavior predict occupational stress of the instructors?

Hypothesis: It was hypothesized that teachers not being interested or involved in the tasks and responsibilities in the school would cause occupational stress. A meaningful relationship has been found between indifferent teacher behavior, and stress sources and manifestations ($p<.05$) (see Table 4.6). Dependent variable (occupational stress) was found to be positively correlated with predictor variable (indifferent teacher) ($p<.05$) (see Figure 4.6). Indifferent teacher behavior was also shown to be a significant predictor of occupational stress by the multiple regression analysis ($\beta = -0.155$, $p=0.009$) (see Table 4.7). It is observed that relative to each other, indifferent teacher behavior exerted a small and statistically significant influence on emotional manifestation, professional investment, time management, and work related stress of the instructors ($\beta= 0.174$, $p=0.007$; $\beta= 0.165$, $p=0.003$; $\beta= 0.152$, $p=0.036$; $\beta= 0.125$, $p=0.025$) (see Tables 4.12, 4.8, 4.10, 4.13). This predictor variable exerted a negative but statistically insignificant influence on behavior manifestation of the instructors ($\beta= -0.140$, $p=0.034$) (see Table 4.9). These showed that when a teacher had little or no interest in being involved in the daily routine of school work, he had impact on the occupational stress among the instructors.

4.7.Summary

In this chapter, results of the data analysis have been presented. First, demographic characteristics of 276 English instructors teaching at the School of Foreign Languages of two state and three foundation universities in Ankara are given. Next, descriptive analysis conducted for dependent and predictor variables are presented. The results of descriptive statistics with minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation of Organizational Climate Index (OCI) and Teacher Stress Inventory (TSI) are given. It is followed by data analysis. As a result of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, the results came out statistically significant, and the data did not distribute normally. For this reason, Kruskal-Wallis Test, which is a nonparametric method, is computed to test whether the samples originated from the same distribution. The values of Cronbach's Alpha for the measured constructs ranged between 0.661and 0.943 for OCI, and between 0.660 and 0.92 for TSI, which showed the internal consistency of the data. Correlations between the scales in the instrument are also calculated. There was a moderate correlation between the organizational climate and occupational stress experienced by the instructors. Then, an analysis of occupational stress and organizational climate by multiple regression is presented to see if the components of organizational climate are significant predictors of occupational stress. The regression model on total stress is statistically significant. The results of the analyses show that supportive administrator and collegial teacher behavior help the instructors keep away from occupational stress, whereas restrictive administrator and indifferent teacher behavior cause occupational stress among the instructors.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the results of the study are discussed in terms of research questions with relevance to the findings in the related literature. This includes a discussion of limitations of the study. Following this discussion, implications for practice and recommendations for future studies are presented.

This study was designed as a correlational study. The major purpose of the study was to examine how the English instructors interpreted the conception of the school climate and how they evaluated the relationship between their perception of the organizational climate and their occupational stress. The participants of the study were 276 English instructors working at two state and three foundation universities in Ankara.

For the purpose of the study, four demographic questions, Organizational Climate Index (OCI) developed by Hoy and Tarter (1997), and adapted to Turkish by Yılmaz and Altınkurt (2013) was used to collect data related to the organizational climate. In addition, Teacher stress inventory (TSI) developed by Fimian (1988) and adapted to Turkish by Kızıltepe (2007) was used to measure occupational stress of the instructors.

It was predicted that a supportive administrator would either prevent or lessen the occupational stress of the instructors. Specifically, based on previous research on educational administration and leadership, it was predicted that occupational stress would be eliminated or minimized if/when the administrators provided encouragement or emotional help. In contrast to the supportive administrator, it was hypothesized that a restrictive administrator would play a significant role in generating or increasing the occupational stress of the instructors. The results provided support for some of these predictions, however, there were unexpected findings, as well.

Regarding the relationship between collegial teacher behavior and occupational stress, it was predicted that collegial teacher behavior would help the instructors stay away from occupational stress. It was also hypothesized that indifferent teachers who are not interested or involved in the tasks and responsibilities in the school would have impact on occupational stress. The results supported these hypotheses.

5.1 Study Results

The first research question was *How does supportive leadership of the administrator predict occupational stress of the instructors?* Previous studies have shown that supportive leadership has significant effects on the members of the organization (Fuller, Patterson, Hester & Stringer, 1996; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). The findings of this study also showed the same pattern of relationship between supportive administrators and instructors. Consistent with previous research about how members of an organization would be satisfied with the administrator, and how this affected their contentment (Cheng, 1993; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991), the results of this research showed a meaningful relationship between a supportive administrator and total stress of the instructors.

This result also confirms results from previous studies about the roles of administrators for creating a healthy, positive and effective school climate, where the teachers are happier, and where the teachers' motivation and commitment depends on the strategies which the administrators use in order to establish such a positive milieu (Campo, 1993; Pashiardis & Orphanou, 1999; Schein, 1992; Tarter, 1995).
That is to say, the behavious of supportive administrators who provide help and encouragement have impact on the occupational stress of the instructors. As a consequence, this fact has suggested a meaningful but negative linear relationship between the stressors and supportive administrators, which can be explained as a decrease in the instructors' occupational stress when they work with a supporting administrator.

This result is also consistent with the findings of other researchers who concluded that when the administrators set up a positive and effective school climate and culture, the teachers were happier, and that the teachers' motivation and commitment depended on the strategies which the administrators used in order to

establish such a positive milieu (Pashiardis & Orphanou, 1999; Campo, 1993; Tarter, 1995). Similarly, the data from a study that analyzed the relationships between supportive administrator and faculty indicated that supportive administrator, promoted trust among the faculty (Tarter, 1995). Such a supporting climate has also been meaningful in interpreting the communication between the administrators and the instructors, and among the instructors (Shadur, Kienzle, & Rodwell, 1999). Troisi (1983) reported that the supportive behavior of an administrator affected school climate and school outcomes with respect to occupational stress. Other researchers added the impact of supportive administrators on collegiality of the teachers (Peach & Reddick, 1989; Valentine & Bowman, 1988).

Although the results showed a negative linear relationship, the amount of work stress was a bit different for various stress sources and manifestations. For example, behavioral manifestation, time management, gastronomical manifestation, cardiovascular manifestation, and fatigue manifestation results had a low relationship (r= 0.20 - 0.25, p<0.05). These results were expressed as 'low' or 'medium' with reference to Fimian (1988). The correlation between 0.00 - .30 was considered as low, between 0.30- 0.60 medium, and 0.60 - 1.00 high. All of these indicated that the above-mentioned stressors were not affected by the supportive leadership of the administrator as much as work-related stressors, professional investment, discipline and motivation, emotional manifestations, professional-related stressors, and total stress points, (r= 0.30 - 0.59, p<0.05). Among these, professional-related stressors had the highest score (r= -0.51, p<0.05). Therefore, it seemed highly probable that when an administrator allowed the instructors to publicize their opinions and to have control over the decisions regarding their teaching and classroom practice, he eliminated job stress. Such administrators are referred to in the definition of a healthy school climate by Hoy and his colleagues, who have also pointed to the importance of taking part in decisions (Hoy & Tarter; 1997; Tarter, Sabo, & Hoy, 1995; Hoy, Smith, & Sweetland, 2002). Providing opportunities for intellectual stimulation and professional improvement also helped the instructors stay away from stress.

Accordingly, it can be said that Fimian and Fastenau (1990) tested many parameters which affect teacher stress, but the results of this study showed that some of these parameters were not very much affected by the supportive leadership of the administrator. This may be due to the differences between the target population of Fimian and Fastenau (1990) and the population in this study. In English departments,

usually the most experienced instructors are appointed as the administrators. Since they are experienced teachers and have worked with many administrators before, they are expected to know how to fulfil the administrative responsibilities and work in conformity with all the instructors. It is possible that they help the instructors to eliminate stress due to these conditions. As found by Cerit (2009), Oplatka (2004) and Knoop (1994), teachers expect their administrators to be trustable, effective and understanding, and they want to be cared, recognized and respected, all of which describe the supportive leadership style of the administrator. Considering these results, it can be concluded that the instructors who are working with supportive administrators find their school environment positive and professional, and they do not report occupational stress. In a workplace like the education industry where success is dependent upon teamwork, collaboration and good interpersonal relationships, the importance of a supportive administrator is indisputable in terms of avoiding stress in the workplace.

The second research question was *How does the restrictive leadership of the administrator predict occupational stress of the instructors?* The results of the correlation analysis indicated that there was a meaningful relationship among the predictor variables of Teacher Stress Inventory and Organizational Climate Index, namely between a restrictive administrator and occupational stress of the instructors (r= 0.45, p<0.05). This result can be explained as the presence of job stress of the instructors when they work with a restrictive administrator. When the instructors believed that the school environment was not healthy, lacked collegiality and order, they expected the administrator to handle these problems and felt that they were being limited in such a climate, which caused work stress. These anticipated results obtained from work-related and time-management stressors of TSI are consistent with the findings of Price (2012) who explained that the administrators' manner of acting, feeling and thinking shaped the organizational conditions, and affected the teachers' perception of their work climate. Some other studies have also reported similar results for occupational stress of the instructors regarding work-related conditions (Bowen & Schuster, 1986; Corcoran & Clark, 1984; Sorcinelli, 1985). On the other hand, an administrator is expected to help the instructors to do their teaching job in the best way possible, however, when he puts some limitations such as creating some problems related to time-management (Dinham & Scott, 1998; Kyriacou, 2001; Pithers & Soden, 1998), recognition (Mazur & Lynch (1989),

respect and motivation (LeFevre, Mathen, Kolt, 2003; Muthuvelayutham & Mohanasundaram, 2012; Blix, Cruise, Mitchell, & Blix, 1994), the instructors feel stressed. As expected, this correlational result was obtained from TSI regarding professional distress (r= 0.51, p<0.05), this result is consistent with other research results regarding the restrictions of the administrator (Fink, 1984; Jarvis, 1987; Turner & Boice, 1987).

In addition to professional distress, the study results revealed positive correlation for professional investment (r= 0.39, p<0.05). This meant that the instructors felt their personal opinions were not aired sufficiently, they lacked control about classroom or school matters, they were not motivated, and they did not have opportunities for professional improvement. Referring to the findings of Blase (2000), talking with teachers to promote reflection and encouraging professional growth may help the teachers to alleviate work stress. This finding is parallel to the result of Bredeson's (1989) study about work stress in which greater teacher empowerment and enhanced decision making was suggested for the administrators. Likewise, Zimmerman (2006) noted that a restrictive leader made the teachers feel devalued, disrespected and untrustworthy, and suggested communication between the administrator and the teachers to avoid such feelings. These results may indicate that teachers give importance to human characteristics such as emotions, and they want to be valued.

Apart from professional-related stressors, the study results showed occupational stress regarding the work-related stressors (r=0.51, p<0.05) when they had a restrictive administrator. They pointed that they did not have sufficient time to fulfill their responsibilities since there was too much work to do both for their class and for the administration. These findings were generally consistent with the study of Khan, Shah, Khan and Gul (2012) who concluded that teachers' performance was negatively influenced by stress contributing factors generated by the administrator. In the same manner, Richards (2012) found that when the teachers worked in a school climate where they felt restricted in their job, it was an ongoing challenge to balance their stresses so that they could find time both for their work and their personal life without losing their enthusiasm, idealism and sense of efficacy. Regarding the results of the study, it can be deduced that when an administrator caused the instructors to feel professionally distressed, or gave them so much work that they could not control

and manage their work and time, she brought about occupational stress, which prevented the instructors from working efficiently.

The findings about restrictive leadership of the administrator could be due to some limitations. The stress inventory which was used, measured the instructors' stress related to their occupation, however, due to some happenings such as daily routines, unexpected events or family matters, their stress level for that day may have been different, and this may have affected the survey results.

The third research question was *How does collegial teacher behavior predict occupational stress of the instructors?* The research results showed a meaningful relationship between a collegial teacher and total stress of the instructors. This meant that the instructors were affected positively when they worked all together and when everybody had equal share in the tasks and responsibilities. They were ambitious but at the same time they had respect for collegiality of their peers. All these indicated that the instructors were ready to become an active member in their department, to share the responsibilities of daily routine, and they were confident, which was consistent with the findings of Tarter (1995) who stated that teacher collegiality fostered trust among colleagues.

This fact demonstrated a meaningful but negative linear relationship between the stressors and collegial teacher behavior. This resulted in a decrease in the occupational stress of the instructors when they had colleagues who enjoyed working with each other, and were supportive of each other. This result was consistent with the findings of Hertzog, (2000) who stated that collegial teachers developed behaviors which supported the development of authentic collegiality in the schools. They participated in collaborative decision making, had pedagogical reflection, and they were ready to share their experiences with their colleagues. Their results showed that collegiality improved the organizational climate in the school. Similarly, Little (1982) found that collegiality was important in education and that, when the instructors valued and participated in norms of collegiality and continuous improvement, they pursued a greater range of professional interactions with their colleagues or administrators, including talk about instruction, structured observation, and shared planning or preparation. In another study, Hargreaves and Dawe (1990) stated that when there was collegial relationship in a school, this developed openness, trust and support among the instructors all of which promoted the growth of contentment. In the same line with Hargreaves and Dawe (1990), Clark (2001)

suggested building a collegial spirit within departments and faculties. He claimed that collegiality promoted a collective sense in the faculty that *we* would be responsible for the choices made and the achievements realized. By this way, the campus climate would become integrated around a sense of joint effort, which would end up with a happy, passionate and attached mood among the faculty. In the same line, other researchers have concluded that collegial support serves as an important source of intrinsic reward for teachers, and fosters a setting in which teachers can gain a sense of pedagogical renewal and growth through ongoing peer interaction (Feiman-Nemser & Floden, 1986; Little, 1987; Rosenholtz & Kyle, 1984).

Although the perception of collegial teacher behavior was negatively correlated with occupational stress experienced by the instructors, the amount of stress varied among the parameters of Teacher Stress Inventory. This showed that supportive teachers not only eliminated the occupational stress of their colleagues, but they also helped each other with regard to professional investment ($r = -0.50$, $p < 0.05$), discipline and motivation ($r = -0.41$, $p < 0.05$), professional-related stressors ($r = -0.45$, $p < 0.05$), and total stress scores ($r = -0.43$, $p < 0.05$). However, the results for the other parameters were low, which showed that the stressors and stress manifestations were not affected by collegial behavior of the instructors. Therefore, it was highly probable that in the departments where the research was conducted, the instructors had united for a common purpose which was to teach English to their students in the best way possible, and they were respecting each other.

The fourth research question was *How does indifferent teacher behavior predict occupational stress of the instructors?* The research results showed a meaningful relationship between indifferent teacher behavior, and occupational stress sources and stress manifestations ($r = 0.44$, $p < 0.05$). This signifies that the instructors were negatively affected when they worked with some colleagues who were in the school just 'to be present'. Such instructors do not join any activities if they do not have to, their manners are negative, and they are always ready to point out the faults of their colleagues. These expected results obtained from professional investment, professional distress, time management and work-related stressors of Teacher Stress Inventory are similar to the results of Bogler (2001) and Ostroff (1992) who claimed that an instructors' behavior depended on how he perceived his occupational environment, and that working with uninterested teachers would have negative

implications for the other teachers and administrators. Similarly, other researchers have found that the presence of indifferent teachers affect occupational stress and morale of their colleagues negatively, however, the opposite is true in the schools where the teachers interact with each other (Little, 1987; Ritter, Maugham, Mortimore, & Ouston, 1979; Templin, 1988).

On the other hand, Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter (2001) evaluated the relationship between occupational stress and disengagement from another perspective. They stated that when the instructors suffered from prolonged periods of job stress, they became detached from their colleagues and their responsibilities. This result has shown the importance of avoiding work stress of the instructors because stress not only causes an instructors' alienation but also results in other instructors' stress, as well. This finding correlates with Webb (1985) who has concluded that occupational stress has a powerful influence on the promotion of isolation, and lack of collegiality.

In addition to total stress scores, the study also showed medium level of stress relationship for the parameter related to professional investment (r=0.49, p<0.05) when they worked with indifferent colleagues. This can be interpreted as instructors feeling that they could not express their personal opinions sufficiently among their colleagues. That is to say, they believed the indifferent colleagues did not pay attention to their personal opinions. As Kelchtermans (1996) explained, professional relationships among the instructors contributed to the social recognition of their professional selves and, provided positive workplace conditions. When they worked in such an atmosphere, they would be pleased.

Not only the parameter for professional investment but also the parameters for time management, emotional manifestations and work-related manifestations had medium correlations as well (r= 0.33 - 0.35, p<0.05). This means, there is a moderate level of relationship between the stress teachers report, and working with indifferent teachers. This was probably because they thought they could control their individual work-related issues, feelings related to insecurity, depression and anxiousness, and their personal work-related problems but they could not do the same when they had to work with an indifferent colleague. Moreover, the other parameters of indifferent teacher behaviour showed a had low correlation for stress sources and manifestations (r= 0.13 - 0.29, p<0.05) meaning that indifferent teacher behavior was only mildly related with behavioural manifestations, discipline and motivation, gastronomical,

cardiovascular and fatigue manifestations. Related to indifferent teacher behaviour, Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978) claim that psychological factors like poor relationships with colleagues correlate with occupational stress. They explain that lack of social support of the colleagues is one of the important factors that affects teacher stress. The results of this study also revealed some kind of stress, however, it was medium-level stress. This may be due to the different populations since Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978) conducted their research in the USA. Instructors in the English departments of the universities where the research was conducted may have different beliefs or perceptions regarding indifferent teacher behaviour. Similarly, Boyle, Borg, Falzon and Baglioni (1995) did not claim any casual relationships between poor colleague relations and teacher stress in their research conducted in the Gozo and Malta islands.

In the faculties an indifferent instructor may not affect the relationships among the other faculty members. However the case is different in English departments because in the preparatory schools, the instructors usually work in pairs or groups. This means that one class of students may have two or three instructors to teach language, writing, and/or speaking. These instructors have to work in unity and collaboration with each other since they have to follow course components of the curriculum. For this reason, working in harmony is important for them and for the same reasons, working with a indifferent teacher causes occupational stress.

Apart from supportive and restrictive administrator, and collegial and indifferent teacher behavior, openness of the administrators and the teachers have been found to be the predictors of occupational stress of the instructors. Administrators' openness has exerted significant influence on professional investment (β= -0.39, p=0.000), behavioral manifestation (β= -0.226, p=0.001), time management (β= -0.132, p=0.081), emotional manifestation (β= -0.28, p=0.000), gastronomical manifestation (β= -0.219, p=0.002), cardiovascular manifestation (β= -0.213, p=0.001), and professional distress (β= -0.179, p=0.005). This indicates that when the administrators provide an open climate in the school, the instructors refrain from the aforementioned stress sources and stress manifestations. Similarly, teachers' openness has exerted significant influence on professional investment (β= -0.281, p=0.000) and cardiovascular manifestation (β= -0.131, p=0.046) which signifies that when there is an open climate provided by the instructors, their

colleagues feel better about their profession, and do not suffer from cardiovascular problems.

5.2 Recommendations for Practice

Meeting the needs of employees to improve work performance has been an aspect of leadership, which has been researched since the Hawthorne studies (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1999). The understanding of the school climate may contribute to avoiding the English instructors' occupational stress due to its characteristics such as developing, supporting, helping and providing support for the instructors, and improving their work performance. Taking into consideration the findings of this study that a healthy school climate has a positive effect to prevent job stress, it can be said that administrators should aim to behave professionally and create a prosperous school climate in order to keep occupational stress away from the instructors. Related to this, Bryk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu and Easton (2010) claim that positive relationships do matter and lead to corresponding commitment, sense of community and social cohesion of the instructors, all of which contribute to the avoidance of occupational stress.

While not being subjected to stress contributes to ensuring the effective work of the instructors, being under the effect of occupational stress causes negative situations such as emotional manifestations like feeling insecure, vulnerable, unable to cope, depressed or anxious. Such instructors also respond to job stress by postponing the things to do, and physical exhaustion or weakness. In addition, they usually suffer from cardiovascular and gastronomical problems, and sometimes they may try to find solution by using drugs or alcohol (Çetinkanat, 2002; Evans & Johnson, 1990; Rahim & Afza, 1993; Igbaria & Guimaraes, 1999). For this reason, administrators should make an effort to improve the instructors' contentment to ensure that they carry out educational activities more effectively and thereby improve their intrinsic job satisfaction. When the instructors work in a positive environment, when they are allowed to take part in decision-making, when they have autonomy, and when they are respected, this environment becomes trustable and they have self-esteem. It can be observed that the features which help the instructors to avoid their occupational stress are consistent with the factors of an administrator as a leader who shares power, considers the needs of the people he is working with, helps them to

develop themselves professionally, and perform their duties as successfully as possible. In this respect, it can be said that the administrators should be the leaders to contribute to the effective work of instructors.

In addition to administrators becoming leaders, instructors should also be trained so that they can deal with the stressful aspects of their job. Improving interactions between the colleagues to enhance human relations and collegial support may also be useful, and this can be provided by the positive influence of the administrator. In this study, positive behavior of the administrator has been found influential to help the instructors lessen their occupational stress. All these demonstrate that when the instructors share responsibilities with their colleagues, they have a positive atmosphere which helps them refrain from occupational stress, which has also been supported by the results of this study. The behaviors of both administrators and instructors contribute to the healthy climate of schools, and building mutual trust and respect, and being concerned about each other's welfare can have powerful effects on the interpersonal relationships of both administrators and instructors. When strong social relations are built among the instructors, they know each other well, socialize together regularly, and as a result provide a powerful support for each other. All these may help eliminate the instructors becoming disengaged.

Apart from suggestions for building a powerful social atmosphere, the results of this study may also be evaluated in terms of developing educational administrators and policies. In the English departments, the administrators are appointed by the Director of School of Foreign Languages. Taking into consideration the fact that they do not have any education on administration, it can be said that the department heads perform administrative activities with their teaching qualifications. Yet, being a department head requires qualifications other than teaching qualifications. When the results of this study are examined, it is observed that behaviors of the administrators such as allowing sufficient time to prepare for the responsibilities, avoiding too much work or unnecessary administrative paperwork, sharing decision-making, providing help for professional improvement and advancement, and recognition result in the instructors' keeping away from occupational stress, and as a result positively affects their performance. For this reason, the administrators should be educated in a way to acquire the ability to establish a healthy organizational climate to avoid work stress, and as a result to facilitate the instructors' professional lives.

5.3 Recommendations for Further Research

The results of this study are limited to the opinions of the instructors in two state and three foundation universities in Ankara where the research data were obtained. Although this study reveals evidence that shows the relationship between the organizational climate and instructors' occupational stress, the results reflect the characteristics and perceptions of the individuals working in the English departments where the research was conducted. For this reason, studies carried out in different cities and universities are needed for the generalization of the results obtained in this research. Hence, it is recommended that research on the relationship between organizational climate and instructors notion of occupational stress should also be carried out in different places in order to have a better insight about the topic.

Moreover, this study was designed as a quantitative research, however, qualitative research methods could also be used. All the research data was obtained through the questionnaires, which limited the strength of the study because the participants did not have the chance to define their opinions and/or explain their answers, which could add valuable information to the data. Future studies could benefit from including open-ended questions in addition to the preselected, fixed responses using Likert scale. Moreover, instructors' views regarding possible additional parameters such as the relationships among occupational stress, school climate, and job satisfaction could be obtained through interviews with them.

Furthermore, the participants of the study were working on either state or foundation universities. Out of the five universities, four of them are English-medium and one of them was partially English-medium such that, only 30% of the courses in some of the faculties was in English. Since the study was conducted in the English departments, the above-mentioned topic is important because the instructors are expected to teach more effectively and efficiently in English-medium universities, which may have an effect on their job stress. However, the university being English-medium or Turkish-medium was not included in the study as a variable. Hence, this variable needs to be explored in further studies.

On the other hand, timing of data collection may have been a limitation regarding content. Data was collected in June when it was a hectic time period. The instructors were reading and grading homework assignments, projects and exam papers, and at the same time, they were completing end-of-academic year

procedures. Since this period may have affected their stress levels, further studies should consider timing of data collection.

Additionally, there are different scheduling policies for English instructors in the universities. In some universities, the instructors teach the same students throughout the academic year, or for one semester. In some other universities, the instructors start teaching a new group of students every eight weeks, which may influence their work stress. For this reason, the impact of this variable should also be investigated.

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APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS / DEMOGRAFİK SORULAR

1. Cinsiyetiniz: K ☐   E ☐

2. Yaşınız: 23-28☐   29-33☐   33-43☐   44+☐

3. Bu meslekteki toplam çalışma yılınız: 1-5☐   6-10☐   11-20☐   20+☐

4. Bu üniversitedeki toplam çalışma yılınız: 1-5☐   6-10☐   11-20☐   20+☐

APPENDIX B

TURKISH VERSION OF OCI / ÖRGÜTSEL İKLİM ÖLÇEĞİ

Açıklama: Bu bölümde yer alan ifadeler arasında doğru ya da yanlış yoktur. Lütfen, aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatle okuyarak, her ifadenin sizin durumunuzu yansıtma derecesini karşısındaki seçeneklerden uygun olanı işaretleyerek belirtiniz. Sizden, her ifadeyi yanıtlarken sizin duygu ve düşüncelerinizi (durumunuzu) yansıtmasına özen göstermeniz beklenmektedir. Burada önemli olan sizin görüşlerinizdir. Yapacağınız işaretlemelerde göstereceğiniz samimiyet ölçme aracının başarısını yükseltecektir. Anketi yanıtlamak için zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederim.

Ölçek

1. Nadiren olur
2. Bazen olur
3. Genellikle olur
4. Çok sık olur

Açıklama: Bu bölümde yer alan ifadeler arasında doğru ya da yanlış yoktur. Lütfen, aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatle okuyarak, her ifadenin sizin durumunuzu yansıtma derecesini karşısındaki seçeneklerden uygun olanı işaretleyerek belirtiniz. Sizden, her ifadeyi yanıtlarken sizin duygu ve düşüncelerinizi (durumunuzu) yansıtmasına özen göstermeniz beklenmektedir. Burada önemli olan sizin görüşlerinizdir. Yapacağınız işaretlemelerde göstereceğiniz samimiyet ölçme aracının başarısını yükseltecektir. Anketi yanıtlamak için zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederim.				
	Ölçek			
	1. Nadiren olur 2. Bazen olur 3. Genellikle olur 4. Çok sık olur			
Bu okulda				
Okul müdürü öğretmenlere her zaman yardım etmek ister ………………………………………				
Okul müdürü yapıcı eleştiriler yapar …………………………………………				
Okul müdürü, öğretmenleri eleştirdiğinde nedenlerini de açıklar ……………………………………….				
Okul müdürü öğretmenlerin önerilerini önemser. ………………………………………				
Okul müdürü, öğretmenlerin kişisel mutluluğuna özen gösterir ………………………………………				
Okul müdürü, öğretmenlere eşit davranır …………………………………………				
Okul müdürü, öğretmenlere hoş sözler söyler. ………………………………………				
Okul müdürünü anlamak kolaydır …………………………………………				

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	Okul müdürü öğretmenlere değer verdiğini, her fırsatta hissettirir..									
0	Okul müdürü, okulu demir bir yumrukla yönetir									0
1	Okul müdürü, öğretmenlerin okula zamanında gelip gelmediğini sürekli denetler (imza sirküsü vb.)									1
2	Okul müdürü, öğretmenlerin sınıf içi etkinliklerini sıkı bir şekilde kontrol eder									2
3	Okul müdürü, öğretmenleri sıkı bir şekilde denetler									3
4	Okul müdürü, ders planlarını kontrol eder									4
5	Okul müdürü, otokratiktir									5
6	Okul müdürü, öğretmenlerin yaptığı her şeyi takip eder									6
7	Okuldaki rutin görevlerin çokluğu, eğitim-öğretim işlerini aksatır									7
8	Öğretmenlerin ders dışı çok fazla görevi (komisyon üyeliği vb.) vardır									8
9	Okul yönetimince istenilen kırtasiye işleri (bürokratik işler), öğretmenlerin sırtında yüktür									9
0	Okuldaki memurların desteği, öğretmenlerin kırtasiyecilik yükünü azaltır									0
1	Öğretmenler iş yoğunluğundan bunalırlar									1
2	Öğretmeler, diğer öğretmenlerle yakın arkadaştırlar									2
3	Öğretmenler, okuldaki arkadaşlarını evlerine davet ederler...									3
4	Öğretmenler, okuldaki meslektaşlarının ailelerini tanırlar									4
5	Öğretmenler okul süresince sosyalleşerek hoş vakit geçirirler									5
6	Öğretmenler eğlenmek için bir araya gelirler									6
7	Öğretmenler düzenli bir şekilde sosyalleşirler (kaynaşırlar)									7
8	Öğretmenler meslektaşları için güçlü sosyal destek sağlarlar									8
	Öğretmenler görevlerini zevkle yerine getirirler									

#										#
9	…………………………………………………									9
0	Öğretmenler dersler biter bitmez okulu terk ederler ………………………………………………									0
1	Öğretmenlerin çoğu, meslektaşlarının hatalarına karşı hoşgörülüdür. …………………………………									1
2	Öğretmenler birbirlerine destek olurlar ……………………………………………………..									2
3	Öğretmenler okulları ile gurur duyarlar ……………………………………………………..									3
4	Okula yeni gelen öğretmenler, diğer meslektaşlarınca kolay kabul görürler ………………………………									4
5	Öğretmenler, meslektaşlarının yeterliliğine saygı duyarlar …………………………………									5
6	Yapılan toplantılar yararsızdır …………………………………………………………									6
7	Çoğunluğa muhalefet eden, azınlık bir grup her zaman olur. …………………………………….									7
8	Öğretmenler, kurallara uymayan meslektaşlarına grup baskısı uygularlar ……………………………									8
9	Öğretmenler, toplantılarda konuyu amacından uzaklaştırırlar. ………………………………									9

TURKISH VERSION OF TSI / ÖĞRETİM GÖREVLİSİ STRES ENVANTERİ

Ölçek

1 = Hiçbir zaman

2 = Bazen

3 = Çoğunlukla

4 = Sıklıkla

5 = Her zaman

	Derslerimi hazırlamak/sorumluluklarımı yerine getirmek için az zamanım oluyor.					
	Zaman kısıtlılığından dolayı kişisel önceliklerimden taviz veriyorum.					
	İş yüküm çok fazla.					
	Ders yüküm çok fazla/sınıfım çok büyük/sınıf adedim çok					
	Okul gününün temposu çok hızlı.					
	İşimde çok fazla idari/bürokratik kağıt işi gerekiyor.					
	Terfi ve/veya ilerleme fırsatlarından yoksunum.					
	İşimde istediğim kadar hızlı ilerleyemiyorum.					
	İşimde daha çok mevki ve saygıya ihtiyacım var.					
	Yaptığım ek işler/iyi eğitim farkedilmiyor.					
	Kişisel görüşlerim yeterince duyulmuyor.					
	Yaptığım iş için yetersiz maaş alıyorum.					
	Sınıfla/okulla ilgili konularda kararlar alınırken katkım olmuyor.					
	İşimde duygusal/zihinsel olarak hevesli/istekli değilim.					
	Mesleki gelişme fırsatlarından mahrumum.					
	Öğrenci davranışını kontrol etmek zorunda olmak üzerimde engelleyici etki yaratıyor.					
	Sınıfımdaki disiplin problemleri üzerimde engelleyici etki yaratıyor.					
	Motivasyonu düşük öğrencilere ders vermeye çalışmak üzerimde engelleyici etki yaratıyor.					
	Kendimi kötü hissediyorum çünkü bazı öğrenciler daha çok çalışsalar başarabilirler.					
	Yetersiz tanımlanmış disiplin kuralları üzerimde engelleyici etki yaratıyor.					
	Otoritemin öğrenciler/yönetim tarafından reddedilmesi üzerimde engelleyici etki yaratıyor.					

		Strese karşı tepkim kendimi güvensiz hissetmek şeklinde oluyor.					
		Strese karşı tepkim başa çıkamamak şeklinde oluyor.					
		Strese karşı tepkim kendimi savunmasız hissetmek şeklinde oluyor.					
		Strese karşı tepkim kendimi çökmüş hissetmek şeklinde					
		Strese karşı tepkim kendimi kaygılı hissetmek şeklinde oluyor.					
		Strese karşı tepkim okula hasta olduğumu bildirmek şeklinde oluyor.					
		Stres karşısında reçeteli ilaca başvuruyorum.					
		Strese karşı tepkim reçetesiz ilaçlar kullanmak şeklinde oluyor.					
		Strese karşı tepkim hızlı ve/veya hafif nefes alıp vermek şeklinde oluyor.					
		Strese karşı tepkim alkol kullanmak şeklinde oluyor.					
		Strese karşı tepkim tansiyonumun yükselmesi şeklinde oluyor.					
		Strese karşı tepkim kalp çarpıntısı veya yüksek nabız şeklinde					
		Strese uzun süren mide ağrıları ile tepki veriyorum.					
		Strese midemde krampların oluşmasıyla tepki veriyorum.					
		Strese bitkinlik hissederek tepki veriyorum.					
		Strese fiziksel zayıflık hissederek tepki veriyorum.					
		Strese karşı tepkim çok kısa sürede yorgunluk hissetmek şeklinde oluyor.					
		Strese fazla mide asidi salgılayarak tepki veriyorum.					
		Strese karşı tepkim alışılmıştan daha fazla uyumak şeklinde oluyor.					
		Strese karşı tepkim işleri geciktirmek şeklinde oluyor.					
		Konuşmamı hızlandırıyorum/hızlı konuşuyorum.					
		İşleri bitirmek için yeterince zaman yok.					
		Aynı anda birden fazla şey yapmaya çalışmalıyım.					
		Başkaları işleri yavaş yaptığında sabırsız oluyorum.					
		Rahatlamak ve günün tadını çıkarmak için az zamanım oluyor.					
		Kendimi işe gereğinden fazla kolayca adıyorum.					
		Sohbet sırasında alakasız konular düşünürüm.					
		Boşa zaman harcamak beni rahatsız eder.					

APPENDIX D

Permission Letter from Yılmaz Altınkurt

08 Mayıs 2013

Sayın Ersin SOYLU

Yapacağınız tez çalışmanızda kullanma izni talep ettiğiniz Örgüt İklimi Ölçeğini, tez çalışmanızda ve bundan sonra yapacağınız çalışmalarda kullanma iznine sahipsiniz.

Çalışmalarınızda başarılar dilerim.

Doç. Dr. Kürşad YILMAZ

İletişim:
Eğitim Bilimleri Araştırmaları Dergisi-EBAD
Journal of Educational Sciences Research-JESR
Editör
Doç. Dr. Kürşad YILMAZ
Dumlupınar Üniversitesi
Eğitim Fakültesi Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü
Merkez Kampus KÜTAHYA
Telefon: 0 274 265 20 31 / 4572
Faks: 0 274 265 20 57
Web: http://ebad-jesr.com/

APPENDIX E

Permission Letter from Zeynep Kızıltepe

Faks: 0 312 266 4227

20.05.2013

Sayın Ersin Soylu

Yapacağınız tez çalışmanızda kullanma izni talep ettiğiniz Fimian'ın Öğretmen Stres Ölçeği'nin Türkçeye uyarlanmış halini, tez çalışmanızda ve bundan sonra yapacağınız çalışmalarda kullanma iznine sahipsiniz.

Çalışmalarınızda başarılar dilerim.

Doç. Dr. Zeynep Kızıltepe

Boğaziçi Üniversitesi
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APPENDIX F

Consent Letter From METU Human Subjects Ethics Committee

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

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www.ueam.metu.edu.tr

Sayı: 28620816/186 – 468

22 Mayıs 2013

Gönderilen: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Gökçe Gökalp
              Eğitim Bilimleri

Gönderen : Prof. Dr. Canan Özgen
             IAK Başkanı

İlgi   : Etik Onayı

Danışmanlığını yapmış olduğunuz Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü Doktora öğrencisi Ersin Soylu'nun "İşyeri ortamindaki profesyonellik algısının, İngilizce öğretim görevlileri ve okutmanlarının iş stresine etkisi üzerine bir çalışma (A study on the role of perceptions of professionalism of the organizational climate on the occupational stress of English instructors)" isimli araştırması "İnsan Araştırmaları Komitesi" tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Etik Komite Onayı

Uygundur

22/05/2013

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

APPENDIX G

CONSENT FORM / Gönüllü Katılım Bilgilenme Formu

Değerli Meslekdaşlarım,

Bu çalışma, ODTÜ, Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü'nde doktora tezi için yapılmakta ve işyeri ortamındaki profesyonellik algısının, İngilizce öğretim görevlileri/okutmanlarının iş stresine etkisini araştırmaktadır. Eğitim kurumlarının amacı bireylerin kişisel ve profesyonel gelişimini sağlamaktır ama eğiticilerin yaşadığı iş ve yönetim ile ilgili stres, profesyonel verimleri üzerinde olumsuz etki yapmaktadır (Miller, 1998; Kyriacou, 1989; Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua & Stough, 2001). Bu araştırmanın sonucu, iş stresi ve örgüt iklimindeki profesyonellik arasındaki ilişkiyi analiz etmesi açısından önemlidir.

Katılımcılardan, üç adet anket doldurmaları istenecektir. Birinci ankette demografik bilgiler ve öğretim görevlisi/okutman olarak çalışma süresi ile ilgili sorular, ikinci ankette Yılmaz ve Altınkurt (2013) tarafından Türkçe'leştirilmiş ve güvenirlik testleri yapılmış olan, 39 sorudan oluşan "Örgütsel İklim Ölçeği" uygulanacaktır. Son olarak, Kızıltepe (2007) tarafından Türkçe'leştirilmiş ve güvenirlik testleri yapılmış olan, 49 sorudan oluşan "Öğretmen Stres Envanteri" uygulanacaktır.

Birinci anket yaklaşık 2 dakika, ikinci anket yaklaşık 10 dakika ve üçüncü anket de yaklaşık 10 dakika alacak, araştırmanın toplam süresi yaklaşık 25 dakika olacaktır.

Öğretim görevlileri/okutmanlar bu çalışmaya katılarak, yaşadıkları iş stresi ve kendi örgüt iklimlerindeki profesyonellik anlayışları ile ilgili fikirlerini belirtme olanağı bulacaklardır. Ayrıca, araştırmacı elde ettiği sonuçları katılımcılarla paylaşacaktır. Bilgileriniz imzali onayınız alındıktan sonra kullanılacak ve kesinlikle gizli kalacaktır. İsminiz hiçbir belgeye yazılmayacak ve elde edilen bilgiler sadece iş stresi ve örgüt iklimindeki profesyonellik arasındaki ilişkiyi analiz etmek çin kullanılacaktır.

Ben, _____ bu çalışmaya katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

     (Adınız ve soyadınız)

İmza :_____   Tarih:

_____

ORIGINAL COPY OF OCI

OCI

Directions: The following are statements about your school, Please indicate the extent to which each statement characterizes your school from **rarely occurs** to **very frequently occurs.**

	Rarely Occurs	Sometimes Occurs	Often Occurs	Very Frequently Occurs
1. The principal explores all sides of topics and admits that other opinions exist.	①	②	③	④
2. A few vocal parents can change school policy.	①	②	③	④
3. The principal treats all faculty members as his or her equal.	①	②	③	④
4. The learning environment is orderly and serious.	①	②	③	④
5. The principal is friendly and approachable.	①	②	③	④
6. Select citizens groups are influential with the board.	①	②	③	④
7. The school sets high standards for academic performance.	①	②	③	④
8. Teachers help and support each other.	①	②	③	④
9. The principal responds to pressure from parents.	①	②	③	④
10. The principal lets faculty know what is expected of them.	①	②	③	④
11. Students respect others who get good grades.	①	②	③	④
12. Teachers feel pressure from the community.	①	②	③	④
13. The principal maintains definite standards of performance.	①	②	③	④
14. Teachers in this school believe that their students have the ability to achieve academically.	①	②	③	④
15. Students seek extra work so they can get good grades.	①	②	③	④
16. Parents exert pressure to maintain high standards.	①	②	③	④
17. Students try hard to improve on previous work.	①	②	③	④
18. Teachers accomplish their jobs with enthusiasm.	①	②	③	④
19. Academic achievement is recognized and acknowledged by the school.	①	②	③	④
20. The principal puts suggestions made by the faculty into operation.	①	②	③	④
21. Teachers respect the professional competence of their colleagues.	①	②	③	④
22. Parents press for school improvement.	①	②	③	④
23. The interactions between faculty members are cooperative.	①	②	③	④
24. Students in this school can achieve the goals that have been set for them.	①	②	③	④
25. Teachers in this school exercise professional judgment.	①	②	③	④
26. The school is vulnerable to outside pressures.	①	②	③	④
27. The principal is willing to make changes.	①	②	③	④
28. Teachers "go the extra mile" with their students.	①	②	③	④
29. Teachers provide strong social support for colleagues.	①	②	③	④
30. Teachers are committed to their students.	①	②	③	④

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APPENDIX I

ORIGINAL COPY OF TSI (Fimian and Fastenau, 1990)

The following are a number of teacher concerns. Please identify those factors which cause you stress in your present position. Read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. Then, indicate how strong the feeling is when you experience it by circling the appropriate rating on the 5-point scale. If you have not experienced this feeling, or if the item is inappropriate for your position, circle number 1 (no strength; not noticeable). The rating scale is shown at the top of each page.

Examples:

I feel insufficiently prepared for my job.   1 2 3 4 5

If you feel very strongly that you are insufficiently prepared for your job, You would circle number 5.

I feel that if I step back in either effort or   1 2 3 4 5
commitment, I may be seen as less competent.

If you never feel this way, and the feeling does not have noticeable strength, you would circle number 1.

_____

How strong?	1	2	3	4	5
	No strength Not noticeable	Mild Strength Barely Noticeable	Medium Strength Moderately Not.	Great Strength Very Noticeable	Major Strength Extremely Not.

TIME MANAGEMENT

1. I easily over-commit myself.	1 2 3 4 5
2. I become impatient if others are doing things slowly.	1 2 3 4 5
3. I have to try doing more than 1 thing at a time.	1 2 3 4 5
4. I have little time to relax/enjoy the day.	1 2 3 4 5
5. I think about unrelated matters during conversations.	1 2 3 4 5
6. I feel uncomfortable wasting time.	1 2 3 4 5
7. There isn't enough time to get things done.	1 2 3 4 5
8. I rush in my speech.	1 2 3 4 5

WORK RELATED STRESSORS

9. There is little time to prepare for my lessons/ responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5
10. There is too much work to do.	1	2	3	4	5
11. The pace of the school day is too fast.	1	2	3	4	5
12. My caseload/class is too big.	1	2	3	4	5
13. My personal priorities are being shortchanged	1	2	3	4	5
14. There is too much administrative paperwork in my job.	1	2	3	4	5

How Strong?	1	2	3	4	5
	No strength Not noticeable	Mild Strength Barely noticeable	Medium Strength Moderately Not.	Great strength Very noticeable	Major Strength Extremely Not.

PROFESSIONAL DISTRESS

15. I lack promotion and/or advancement opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I am not progressing in my job as rapidly as I would like.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I need more status and respect on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I received an inadequate salary for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I lack recognition for the extra work and/or the good teaching I do.	1	2	3	4	5

DISCIPLINE AND MOTIVATION

I feel frustrated….

20. …because of discipline problems in my classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
21. …having to monitor pupil behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
22. …because some students would do better if they tried.	1	2	3	4	5
23. …attempting to teach students who are poorly motivated.	1	2	3	4	5
24. …because of inadequate/poorly defined discipline problems.	1	2	3	4	5
25. …when my authority is rejected by pupils/ administrators.	1	2	3	4	5

PROFESSIONAL INVESTMENT

26. My personal opinions are not sufficiently aired.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I lack control over decisions made about classroom/school matters	1	2	3	4	5
28. I am not emotionally/intellectually stimulated on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I lack opportunities for professional improvement	1	2	3	4	5

EMOTIONAL MANIFESTATIONS

I respond to stress…

30. …by feeling insecure.		1	2	3	4	5
31. …by feeling vulnerable.		1	2	3	4	5
32. …by feeling unable to cope.		1	2	3	4	5
33. …by feeling depressed.		1	2	3	4	5
34. …by feeling anxious.		1	2	3	4	5

How Strong?	1	2	3	4	5
	No strength Not noticeable	Mild Strength Barely noticeable	Medium Strength Moderately Not.	Great strength Very noticeable	Major Strength Extremely Not.

FATIGUE MANIFESTATIONS

I respond to stress…

35. by sleeping more than usual.	1	2	3	4	5
36. by procrastinating.					
37. by becoming fatigued in a very short time.	1	2	3	4	5
38. with physical exhaustion.	1	2	3	4	5
39. with physical weakness.	1	2	3	4	5

CARDIOVASCULAR MANIFESTATIONS

I respond to stress…

40. with feelings of increased blood pressure.	1	2	3	4	5
41. with feelings of heart pounding or racing.	1	2	3	4	5
42. with rapid or shallow breath.	1	2	3	4	5

GASTRONOMICAL MANIFESTATIONS

I respond to stress…

43. with stomach pain of extended duration.	1	2	3	4	5
44. with stomach cramps.	1	2	3	4	5
45. with stomach acid.	1	2	3	4	5

BEHAVIORAL MANIFESTATIONS

I respond to stress…

46. by using over the counter drugs.	1	2	3	4	5
47. by using prescriptions drugs.	1	2	3	4	5
48. by using alcohol.	1	2	3	4	5
49. by calling in sick.	1	2	3	4	5

For investigator use only:
Total Score:

APPENDIX J

PHOTOCOPY CONSENT FORM / TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü	☐
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü	**X**
Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü	☐
Enformatik Enstitüsü	☐
Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü	☐

YAZARIN

Soyadı : Şiray Soylu
Adı   : Ersin
Bölümü : Eğitim Fakültesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) : Relationship between the organizational climate and occupational stress experienced by English instructors in the Preparatory Schools of Five Universities in Ankara

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans   Doktora **X**

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.   **X**

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

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

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ:

CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Surname, Name: Soylu Şiray, Ersin

Nationality: Turkish (TC)

Date and Place of Birth: 12 February 1957, Sapanca

Marital Status: Married

Phone: +90 312 235 65 25

email: esoylu@bilkent.edu.tr

EDUCATION

Degree	Institution	Year of Graduation
EAP Diploma	Bilkent University	2008
MA	Hacettepe University, Counseling and Guidance	1983
BA	Hacettepe University, English Language and Literature	1979
High School	TED Ankara College	1975

WORK EXPERIENCE

Year	Place	Enrollment
2000-Present	Bilkent University BUSEL, FAE	Instructor
1979-2000	Hacettepe University English Preparatory School	Instructor

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Advanced English, Average German

PUBLICATIONS

1. Soylu, E., 1991, *Teaching English To Students of Business Administration.* METU

2. ELT Convention Abstracts Book, p. 13.

3. Soylu, E., 1992, *How To Put Our Students At Ease In Class.* METU ELT Spring Convention Abstracts Book, p. 15.

4. Soylu, E., 1992, *Approaches to ESP: Using The Communicative Approach.* The Second International Conference on ELT and Teacher Training in the 1990 Abstracts Book, p. 5.

5. Soylu, E., 1996, *Yaratici Bir Çocuk Yetistirme*. Translated from C. Mac Gregor, *Raising a Creative Child*. Papirus Yayinlari, 130 p.

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12. Soylu, E. June 2003. *Using Films in the Language Classroom.* Proceedings of the 2nd International Balkan ELT Conference.

13. Soylu, E & Gökalp, G. (2013). 8. Ulusal Eğitim Yönetimi Kongresi – Bildiri Özetleri, s. 205-206.

HOBBIES

Turkish Classical Music, Cooking,

APPENDIX L

TURKISH SUMMARY

Örgüt iklimi ile Ankara'daki beş üniversitede çalışan İngilizce öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların algıladıkları iş stresinin ilişkisi

Giriş:

Stres, kişinin değişen ortama ve bununla birlikte gelen taleplere uyum sorununun sonucu olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır. Rok (2011) gerek öğretim görevlilerinin, gerekse yöneticilerin yaşamlarındaki stresin farkında olduklarını ve başa çıkmak için çeşitli teknikler uyguladıklarını, ancak örgütlerin bu durumdan haberdar olmadıklarını dahası, stresin nedenlerini kendilerinin yarattığını söylemektedir. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998) ise öğretim görevlilerinin iş streslerinin nedenleri, meslektaşlar arası güven, profesyonellik algısı ve iş tatmini ile ilgili konularda birçok araştırma yapılmış olmasına karşın, yöneticilerin ve okul ikliminin bu sorunlara nasıl katkıda bulunduğu ile ilgili fazla araştırma olmadığını iddia etmişlerdir. Armour ve çalışma arkadaşları (1987) stresin öğretim görevlilerinin eğitim ve araştırma kalitesini, iş tatminlerini ve işe bağlılıklarını etkilediğini, ve bu durumun öğrencilere de yansıyabileceğini söylemişlerdir. Bu bağlamda Markham (1999) ikinci dil olarak İngilizce eğitim veren öğretim görevlilerini incelemiş, bu konuda çok az araştırma olduğunu belirtmiş, araştırmasının sonunda da, bu alanda eğitim veren öğretim görevlilerinin ne tür sorunlarla başa çıkmak zorunda olduklarını anlamak için araştırma yapılmasını önermiştir. Tüm bunlardan da anlaşılacağı gibi, çalışanların iş tatmini, davranış ve performansları ile ilgili birçok araştırma olmasına karşın, öğretim görevlilerinin iş stresi ve örgüt ikliminin bu strese ne gibi bir katkısı olduğu konusunda bir araştırmaya gereksinim olmuştur. Bu çalışmanın amacı da, örgüt iklimi ile Ankara'daki beş üniversitede çalışan İngilizce öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların algıladıkları iş stresinin ilişkisini araştırmaktır. Araştırmacı iş stresinin nedenleri ve stresin örgüt iklimi ile olan ilişkisinde yöneticinin destekleyici

veya kısıtlayıcı davranışları, ve birlikte çalıştığı öğretim görevlilerinin işbirlikçi veya umursamaz davranışlarının, öğretim görevlileri/okutmanların iş stresi ile olan ilişkisi üzerinde durmaktadır. Araştırma soruları ve hipotezler şöyledir;

o Bölüm başkanının destekleyici liderliği ile öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların örgüt iklimindeki iş stresini algılamaları arasında nasıl bir ilişki vardır?

Hipotez: Bölüm başkanının destekleyici liderliği ile öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların örgüt iklimindeki iş stresini algılamaları arasında önemli bir ilişki vardır.

o Bölüm başkanının emredici ve/veya kısıtlayıcı liderliği ile öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların örgüt iklimindeki iş stresini algılamaları arasında nasıl bir ilişki vardır?

Hipotez: Bölüm başkanının emredici ve/veya kısıtlayıcı liderliği ile öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların örgüt iklimindeki iş stresini algılamaları arasında önemli bir ilişki vardır.

o Birlikte çalıştıkları meslektaşlarının işbirlikçi davranışları ile, öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların iş stresini algılamaları arasında nasıl bir ilişki vardır?

Hipotez: İşbirlikçi meslektaşlarla birlikte çalışmak, öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların örgüt iklimindeki iş stresini algılamalarında önemlidir.

o Birlikte çalıştıkları meslektaşlarının umursamaz davranışları ile, öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların örgüt iklimindeki iş stresini algılamaları arasında nasıl bir ilşki vardır?

Hipotez: Aynı yerde çalışan öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların ortak yapılması gereken işler ve alınması gereken sorumluluklardan kaçınmaları ve bu işlerle ilgilenmemeleri, öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların örgüt iklimindeki iş stresini algılamalarında önemlidir.

Yöntem:

Araştırmada deneysel olmayan nicel desen (non-experimental quantitative research) uygulanamış, regresyon analizi yapılarak öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların algıladıkları iş stresi ile örgüt iklimi arasındaki ilişkisi araştırılmıştır.

Değişkenler: Örgüt iklimi bağımsız değişken olup, öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların örgüt iklimini nasıl algıladıklarını göstermektedir ve sürekli değişkendir. Ölçek olarak, Hoy ve Tarter (1997) tarafından düzenlenen, ve Yılmaz ve Altınkurt (2013) tarafından Türkçe'ye çevirilip geçerlilik ve güvenirlik testleri yapılmış olan Örgüt İklimi Ölçeği (Organizational Climate Index-OCI)

kullanılmıştır. Ölçekte, yönetici ve öğretmen davranışları ile ilgili altı adet alt parametre vardır. Bu alt parametreler destekleyici, emredici ve kısıtlayıcı yönetici davranışları ile işbirlikçi, samimi ve umursamaz öğretmen davranışlarını içermektedir. 39 sorudan oluşan dörtlü likert ölçeğinde aralıklar 'nadiren olur' (1) ve 'çok sık olur' (4) arasında değişmektedir.

İş stresi bağımsız ve sürekli değişkendir. Ölçek olarak, Fimian ve Fastenau (1990) tarafından geliştirilen ve Kızıltepe (2007) tarafından Türkçe'ye çevirilip, geçerlilik ve güvenirlik testleri yapılmış olan Stres Envanteri (Teacher Stress Inventory -TSI) kullanılmıştır. 49 sorudan oluşan beşli likert ölçeğinde aralıklar 'hiçbir zaman' (1) ve 'her zaman' (5) arasında değişmektedir.

Katılımcılar: İnternet kaynaklarından alınan bilgiye göre, çalışmanın yapıldığı iki devlet ve üç vakıf üniversitesinden birinci üniversitede 157, ikincisinde 209, üçüncüsünde 111, dördüncüsünde 90, beşincisinde de 81 öğretim görevlisi/okutman vardır. İki devlet ve üç vakıf üniversitesini seçmenin amacı, toplam öğretim görevlisi/okutman sayısında devlet ve vakıf üniversiteleri arasında bir denge oluşturmaktır. Çalışmadaki devlet üniversitelerinde toplam 136, vakıf üniversitelerinde ise toplam 140 öğretim görevlisi/okutman görev yapmaktadır. Üniversitelerin internet kaynaklarından aliñan bilgiye göre, başta ölüm başkanı, onun alt kademesinde ise akademik coordinatör, test birimi ve material biriminden oluşan yönetim şekli devlet ve vakıf üniversitelerinde benzerdir. Öğretim görevlisi/okutmanlar da, gerek ders yükleri, gerekse verdikleri eğitimin içeriği konusunda benzerlik göstermektedirler.

Araştırmacı örneklem grubu oluşturmadan, tüm öğretim görevlisi/okutmanları araştırmaya katmak istemiş ve bu amaçla, bölümlerdeki bütün görevlisi/okutmanlarla görüşmüş, fakat bazı öğretim görevlisi/okutmanlar araştırmaya katılmak istememişlerdir. Sonuç olarak, birinci üniversitede 61, ikinci üniversitede 75, üçüncü üniversitede 60, dördüncü üniversitede 40 ve beşinci üniversitede 40 olmak üzere toplam 276 öğretim görevlisi/okutman anketleri doldurmayı kabul etmiştir. Bu sayı, internet kaynaklarından alınan sayının % 42'sidir. Anketler tek oturumda ve toplam 25 dakikalık bir sürede doldurulmuş, veri toplama süreci bir ay sürmüştür.

İşlemler: Bu araştırmada veriler, demografik sorulardan olusan bir anket, Örgüt İklimi Ölçeği (Yılmaz ve Altınkurt, 2013) ve Stres Envanteri (Kızıltepe, 2007) kullanılarak toplanmıştır.

Veri toplamaya başlamadan once ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu onayı alınmış, Etik Kurul ilgili üniversitelere resmi yazı yazarak çalışma hakkında bilgi vermiş ve katılım yapmalarını istemiştir. Daha sonra araştırmacı Ankara'daki beş ayrı üniversitenin Yabancı Diller Yüksek Okulu, İngilizce Hazırlık bölümlerine giderek, Bölüm Başkanlarına çalışmanın amacı hakkında bilgi vermiş, anketleri uygulamak için yardımlarını rica etmiş ve daha sonra anketlerin tamamını kendisi uygulamıştır. Anketleri uygulamadan önce katılımcılardan 'Gönüllü Katılım Formu' doldurmaları istenmiştir. Çalışmanın amacının, bilgilerin gizliliğinin sağlanacağının ve elde edilen bilgilerin sadece bu çalışma için kullanılacağının açıklandığı bu formlar toplandıktan sonra anketler dağıtılmıştır. Anketler üç üniversitede bölüm toplantılarının olduğu günlerde, toplantılardan hemen önce uygulanmıştır. Diğer iki üniversitede ise, akademik yılın sonu olduğu, dersler bittiği ve öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların sınav kağıdı okuduğu ve projeleri değerlendirdiği dönem olduğu için, araştırmacı her öğretim görevlisi/okutmanı teker teker ziyaret etmiş ve amacını açıklayıp, araştırmaya katılmalarını rica etmistir. Tüm veriler 27 Mayıs-28 Haziran 2013 tarihleri arasında toplanmıştır.

Ölçüm Araçları: Bu çalışmada, demografik sorular, Örgüt İklimi Ölçeği (Organizational Climate Index-OCI) ve Stres Envanteri (Teacher Stress Inventory - TSI) kullanılmıştır.

Demografik sorulardan oluşan ankette dört adet açık uçlu soru vardır. Araştırmacının kendisi ve danışmanı tarafından geliştirilen anket, öğretim görevlisi/okutmanlardan cinsiyet, yaş, meslekteki toplam çalışma yılı ve şu anda çalıştığı üniversitedeki toplam çalışma yılı ile ilgili bilgiler toplamayı amaçlamaktadır.

Örgüt iklimindeki profesyonellik anlayışı ile ilgili bilgi toplamak için, Hoy ve Tarter (1997) tarafından düzenlenen, ve Yılmaz ve Altınkurt (2013) tarafından Türkçe'ye çevirilip geçerlilik ve güvenirlik testleri yapılmış olan Örgüt İklimi Ölçeği (Organizational Climate Index-OCI) kulanılmıştır. Ölçekte, yönetici ve öğretmen davranışları ile ilgili altı adet alt parametre vardır. Bu alt parametreler destekleyici, emredici ve kısıtlayıcı yönetici davranışları ile işbirlikçi, samimi ve umursamaz öğretmen davranışlarını içermektedir. 39 sorudan oluşan dörtlü likert ölçeğinde aralıklar *nadiren olur* (1), *bazen olur* (2), *genellikle olur* (3) ve *çok sık olur* (4) arasında değişmektedir. Ölçeğin güvenirliği oldukça yüksektir, yapılan faktör analizi de yapı geçerliliğini (construct validity) desteklemektedir. Ölçekte yer alan

maddelerin faktör yük değerleri 0.46 ile 0.82; madde-toplam korelâsyonları 0.35 ile 0.77; güvenirlik katsayıları ise 0.70 ile 0.89 arasında değişmektedir.

Ölçeğin altı alt parameterelerinden destekleyici yönetici davranışı ile ilgili sorular, yöneticinin öğretmenleri dinleyip dinlemediğini ve önerilere açık olup olmadığını ölçmektedir. Emredici yönetici davranışı ise kısıtlamasız bir otorite kullanan, otokratik bir yönetim tarzı olan, öğretmenleri çok yakından izleyip, onların yaptıkları işler hakkında herşeyi öğrenmek isteyen yönetici ile gösterilmektedir. Kısıtlayıcı yönetici, öğretmenlere yardım etmekten çok, onları engelleyen veya kısıtlayan, onlara gereksiz bürokratik işler, rutin görevler ve çok fazla iş yükü veren birisi olarak tanımlanmaktadır. İşbirlikçi öğretmen, meslektaşlarını destekleyen, onlara saygı duyan ve yardım edendir. Samimi öğretmen, okul içinde kuvvetli bir sosyal destek ağı oluşturur, meslektaşlarını tanır ve onlarla arkadaş olur. Anketteki umursamaz öğretmen, işi ile ilgili aktiviteleri anlamayan ve onlarla ilgilenmeyen birisi olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Bu öğretmen okula gelince sadece sınıfa girer, ders biter bitmez okulu terkeder, olumsuz davranışlar sergiler ve meslektaşlarını eleştirir.

Öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların örgüt iklimindeki iş streslerini belirlemek için, Fimian ve Fastenau (1990) tarafından geliştirilen ve Kızıltepe (2007) tarafından Türkçe'ye çevirilip, geçerlilik ve güvenirlik testleri yapılmış olan Stres Envanteri (Teacher Stress Inventory -TSI) kullanılmıştır. 49 sorudan oluşan beşli likert ölçeğinde aralıklar *hiçbir zaman* (1), ve *her zaman* (5) arasında değişmektedir ve belirtilen olaylardaki stress düzeyini değerlendirmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Stres kaynaklarını belirleyen sorularda öğretim görevlisi/okutmanlara ne kadar stress hissettikleri, stress göstergelerini belirleyen sorularda ise öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların sorulardaki olayları ne sıklıkla deneyimledikleri sorulmaktadır.

Envanterde yirmi çeşit deneyim beş guruptan oluşan stress kaynaklarını, yirmidokuz deneyim ise yine beş guruptan oluşan stress göstergelerini tanımlamaktadır. Stres kaynakları zaman yönetimi, yapılan iş, meslek, disiplin ve motivasyon, ve mesleğe yatırım ile ilgilidir. Zaman yönetimi, öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların ne zaman sabırsız hissettiklerini, kısıtlı zamanlarda yapılan işlerle nasıl başa çıktıklarını, çoklu görevlerde ve zaman yönetiminde ne kadar stress altında kaldıklarını belirlemektedir. İşle ilgili stress soruları, hazırlık süresi, iş yükü, okuldaki işlerin yapılması için verilen süre ve kişisel öncelikler ile ilgilidir. Meslekle ilgili stress soruları, öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların mesleklerindeki konumlarını

nasıl değerlendirdiklerini, saygı, tanınma, okulla ilgili konularda söz sahibi olma ve mesleğe yatırım olanaklarını araştırmaktadır. Disiplin ve motivasyon ölçeğinde, iş yerindeki güdüleme, meslekle ilgili gelişim, öğrenci davranışlarını gözlemleme, disiplin kuralları, ve öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların otoritelerini kullanabilmeleri ile ilgili sorular vardır. Mesleğe yatırım ise, öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların kişisel görüşlerini ne kadar belirtebildiklerini, alınan kararlarda ne kadar paylarının olduğunu, duygusal ve/veya bilişsel güdülemenin, ve kendilerini geliştirmeleri için olanakların ne kadar olduğunu göstermektedir.

Envanterdeki stress göstergeleri duygusal, tükenmişlik, kardiovasküler (kalbe ve kan damarlarına ait olan), gastronomik ve davranışsal belirtkelerdir. Duygusal göstergeler çeşitli güvensizlik, savunmasızlık, depresyon ve endişe durumunu tanımlamaktadır. Tükenmişlik göstergelerinin amacı ise, bitkinlik, bedensel zayıflık, tükenmişlik deneyimlerinin sıklığı ve süresi, mide asidinin ortaya çıkma sayısı ve süresi, mide krampları ve mide ağrısını tanımlamaktır. Kardiovasküler belirtkeler, kan basıncı, kalp ritmi, çok hızlı solunum, ve öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların bu durumlarla nasıl başa çıktığı ile ilgilidir. Gastronomik göstergeler mide ile ilgili sorunları, örneğin kramplar, ağrılar ve mide asidini anlatmaktadır. Davranışsal belirtkeler ilaç ve/veya alkol kullanımı ve hasta raporu almak ile ilgilidir.

Ölçeğin güvenirlik katsayısı 0.75 ile 0.88 arasında değişmektedir ve toplam puan için alfa değeri 0.93 olarak bulunmuştur. Envanterin test-yeniden test güvenilirliği 0.76'dır. Kızıltepe'nin yaptığı güvenirlik testleri, alt parametrelerin alfa değerinin 0.65'in üzerinde olduğunu göstermektedir. Envanterde yer alan bütün parametreler Fimian and Fastenau'nun (1990) geliştirdiği özgün ölçeğe sadık kalınarak Türkçe'leştirilmiştir.

Veri analiz işlemleri: Veriler toplandıktan sonra istatistik analizleri yapılmış ve yorumlanmıştır. Yapılan yorumlara dayanarak ve araştırmanın amacı gözönüne alınarak sonuçlar yazılmış ve öneriler getirilmiştir. Bu çalışmada elde edilen veriler SPSS 20 paket programı ile değerlendirilmiştir. Verilerin frekans ve yüzdesel dağılımları verilmiş, normallik testi sonucunda, gruplar arasında farklılık incelenirken Bonferroni düzeltmeli Kruskal Wallis H Testi kullanılmıştır. Gruplar arası farklılık incelenirken, anlamlılık seviyesi olarak 0.05 kullanılmış olup $p<0.05$ olması durumunda gruplar arası anlamlı farklılığın olduğu, $p>0.05$ olması durumunda ise gruplar arası anlamlı farklılığın olmadığı belirtilmiştir.

Örgüt iklimi ile Ankara'daki beş üniversitede çalışan İngilizce öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların algıladıkları iş stresi arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemek için, anlamlılık seviyesi $p < 0.05$ olan Spearman korelasyon katsayısı kullanılmıştır. Bağımlı ve bağımsız değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiyi analiz etmek için çoklu regresyon analizi kullanılmış ve iş stresindeki değişimin, stresi tanımlayan bağımsız değişkenlerle nasıl açıklanabileceği araştırılmıştır. Elde edilen verilerin çarpıklık ve basıklık seviyeleri kabul edilebilir düzeydedir.

Güvenilirlik ve geçerlilik analizleri: Örgüt iklimi ölçeğinin güvenirlik katsayıları 0.87–0.94 arasındadir (Hoy ve ark., 2002). Yapılan faltör analizi de yapı geçerliliğini desteklemektedir. Yılmaz ve Altınkurt tarafından Türkçe'ye uyarlanan ölçeğin güvenlik katsayıları 0.70-0.89 arasındadır. Stres envanterinin alt parametrelerinin alfa değerleri (alt alfalar) 0.70 ve üzerindedir ve tüm ölçek alfa değeri 0.93'tür (Fimian and Fastenau, 1988). Test-tekrar test güvenirliği 0.76'dır. Kızıltepe tarafından Türkçe'ye çevirilen ölçeğin güvenirlik testlerinde alfa değerleri >.65 olarak bulunmuştur. İç geçerlilik, olası bazı olası tehditleri control ederek sağlanmıştır. Araştırmacı anketleri herhangi bir aracı kullanmadan, kendisi uygulamış ve öğretim görevlisi/okutmanlar envanterleri doldururken yanlarında kalmış ve böylece bilgilerin paylaşımını engellemiştir. Yapı geçerliliği, dikkatli operasyonel tanımlarla sağlanmıştır. Buna ek olarak, doğru çıkarımlar yapabilmek için uygun istatistiksel testler kullanılmış ve hangi testlerin neden kullanıldığı açıklanmıştır. İç geçerlilik ve yapı geçerliliğine ek olarak, bu çalışmanın dış geçerliliği de sağlanmıştır, zira çalışmadan elde edilen sonuçlar Ankara'daki bütün devlet ve vakıf üniversitelerinin İngilizce Hazırlık Bölümlerinde çalışan öğretim görevlisi/okutmanlara genellenebilmektedir.

Çalışmanın sınırlamaları: İngilizce öğretim görevlisi/okutmanlar için önemli sayılabilecek geniş bir davranış yelpazesi olmasına rağmen, potansiyel olarak önemli olan bazı yetkinlikler araştırma dışında kalmış olabilir. Bunun nedeni, verilerin içeriğinin demografik sorularla ve yasal izinleri alınmış iki anketle sınırlı olmasıdır. Bu çalışmada örneklem çoğunlukla kadın öğretim görevlisi/okutmanlardan oluşmaktadir zira Yabancı Diller Yüksek Okulu'ndaki öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların çoğunluğu kadındır. Ek olarak, çalışma sonuçları üniversitelerde görev yapan yöneticilere genellenemez.

Araştırma, Ankara'daki iki devlet ve üç vakıf üniversitesi ile sınırlıdır. Her ne kadar araştırmacı bu üniversitelerde çalışan tüm öğretim görevlisi/okutmanları

araştırmaya katmak istemişse de, bazı öğretim görevlisi/okutmanlar araştırmaya katılmak istememişlerdir. Bu durum, gönüllülük esasına dayanan veri toplamanın dış geçerliliğini etkilememektedir çünkü çalışma beş üniversite ile sınırlıdır, ve Türkiye'nin diğer illerindeki üniversitelere genellenemez ama çoklu doğrusal regresyonun dayandığı varsayımlar karşılandığı için, araştırmanın yapıldığı beş üniversitedeki, ve Ankara'daki diğer devlet ve vakıf üniversitelerinde çalışan öğretim görevlisi/okutmanlara genellenebilir.

Veri toplama süreci, beş üniversitede değişken fiziksel koşullarda tamamlanmıştır. Özellikle devlet ve vakıf üniversitelerindeki fiziksel koşulların farklılığı söz konusudur. Bu durumda, verilerin toplandığı konumlar iç geçerlilik için tehdit olabilir. İç geçerlilik için bir başka tehdit de, katılımcıların özellikleri olabilir. Çalışma Türk vatandaşları ile sınırlıdır zira anketlerin Türkçe versiyonları için resmi izin alınmıştır. Bu nedenle, çalışmanın yapıldığı üniversitelerde yabancı uyruklu öğretim görevlisi/okutmanlar olmasına karşın, bu kişiler araştırmanın dışında tutulmuştur. Katılımcıların bir başka özelliği de yaşları ile ilgilidir. Öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların yaşları 23-44+ arası, mesleklerindeki toplam çalışma deneyimleri ise 1-20+ arası değişmektedir. Katılımcıların arasında bu kadar büyük farklılıklar olması çalışmanın başka bir kısıtlamasıdır. Bu farklılık iç geçerlilik için olası bir tehdit yaratmakla birlikte, tüm katılımcıların homojen bir grup oluşturduğu düşünülünce, bu tehditten kaçınmanın mümkün olduğu görülmektedir.

Temel Bulgular: Toplam stres, yapılan işle ilgili stres, meslekle ilgili stres, mesleğe yatırım ile ilgili stres, disiplin ve motivasyon ile ilgili stres, zaman yönetimi ile ilgili stres, duygusal gösterge, davranışsal gösterge, kardiovasküler gösterge, gastronomik gösterge, ve tükenmişlik göstergesi bağımlı değişken, ve destekleyici, emredici ve kısıtlayıcı yönetici davranışları ile işbirlikçi, samimi ve umursamaz öğretmen davranışlarından oluşan bağımsız değişken için betimsel analiz yapılmıştır.

Tanımlayıcı istatistik ile, örgüt iklimi ölçeğinin ve stres envanterinin aralık, minimum, maksimum, ortalama, standart sapma ve varyans sonuçları elde edilmiştir. Sonuçlara göre, bağımlı değişkenin ortalaması düşüktür (toplam stres puanı ortalaması=118.3). Bağımsız değişkenlerden en yüksek ortalama destekleyici yönetici için elde edilmiştir (destekleyici yönetici ortalaması=4.6), en düşük ortalama ise umursamaz öğretmen için elde edilmiştir (umursamaz öğretmen ortalaması=1.3). Kısıtlayıcı yönetici ortalaması, umursamaz öğretmen otaşamasından biraz yüksektir (kısıtlayıcı yönetici=1.7). Samimi öğretmen ortalaması, emredici

yönetici ortalamasından biraz daha yüksektir (samimi öğretmen ortalaması=2.8; emredici yönetici ortalaması=2.2). İşbirlikçi öğretmen ortalaması ise destekleyici yönetici ortalamasından biraz daha dşüktür (işbirlikçi öğretmen ortalaması=3.3; destekleyici yönetici ortalaması=4.6). Verilerdeki dağılımın normal olup olmadığını anlamak için Kolmogorov-Smirnov testi (K-S testi) yapılmıştır. Sonuçlar istatistiksel olarak anlamlı çıkmış (en büyük p değeri $p<0.005$), yani veri normal dağılmamıştır. Bu durumda normallik varsayımı ihlal edilmiştir.

Demografik sorular (cinsiyet, yaş, toplam öğretmenlik deneyimi ve şu anda çalıştığı üniversitedeki toplam deneyim) kategorik olduğu için, verinin frekans dağılımı hesaplanmıştır. Öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların örgüt iklimi ile ilgili profesyonellik algıları, Hoy ve Tarter (1997) tarafından geliştirilip, Yılmaz ve Altınkurt tarafından Türkçe'ye uyarlanan Örgüt İklimi Ölçeği'nde bulunan altı alt paramerte ile, iş stresleri ise Fimian (1988) tarafından geliştirilip, Kızıltepe (2007) tarafından Türkçe'ye çevrilen Stres Envanteri'nde bulunan ve stres kaynaklarını ölçen beş alt parametre ve stres göstergelerini ölçen beş alt parametre ile incelenmiştir.

Örgüt iklimi ile Ankara'daki beş üniversitede çalışan İngilizce öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların algıladıkları iş stresi arasındaki ilişki, Spearman korelasyon katsayısı ve çoklu regresyon analizi ile incelenmiştir ($p< 0.05$). Sonuçlarda, bağımlı değişken olan toplam stres puanı, stres kaynakları ve stres göstergelerinden oluşmaktadır. Destekleyici, emredici ve kısıtlayıcı yönetici davranışları ile işbirlikçi, samimi ve umursamaz öğretmen davranışları ise bağımsız değişkenlerdir. İş stresi, duygusal, tükenmişlik, kardiovasküler, gastronomik ve davranışlarla ilgili belirtilerle gösterilirken, stres kaynakları olarak zaman yönetimi, yapılan iş, meslek, disiplin ve motivasyon, ve mesleğe yatırım alınmıştır.

Veriler, Ankara'da bulunan iki devlet ve üç vakıf üniversitesinde, Yabancı Diller Yüksek Okulu'nda çalışan 276 İngilizce öğretim görevlisi/okutmandan toplanmıştır. Katılımcıların büyük bir çoğunluğu kadınlardan oluşmaktadır (%85.1), %12,3'ü ise erkektir. Anketi dolduranlardan %2.5'unun cinsiyeti bilinmemektedir. Katılımcıların yaklaşık üçte biri (%36.6) 33-43 yaş grubunda, %22.8'i 44+ yaş grubunda, %21.0'i 23-28 yaş grubunda, %18.8'i ise 29-33 yaş grubundadır. 2 katılımcı yaşları ile ilgili bilgi vermemiştir. Toplam çalışma yılı söz konusu olduğunda, %37'si 11-20 yıl, %22.1'i ise 6-10 yıllık bir deneyime sahiptir. 20 yıldan fazla ve 5 yıldan az deneyimi olanların yüzdesi birbirine yakındır (%19.9 ve %19.2).

276 katılımcı arasından 5 kişi toplam çalışma yılı ile ilgili soruyu boş bırakmıştır. Şu anda çalıştıkları üniversitedeki deneyim süresi ile ilgili soruların sonucuna göre katılımcıların %36.6'sı 11-20 yıldan beri aynı kurumda çalışmaktadır. %34.1'i 1-5 yıl arası, %19.2'si 6-10 yıl arası, %9.1'i ise 20 yıldan daha uzun bir süreden beri aynı üniversitededir. 3 katılımcı (%1.1) bu soruyu yanıtsız bırakmıştır.

Örgüt iklimi ile Ankara'daki beş üniversitede çalışan İngilizce öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların algıladıkları iş stresi arasındaki ilişkide orta düzeyde bir korelasyon bulunmuştur. Bağımlı değişken olan stres kaynakları ve göstergelerinin, bağımsız değişken olan destekleyici müdür ile ilişkisisinde destekleyici müdürün en kuvvetli ilişkisi mesleğe yatırım ile ilgili çıkmıştır (r= - .59, p<=.05). Destekleyici müdürün davranışları ile yapılan iş (r= - .51, p<.05), toplam stres (r= - .48, p<.05), duygusal göstergeler (r= - .34, p<.05), disiplin ve motivasyon (r= - .33, p<.05), ve işle ilgili stres kaynakları arasında belirgin bir korelasyon bulunmuştur. Destekleyici müdürün davranış göstergeleri, zaman yönetimi, gastronomik göstergeler, kardiyovasküler göstergeler ve tükenmişlik göstergeleri arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamıştır. Destekleyici müdürün iş stresi ile olumsuz korelasyonu, iş stresinin azaldığını göstermiştir.

Bağımsız değişkenlerden emredici müdür ile stres kaynakları ve göstergeleri arasında kuvvetli ve pozitif bir korelasyon olacağı varsayılmıştır, fakat veriler anlamsız bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Korelasyonlar r= .04, p<.05 ve r= .2, p<.05 arası değişmiş, ve toplam stres puanı r= .17, p<.05 olarak bulunmuştur. Diğer bir bağımsız değişken olan kısıtlayıcı müdürün en yüksek korelasyonu işle ilgili stres ile çıkmıştır (r= .51, p<.05). Toplan stres puanı (r= .45, p<.05), mesleğe yatırım (r= .39, p<.05), ve meslekle ilgili sıkıntılarda da anlamlı korelasyon çıkmıştır (r= .39, p<.05), fakat davranuş göstergesi (r= .23, p<.05), zaman yönetimi (r= .3, p<.05), disiplin ve motivasyon (r= .2, p<.05), duygusal göstergeler (r= .28, p<.05), gastronomik göstergeler (r= .29, p<.05), kardiyovasküler göstergeler (r= .19, p<.05), ve tükenmişlik göstergelerinde ise anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamıştır (r= .27, p<.05). Veriler, kısıtlayıcı müdürün toplam stres puanı ile olan ilişkisini pozitif linear bir korelasyon olarak göstermiştir.

İşbirlikçi öğretmenin en kuvvetli korelasyonu mesleğe yatırım ile çıkmış, (r= -.36, p<.05) diğer parametrelerle anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamış, korelasyonlar r= -.01, p<.05 and r= .01, p<.05 arası değişmiştir. Toplam stres puanı r= -.24, p<.05 olarak hesaplanmıştır. Öğretmenlerle ilgili bir başka parametre olan umursamaz

öğretmenin en kuvvetli korelasyonu mesleğe yatırım ile çıkmıştır (r= .5, p<.05). Diğer sonuçlardan toplam stres puanı (r= .44, p<.05), meslekle ilgili stres (r= .39, p<.05), duygusal gösterge (r= .35, p<.05), zaman yönetimi (r= .33, p<.05) ve işle ilgili streste de (r= .33, p<.05) anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuştur. Diğer parametreler ile anlamlı bir korelasyon çıkmamış, sonuçlar r= .13, p<.05 ile r= .29, p<.05 arasında değişmiştir. Samimi öğretmen söz konusu olduğu zaman, en kuvvetli korelasyon mesleğe yatırım ile çıkmış (r= -.35, p<.05), diğer parametrelerde anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamış ve korelasyonlar r= -.14, p<.05 ve r= .01, p<.05 olarak saptanmıştır. Bu sonuçlar, öğretmenlerin meslektaşları ile arkadaşça ve sıcak bir ilişki içinde oldukları zaman toplam stres puanlarının düştüğünü, örneğin ne kadar samimi davraniıla karşılaşırlarsa, o kadar az stres hissedeceklerini göstermiştir.

Örgüt iklimi ile Ankara'daki beş üniversitede çalışan İngilizce öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların algıladıkları iş stresi arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmak için çok değişkenli regresyon analizleri yapılmıştır. Analizde regresör değişken olarak destekleyici, kısıtlayıcı ve emredici müdür davranışları ile işbirlikçi, umursamaz ve samimi öğretmen davranışları alınmıştır. Regresyon analizi yapılmadan önce bağımlı değişken üzerinde logit/logaritmik birim dönüşümü yapılmış, fakat sonuçlar anlamlı çıkmamış, veri normal bir dağılım göstermemiştir. Bunun üzerine verinin kare kökü alınmış, fakat veri yine normal bir dağılım göstermemiştir. Bu durumda, merkezi limit teoreminin normallik varsayımına göre (N=276) regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Regresyon modelinin anlamlılığının test edildiği F değeri 42.876 olarak hesaplanmıştır. Anlamlılık sonucu p değeri ise 0,000 olarak hesaplanmış olup model istatistiksel olarak anlamlıdır (F=42,876, β = –.38, p<.05). Örgüt iklimi ile algılanan iş stresinin kaynakları ve belirtkeleri (duygusal, tükenmişlik, kardiovasküler, gastronomik ve davranışlarla ilgili belirtiler, ve zaman yönetimi, yapılan iş, meslek, disiplin ve motivasyon, ve mesleğe yatırım ile ilgili stres kaynakları) arasındaki ilişkiyi analiz etmek için yapılan çok değişkenli regresyon analizleri sonucunda da regresyon modeli istatistiksel olarak anlamlı çıkmıştır (β =.1- .22; p<.01- .05).

Araştırma sorularına göre sonuçlar: Birinci soruda, destekleyici müdürün öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların iş stresini nasıl etkilediği sorulmuş ve destekleyici bir yöneticinin iş stresini engellemede veya azaltmada önemli olduğu varsayılmıştır. Yapılan analizde, destekleyici müdür ile stres kaynakları ve göstergeleri arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuştur (p<.05). Bağımlı değişken olan iş stresi, bağımsız değişken olan destekleyici müdür ile negatif bir korelasyon göstermiş, bu da,

destekleyici müdürün öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların iş stresini azaltmada yardımcı olduğunu göstermiştir.

İkinci soruda kısıtlayıcı müdürün öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların iş stresini nasıl etkilediği sorulmuş ve böyle bir müdürün iş stresine katkıda bulunacağı varsayılmıştır. Yapılan analizde, kısıtlayıcı müdür davranışı ile stres kaynakları ve göstergeleri arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuştur (p<.05). Bağımlı değişken olan iş stresi ile, bağımsız değişken olan kısıtlayıcı müdür arasında pozitif bir korelasyon olduğu için (p<.05), kısıtlayıcı müdürün öğretim görevlisi/okutmanlar arasında stres yarattığı görülmüştür.

Üçüncü soruda işbirlikçi öğretmen davranışının, öğretim görevlisi/okutmanlar arasındaki stresi nasıl etkilediği sorulmuş ve bu davranışın meslektaşlar arasında stresten uzak kalmaya yardımcı olacağı varsayılmıştır. Yapılan analizde, işbirlikçi öğretmen davranışı ile stres kaynakları ve göstergeleri arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuştur (p<.05). Bağımlı değişken olan iş stresi, bağımsız değişken olan işbirlikçi öğretmen ile negatif bir korelasyon oluşturmuş, bu da, öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların sorumluluklarını birbirleri ile paylaştıkları zaman pozitif bir atmosferde çalıştıklarını ve iş stresinden uzak kaldıklarını göstermiştir.

Dördüncü soruda umursamaz öğretmen davranışının, öğretim görevlisi/okutmanlar arasındaki stresi nasıl etkilediği sorulmuş, ve verilen görevlere karşı kayıtsız kalanların iş stresine katkıda bulunacağı varsayılmıştır. Yapılan analizdeumursamaz öğretmen davranışı ile stres kaynakları ve göstergeleri arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuştur (p<.05). Bağımlı değişken olan iş stresi, bağımsız değişken olan umursamaz öğretmen ile pozitif bir korelasyon oluşturmuş ve bu da günlük rutin işlerle ilgilenmeyen, işle ilgili herhangi bir sorumluluğa karşı duyarsız kalan öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların meslektalar arasında iş stresine neden olduğunu göstermiştir.

Değerlendirme, Sonuç ve Öneriler: Bu korelasyonel çalışmanın amacı, örgüt iklimi ile Ankara'daki beş üniversitede çalışan İngilizce öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların algıladıkları iş stresi arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmaktır. Katılımcılar Ankara'daki iki devlet ve üç vakıf üniversitesinde çalışan 276 İngilizce öğretim görevlisi/okutmandan oluşmaktadır.

Araştımada öncelikle destekleyici müdür davranışının öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların iş stresini nasıl etkilediği araştırılmış, sonuçlar bağımlı ve bağımsız değişken arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Katılımcılar,

kendilerine saygı duyulmasının, ve verdikleri derslerin veya ders dışı sorumluluklarının farkında olunmasının önemini belirtmişlerdir. Sonuç olarak, stres kaynakları ve destekleyici müdür ile anlamlı fakat negatif bir doğrusal ilişki gösteren bu durum, öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların kendilerini destekleyen bir müdürle çalıştıkları zaman iş streslerinin azaldığını kanıtlamaktadır. Bu sonuç, of Pashiardis ve Orphanou (1999) ile Campo (1993)'nun bulguları ile örtüşmektedir. Araştırmacılar, bir yöneticinin olumlu ve etkin bir örgüt iklimi ve kültürü oluşturması durumunda öğretim görevlilerinin daha mutlu olduğunu, gerek motivasyonlarının, gerekse kuruma bağlılıklarının yöneticinin davranışları ile yakından ilişkili olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Benzer şekilde, Wahlstrom ve Louis (2008), Blase, Dedrick, ve Strathe (1986) yöneticinin liderlik stilinin sağlıklı bir çalışma ortamı oluşturmada ve öğretim görevlilerini olumlu olarak etkilemedeki önemini vurgulamışlardır. Başka bir çalışmada Rafferty and Griffin (2006) destekleyici yöneticinin, çalışanların kuruma bağlılığı, iş tatmini ve kişinin öz yeterliliğinde önemli olduğunu, bütün bunların da öğretim görevlilerinin iş stresinden uzak kalmalarını sağladığını söylemişlerdir.

Her ne kadar sonuçlar arasında negatif bir doğrusal ilişki olsa da iş stresinin algılanması, stress kaynakları ve göstergeleri arasında farklılık göstermektedir. Örneğin davranış göstergesi, zaman yönetimi, gastronomik gösterge, kardiyovasküler gösterge ve tükenmişlik göstergesi sonuçları zayıf bir ilişkiyi tanımlamıştır (r= .20-.25, p<.05). Sonuçlar, Fimian'a (1988) göre "zayıf" veya "orta" düzeyde olarak açıklanmaktadır. .00- .30 arası zayıf, .30- .60 arası orta, .60- 1.00 arası ise güçlü bir korelasyonu anlatmaktadır. Bu durumda bir yönetici, öğretim görevlilerinin fikirlerini açıkça söylemelerini sağladığı ve gerek verdikleri dersler, gerekse sınıf içi davranışları ile ilgili alınan kararlarda paylarının olmasını sağladığı zaman iş stresini engellemektedir. Öğretim görevlilerinin entellektüel stimulasyonu ve meslekleri ile ilgili gelişme olanakları sunulması da iş stresini engellemede yardımcı olmaktadır.

Fimian ve Fastenau (1990) öğretmenlerin iş stresini etkileyen birçok parametreyi test ettikleri halde, bu çalışmada bazı parametreler yöneticinin destekleyici davranışından çok fazla etkilenmemiştir. Bu sonuç Fimian ve Fastenau (1990)'nun hedef kitlesi ile bu araştırmadaki katılımcıların farkından kaynaklanıyor olabilir. İngilizce Bölümlerinde, genellikle en deneyimli öğretim görevlileri yönetici olarak atanır. Bu kişiler çok deneyimli oldukları ve daha önce birçok yönetici ile çalıştıkları için, bir yöneticinin neler yapması ve nasıl davranması gerektiği

konusunda bilgi sahibi oldukları, ve meslektaşları ile uyum içinde çalışacakları varsayılır. Bu nedenle de, öğretim görevlilerinin iş stresini ortadan kaldıracakları olasıdır. Cerit (2009), Oplatka (2004) ve Knoop (1994)'un da belittiği gibi, öğretim görevlileri yöneticilerinin güvenilir, etkili ve anlayışlı olmasını beklemekte, ve kendilerine saygı duyulmasını, tanınmalarını ve sevilmelerini istemektedirler.

Araştırmada, kısıtlayıcı müdür davranışı ile öğretim görevlilerinin iş stresi arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuştur (r= .45, p<.05). Bu sonuca göre öğretim görevlilerinin çalıştıkları okulda profesyonel bir iklim olmaz ve meslektaşlar birbirlerini desteklemez ise, iş stresi düzeyi artmaktadır. İşle ve zaman yönetimi ile ilgili olan bu stress kaynakları, Price'ın (2012) yöneticinin davranışlarının, duygularının ve düşünce tarzının örgüt içi koşulları belirlediğini ve öğretim görevlilerinin iş ortamı hakkındaki algılarını etkilediğini belirten sonuçları ile tutarlıdır.

Bu araştırma sonucunda, meslekle ilgili sıkıntıların yanı sıra, mesleğe yatırım konusunda da pozitif ilişki bulunmuştur (r= .39, p<.05). Buna göre, öğretim görevlileri kişisel görüşlerine önem verilmediğini, sınıf içi ve okulla ilgili konularda söz sahibi olmadıklarını, motive edilmediklerini ve mesleklerinde kendilerini geliştirmek için olanak bulamadıklarını düşünmektedirler. Blasé'nin (2000) de belirttiği gibi, öğretim görevlileri ile konuşmak, görüşlerini almak ve mesleklerinde kendilerini geliştirmeleri için onları teşvik etmek iş stresinden uzaklaşmalarını sağlayacaktır. Bredeson (1989) ve Zimmerman (2006) da benzer sonuçlara ulaşmış, öğretim görevlilerinin kendilerini güçlü hissetmelerini sağlamanın ve alınan kararlara onları da ortak etmenin kendilerini daha saygın hissedeceklerini ve güven duygularının artacağını, sonuç olarak da yöneticiler ile verimli bir iletişime geçecekleri için iş stresinden uzak kalacaklarını savunmuşlardır.

Çalışmanın sonucuna göre, meslektaşları ile dayanışma içinde olan öğretim görevlileri, birlikte çalıştıkları kişileri olumlu etkilemekte, bütün görev ve sorumlulukları paylaşmaktadırlar. Çalışma hayatlarında hem hırslı, hem de meslektaşları ile paylaşımcıdırlar. Çalıştıkları bölümde aktif birer üye olan ve günlük işleri paylaşan bu öğretim görevlilerinin iş stesinden uzak kaldıkları belirlenmiştir. Bu sonuç, meslektaşları ile dayanışma içinde olan öğretim görevlilerinin daha profesyonel davrandıklarını ve bunun da bütün okuldaki öğretim görevlilerinin davranışını etkilediğini, sonuç olarak da iş stresini engellediğini savunan Hertzog'un (2000) bulguları ile tutarlıdır. Little (1982), Hargreaves ve Dawe (1990), ve Clark

(2001) da benzer sonuçlar bulmuşlar, meslektaşları ile dayanışma içinde olan öğretim görevlilerinin gerek meslektaşları, gerekse yöneticileri ile daha profesyonel bir ilişki kurduklarını, bu durumun da, iş stresini engelleyen güvenli bir ortam oluşmasını sağladığını belirtmişlerdir.

Meslektaşlar arası ilişki konusunda araştırma sonuçları negatif bir doğrusal ilişki gösterdiği halde, Öğretmen Stres Envanterinin parametreleri arasında farklı düzeylerde iş stresi bulunmuştur. Mesleğe yatırım (r= -.50, p<.05), disiplin ve motivasyon (r= -.41, p<.05), meslekle ilgili stress kaynakları (r= -.45, p<.05) ve toplam stress puanındaki (r= -.43, p<.05) ilişki orta düzeydedir. Diğer parametrelerde zayıf bir ilişki bulunmuştur, bu da stress kaynakları ile stress göstergelerinin, öğretim görevlilerinin meslektaşları ile olan ilişkilerinde çok etkili olmadığını göstermektedir.

Araştırmanın son sorusu olan umursamaz öğretmen davranışı ile iş stresi arasındaki ilişki anlamlı çıkmıştır (r= .44, p<.05). Zorunlu olmadığı taktirde okuldaki etkinliklere katılmayan, olumsuz davranışlar sergileyen ve her an başkalarının kusurunu bumak istercesine davranan öğretim görevlileri, diğerlerini olumsuz etkilemektedir. Mesleğe yatırım, meslekle ilgili sıkıntılar ve işle ilgili stres parametrelerinden elde edilen bu sonuçlar, bir öğretim görevlisinin davranışının, iş ortamını nasıl algıladığı ile ilgili olduğunu, ve ilgisiz meslektaşlarla birlikte çalışmanınolumsuz etki yaptığını savunan Bogler (2001) ve Ostroff (1992)'un sonuçları ile tutarlıdır.

Araştırma sonuçları, umursamaz meslektaşlarla çalışma ile toplam stress puanı, mesleğe yatırım, zaman yönetimi, duygusal göstergeler ve işle ilgili göstergelerde de orta düzeyde bir doğrusal ilişki olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır (r= .33 - .35, p<.05). Kyriacou ve Sutcliffe (1978)'in de iddia ettiği gibi, bu sonuç, umursamaz öğretim görevlileri ile birlikte çalışanların orta düzeyde iş stresi hissettikleri şeklinde açıklanabilir.

Her ne kadar fakültelerde çalışan öğretim görevlilerinin umursamaz davranışları diğer öğretim görevlilerini fazla etkilemiyorsa da, bu durum İngilizce Bölümlerinde farklıdır, zira özellikle Hazırlık okullarında öğretim görevlileri çoğunlukla çiftler veya gruplar halinde çalışırlar. Bir öğrenci grubunun gramer, konuşma ve/veya yazma dersi veren iki veya üç öğretmeni olabilir. Bu öğretmenler uyum içinde çalışmak ve müfredatı bir önceki öğretmenin kaldığı yerden devam

ederek uygulamak zorundadırlar. Bu nedenle umursamaz bir meslektaşla çalışmak onlarda iş stresi yaratmaktadır.

Pratik uygulamalar: Örgüt ikliminin nasıl algılandığının anlaşılması, İngilizce öğretim görevlilerinin iş stresini engellemede yararlı olabilir. Bu çalışmanın sonuçlarının da gösterdiği gibi, pozitif bir örgüt ikliminin iş stresini engellediği dikkate alınırsa, yöneticilere destekleyici davranışlarda davranmaları ve olumlu bir örgüt iklimi oluşturmaları önerilebilir. Bryk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu, ve Easton (2010) da, destekleyici ilişkilerin örgüt ikliminde önemli olduğunu ve iş stresini engellediğini savunmuşlardır. İş stresinden uzak kalmanın daha etkili bir çalışma ortamı sağlaması kadar, stres altında çalışmanın da güvensizlik ve savunmasızlık duygusu, başa çıkamama, depresyon ve endişe gibi olumsuz durumlar, hatta kardiyovasküler ve gastronomik sorunlar yarattığı belirlenmiştir (Evans ve Jonhson, 1990; Rahim ve Afza, 1993; Igbaria ve Guimaraes, 1999; Çetinkanat, 2002). Yöneticiler, daha etkili bir eğitim elde edebilmek ve öğretim görevlilerinin içsel doygunluğunu sağlayabilmek için gayret etmelidir. Sağlıklı bir iklimde çalışan, alınan kararlarda katkısı olan, özerk ve saygın olan öğretim görevlilerinin özsaygıları gelişir. Öğretim görevlilerinin iş stresinden uzak kalmalarını sağlayan özellikler, elindeki gücü paylaşan, birlikte çalıştığı insanların gereksinimlerine duyarlı olan, onlara mesleklerinde kendilerini geliştirmeleri için olanak tanıyan ve işlerini en iyi şekilde yapmalarına katkıda bulunan destekleyici bir yöneticinin özellikleri ile tutarlıdır. Bu bağlamda, yöneticilerin, öğretim görevlilerinin etkin çalışmasına katkıda bulunan profesyonel liderler olması gerektiği söylenebilir.

Yöneticilerin profesyonel liderler olması kadar, öğretim görevlilerinin iş stresi ile başa çıkabilmek için eğitilmeleri de önemlidir. Bunun için, meslektaşlar arası iletişimi geliştirmek yararlı olabilir ve bu da yöneticinin olumlu etkisi ile sağlanabilir. Gerek yöneticinin, gerekse öğretim görevlilerinin davranışları okuldaki örgüt iklimine katkıda bulunur, ve karşılıklı güven ve saygının olduğu, güçlü bir örgüt iklimi yaratabilir. Kuvvetli sosyal ilişkiler öğretim görevlilerinin birbirlerini daha iyi tanımalarını ve birbirlerine destek olmalarını sağlar,tüm bunlar da iş stresini engeller.

Bu çalışmanın sonucu, kuvvetli bir sosyal örgüt ikliminin gerekliliğine ek olarak, eğitim yöneticisi yetiştirme konusunda da değerlendirilebilir. İngilizce Bölümlerinde yöneticiler Yabancı Diller yüksek Okulu Müdürü tarafından atanır. Bu kişilerin yönetim konusunda herhangi bir eğitimleri olmadığı göz önüne alınırsa,

görevlerini öğretmenlik nitelikleri ile sürdürdükleri söylenebilir. Bu araştırmanın sonucuna göre, yapılacak işler için yeterli süre veren, çok fazla veya gereksiz işlerden kaçınan, alınan kararlarda öğretmenlerin katkısını da sağlayan, mesleki gelişim için olanak tanıyan ve öğretmenlere saygı duyan yöneticiler öğretmenlerin iş stresinden uzak kalmalarında etkili olmaktadır. Bu nedenle yöneticilerin sağlıklı bir örgüt iklimi oluşturabilmeleri, iş stresini engelleyip, öğretim görevlilerinin mesleklerinde gelişmelerini sağlayabilmeleri için eğitilmeleri gereklidir.

Öneriler: Bu araştırmanın sonucu, Ankara'da bulunan iki devlet ve üç vakıf üniversitesinde çalışan öğretim görevlilerinin düşünceleri ile sınırlıdır. Ankara'daki beş üniversitede çalışan İngilizce öğretim görevlisi/okutmanların algıladıkları iş stresi ile örgüt iklimi arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemiştir. Sonuçlar sadece verilerin toplandığı bölümlerde çalışan öğretim görevlilerinin özelliklerini ve algılamalarını yansıtmaktadır. Bu nedenle, aynı araştırmanın farklı şehirlerde ve farklı üniversitelerde yapılması, bu araştırmanın sonuçlarının genellenebilmesi için gereklidir.

Uygulanan Öğretmen Stres Envanteri, Fimian (1988) tarafından İngilizce olarak geliştirilmiş, Kızıltepe (2007) tarafından Türkçe'ye çevrilmiştir. Veri toplama sürecinde bazı katılımcılar envanterdeki soruları anlamamışlar ve araştırmacıdan açıklama yapmasını istemişlerdir. Bu nedenle, Stres Envanterinin Türkçe çevirisinde bazı tanımlamalar yapmak, katılımcıların soruları daha kolay yanıtlayabilmeleri için kolaylık sağlayacaktır.

Buna ek olarak, bu çalışma nicel araştırma olarak tasarlanmıştır fakat nitel yöntemler de kullanılabilir. Çalışmadaki tüm veriler anketlerdeki sabit sorular ile toplanmıştır ve bu nedenle katılımcıların fikirlerini tanımlama ve/veya açıklama fırsatı olamamıştır. Bu tür fikirleri elde edebilmek için anketteki sorulara ek olarak açık uçlu sorular da hazırlanabilir. Nitel araştırma yöntemi olarak, öğretim görevlilerinin iş stresi ile ilgili fikirlerini almak için görüşmeler de yapılabilir.

Araştırmadaki beş üniversiteden dört tanesinde eğitim dili İngilizce'dir, bir tanesinde ise kısmen İngilizce eğitim yapılmaktadır. Bazı fakültelerdeki derslerin %30'u İngilizce'dir. Bu araştırma İngilizce bölümlerinde yapıldığı için, bu bilgi önemlidir zira eğitim dili İngilizce olan üniversitelerdeki , öğretim görevlileri daha etkili ve verimli çalışmak zorundadır, bu da onların iş stresine katkıda bulunabilir. Bu araştırmada, very toplanan üniversitelerin eğitim dili ile ilgili bir değişken yoktur,

o nedenle bu durumu belirleyen bir değişkenin eklenmesi gelecek çalışmalar için yararlı olabilir.

Veri toplamanın zamanlaması da araştırma sonuçlarının içeriği ile ilgili bir engel oluşturabilir. Veriler, çok sıkıntılı bir zaman olan Haziran ayında toplanmıştır. Bu ayda tüm öğretim görevlileri ödev, proje ve sınav kağıdı okuduğu ve sene sonu için gereken işlemleri yaptığı için stresli bir dönem yaşamaktadır. Tam bu sırada toplanmış olan verilerin içeriği iş stresinden etkilenmiş olabileceği için, ileride yapılacak araştırmalarda bu konunun dikkate alınması gerekir.

Tüm bunlardan başka bir etken de, farklı üniversitelerdeki İngilizce öğretim görevlilerinin farklı ders yüklerinin olmasıdır. Bazı üniversitelerdeki öğretim görevlileri bir akademik yıl boyunca ayni öğrencilere ders verirken, başa üniversitelerdebu durum her dönem veya sekiz haftalık dönemlerle değişmektedir. Sık sık farklı öğrencileri tanımak zorunda olmak öğretim görevlilerinin iş streslerini etkileyebilir. Bu nedenle, böyle bir değişkenin de araştırılması yararlı olacaktır.

Sonuç: Stresle başa çıkabilmeyi öğrenmek öğretim görevlilerine çeşitli yararlar sağlamaktadır ve bu araştırmanın sonucu onlara kendilerini daha iyi hissetmeleri için yararlı olabilir. Öğretim görevlilerinin iş stresi küçümsenemeyecek kadar önemlidir. Bu konuda karar verme yetkisi olanlar ve eğitimciler, öğretim görevlilerinin iş stresi altında ezilebileceğini fakat sıkıntılarını dile getiremeyebileceklerini anlamalıdırlar. Genç neslin geleceğimiz olduğu bir gerçektir, fakat üniversitelerdeki eğitimin ilk basamaği da İngilizce hazırlık okuludur. Genç neslimizin ve toplumumuzun iyiliği için, İngilizce öğretim görevlilerinin iş stresi sorunu çözümlenmeyi haketmektedir.