

PREDICTORS OF ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING CAPABILITY
IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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ABSTRACT

PREDICTORS OF ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING CAPABILITY IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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The purpose of this study was to investigate in-depth and latter aspect of determination of the organizational learning capability, organizational commitment, work engagement and core-self evaluations in primary and secondary schools in Ankara and relationship between these variables.

The study was designed as a correlational study and the participants comprised of 1050 teachers working at public schools selected from Ankara via cluster sampling. Both descriptive and inferential statistics techniques were used for the data analysis. Exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis for the scales were conducted within the scope of this study. Hierarchical multiple regression analyses was carried out in order to investigate the relationship between organizational learning capability and its predictors. Descriptive, inferential and multiple regression statistical analyses were performed by the software PASW Statistics 21 and the confirmatory factor analysis was performed by the software AMOS 22. The results of the main study revealed that organizational learning capability of schools are significantly predicted by several organizational and individual variables. Among organizational variables types of organizational commtment especially the affective commitment are the are the most significant

ones. In this respect, the practitioners in the field should provide necessary conditions so as to promote and improve affective commitment.

Keywords: Organizational Learning, Organizational Commitment, Work Engagement, Core-self Evaluations

ÖZ

ÖRGÜTSEL ÖĞRENMENİN YORDAYICILARI OLARAK ÖRGÜTE BAĞLILIK, ÇALIŞAN BAĞLILIĞI VE TAM BENLİK DEĞERLENDİRMESİ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı örgütsel öğrenme, örgüte bağlılık, çalışan bağlılığı ve tam benlik değerlendirmesi arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmaktır. Gelişen ve gelişmekte olan ülkelerde eğitim alanında meydana gelen değişim dinamikleri sistematik eğitim reformlarına neden olmaktadır. Bu dinamikler düşünüldüğünde eğitim örgütlerinde öğrenme ve değişim süreçlerinin teorik ve ampirik analizlerinin oldukça az olduğu görülmektedir.

Bu çalışma örgütsel öğrenme, örgüte bağlılık, çalışan bağlılığı ve tam benlik değerlendirmesi arasındaki ilişkiyi Ankara'daki ilk ve orta dereceli okullarda tanımlamayı amaçlamaktadır. Ankara ilinde çalışan öğretmenlerin katılımıyla doldurulan anket ile, örgütlerin öğrenme kültürleri, örgüte bağlılık, çalışan bağlılığı ve tam benlik değerlendirmesi değişkenleri için öğretmenlerin görüşlerini içeren veriler toplanmıştır. Elde edilen veriler bu dört değişken arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki olup olmadığını belirlemek için analiz edilmiştir. Bulunan sonuçlara göre özellikle duygusal bağlılık olmak üzere örgüte bağlılık örgütsel öğrenme kapasitesinin en önemli yordayıcısıdır. Bu nedenle insan kaynakları yaklaşımları doğrultusunda çalışanların çalışma koşullarını iyileştirmek ve örgüte bağlılıklarını yükseltmek oldukça önemlidir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Örgütsel Öğrenme, Örgüte Bağlılık, Çalışan Bağlılığı, Temel Benlik Değerlendirmesi

To my beloved mother and father

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CFA: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

CSE: Core Self Evaluations

CSES: Core Self Evaluations Scale

CFI: Comparative Fit Index

EFA: Exploratory Factor Analysis

MoNE: Ministry of National Education

NNFI: Non-Normed Fit Index

OLC: Organizational Learning Capability

OLCS: Organizational Learning Capability Scale

OC: Organizational Commitment

OCS: Organizational Commitment Scale

RMSEA: Root of Mean Square Error of Approximation

UWES: Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

WE: Work Engagement

WES: Work Engagement Scale

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

In response to the restructuring and reforms in Turkish Educational System, schools focused on implementing new processes to reach their performance goals. It is agreed by practitioners and scholars that new initiatives and structures lead to a lasting change. Elmore (2002) mentioned that the organizational learning capability is a crucial part of this process. In order to reach high levels of performance identifying effective curricula is not effective enough. Schools must strengthen their internal capacity to manage change processes. In other words, schools should focus on organizational learning and capacity building within schools rather than to focus on compliance or support for programmatic change (Hopkins, Harris & Jackson, 1997).

In the light of literature learning can be accepted as the source of surviving for the organizations; so they should manage learning activities to stay in this rapidly changing competitive environment. There is a lack of understanding in schools, especially in teachers about the concept of organizational learning capability; they do not know how to create learning organizations and also the systems they work in do not support to produce the kind of learning demanded.

Understanding how to create schools as learning organizations to reach the performance goals has remained an elusive phenomenon. The fragmented structure of organizational learning work caused parallel studies to be conducted, which

should be integrated. At that point to better understand the process of capacity building, more empirical research is required.

Background of the Concept of Organizational Learning

The concept of organizational learning is the total learning activities across an organization that occurs in its complex environment. Since March and Simon (1958) discussed the topic of organizational learning about 56 years ago the concept has existed. March (1991) stated that organizational learning plays an important role in maintaining competitiveness in dynamic industries. Organizational learning is a process that takes place in a firm to structure an increasing awareness about the continuously changing environment and keeping up with adaptation and modification issues. There are many scholars as Senge (1990), Argyris (1999), Crossan and Hullamnd (2002) and Lopez et al. (2005) commented on the impact of learning on performance.

Crossan, Lane and White (1999) mentioned that there is wide multitude of definitions and conceptions of organizational learning. Huber (1991) points out in his review of organizational learning “learning can be characterized by adaptation to changing environment events, by flexibility and responsiveness, by change within the organizations”. The related literature shows that organizational learning is concerned with collective capability not merely with the capability of individuals in the organization. Most of the studies defined organizational learning as the ability of people to act together according to the objectives of the organizations. For instance Bontis and Crossan (2002) found a positive relationship between the learning stocks at all levels in an organization and performance of the organization.

The rapid change in 21st century makes the organizations have to adopt themselves to technological, social and structural changes. So that, this rapid change became a continuous challenge that all organizations should encounter. By considering the future competitiveness, organizations should find new ways and solutions. Probst and Buchel (1997) stated that uncertainty about the future and constant changes in values makes it more difficult to move on and stay alive considering the current economic system and operating principles of that system. Globalization, economic liberalization, rapid development and constant innovation in

the information and communication technology, and rapid changes in stakeholder's expectations created a growing effect that effected many organizations. In the face of changing conditions organizations should move beyond the need to be sustainable in the competitive environment. It is common in the literature that knowledge is the only source of competitive advantage for the organizations. So for the organizations to survive and stay in the game learning is the essential ingredient. In order to respond the challenges and changes in the internal and external environment, organizations have to "learn" to respond.

Many management gurus believed that in order organizations to adapt themselves to the changing environment its learning capability stands as the most important and useful tool. Garvin (1993) saw learning as a long term investment and also Marguardt (1996) stated that as organizations learn faster their adaptation ability increases which provide a compelling strategic advantage.

It is increasingly recognized that organizational learning is fundamental to compete in the changing world. DeGeus (1988) proposed organizational learning as a strategic process that is essential and creates a unique advantage that is sustainable and competitive. Due to realizing its importance organization learning attracted too much attention in recent times. Therefore, the concept of organizational learning started to take its place in management studies.

Whether they are private or public, the concept of organizational learning has become important for the organizations. Bendell, Boulter and Kelly (1994) stated organizational learning as total quality management has a growing importance in every part of the world. In order to get ahead and stay ahead, every organization must undertake and improve their organization learning program.

In this current dynamic organizational environment, great challenges are offered by the theories of organizational learning. It is believed that future work on organizational learning needs to focus on linking learning with organizational outcomes like organizational commitment, and performance that result from the different levels of organizational process (Yeo, 2002). Although the relationship between learning and positive work outcomes was assumed, there is not sufficient empirical evidence to support this perspective (Lopez et al., 2005). Egan et al. (2004)

mentioned that over the past years theories and practices on organizational learning have been analyzed by both practitioners and scholars, however still there is much to find out about the interaction within organizational learning culture. Parallel to this, Spicer and Sadler –Smith (2006) said that researchers have failed to demonstrate the impact of organizational learning on organizations. Moreover, there is a lack of research in public service sector which has fundamentally different types of objectives, culture, climate system, and procedures. To improve organizational learning program by undertaking effective measures of enhancing positive work outcomes is also crucial for public service managers. Therefore government agencies should be aware of the importance of organizational learning (Kasim, Pak & Uli, 2008).

The changes occurring around the world influence not only companies but also educational organizations. The increased competition, customer needs, developments in communication and information technology in all domains of life can be defined as the forces of change at educational organizations (Shoham & Perry, 2008).

Being aware of the value of organizational learning process in today's organizations, concepts that are related to organizational learning activities are attractive not only for the members of the organizations but also for researchers. Research about learning organizations and organizational learning has been studied for a long period of time. In addition to the importance of the organizational learning in competitive global market, Bakker and Leiter (2010) stated that in this market companies that cannot make effective use of their employees have a dim future.

It can be seen that there has been a largely cognitive perspective on organizational learning which aims to understand how organizations respond to the complex problems. In contrast to this cognitive perspective of these researches, there are studies which have the perspective of socio-cultural learning theory focused on individuals' social interactions within the organizations. These studies which have the perspective of socio-cultural learning theory focused on social learning processes in organizations (Cole & Werstch, 1996; Stein & Coburn, 2008). Knapp (2008) mentioned the need of integrating these two perspectives for further research. In the

particular context of schools, scholars point out that in-depth examinations of teacher behaviors and practices are essential to understanding organizational learning. At the same time, Boudett, City and Murnane (2005) pointed the merits of effective data gathering and analyses on the part of teachers in order to have effective organizational learning capacity in schools.

In this changing environment, like the other organizations, the educational organizations need to respond to the rapidly changing world. It is obvious that educational organizations are different from other organizations in the name of their organizational structure and culture.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

It is our objective to investigate in-depth and latter aspect of the determination of organizational learning, organizational commitment, work engagement and core-self evaluations in educational organizations and the relationship between these variables. The existing management and educational sciences literature provides limited insights in the educational organizations about the definition and the relationship of the variables

The study aims to make a prominent contribution to the related literature and educational settings where management practices must be developed in order to survive in the changing environment. In addition, this study may be guide to for the leaders to understand the practices which increase the performance of the educational staff by increasing work engagement and commitment.

Bakker and Leiter (2010) defined work engagement as a vital target for organizational development. In some of the related literature, work engagement and organizational commitment is considered to be equal. A very general discrimination can be made by defining the terms like loving one's job as work engagement and loving one's organization as organizational commitment. It is important to show the difference and relationship between these variables.

In addition to these, Judge (2009) declares that core-self-evaluations are core judgments that people make of themselves. About 15 years ago, in 1997 Judge and

colleagues related job satisfaction with core self-evaluations, which is a higher level personality form. They defined core self evaluation as a fundamental evaluation; people evaluate themselves about their valuableness, capacity and efficiency (Judge, Bono, Erez, & Locke, 2005). This creates a comprehensive personality concept comprising four prototype traits that are absence of neuroticism, self-esteem, self-efficacy, and locus of control. As mentioned in Stumpp et al. (2009), Judge and colleagues argue that the four of the specific traits are extensive, essential and self-evaluative which also create a higher order factor (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2002). It should be noted that these core evaluations are not only self-evaluations but are also related to the individual's perception of the world and others. It can be said that how a person perceives her or himself is defined by core self-evaluations. These evaluations also have an effect on the situation analysis and perception, which is a process termed emotional generalization as mentioned by Judge and his colleagues. The researches of Judge and colleagues show that people who have positive self-esteem, believe in their own capacity, have positive perceptions of the world as well as low tendencies to focalize on negative self-aspects, and believe to have a control over the events in their lives will have tendencies to evaluate events more positively (Stumpp, Hülshager, Muck & Maier, 2008). As Bono and Judge (2003) stated that according to the research findings more job satisfaction comes with positive core self-evaluations. Also they mentioned that core self-evaluations do not only influence job attitudes but also affect issues related to performance, career success, and health (Stumpp, Hülshager, Muck & Maier, 2008).

1.3. Research Questions

Research questions that will be addressed arise from the lack of an in-depth research on the relationship between the variables of organization learning capability (OLC), core-self evaluations (CSE), work engagement (WE) and organizational commitment (OC). There are problems about positioning these variables and adapting them into managerial skills in educational setting.

Organizational learning has a key role in having competitive advantage; schools should construct and enhance their organizational learning capability. Organizational commitment and Work Engagement embrace strong beliefs in and acceptance of an organization's goals and values; a intentness to strive on behalf of the organization; and a strong will to be a functional element of the organization. Having optimistic core self-evaluations are also related to the satisfaction level and individual objectives of the employees in the name of success. These variables have a direct impact on the organization performance. Academic research concentrating on providing a standardized explanation between the relationships of organizational learning capability, organizational commitment, work engagement and core self evaluations is scarce.

To accomplish the purpose of the study, the following main and sub-research questions are answered in this study.

- What is the predictive value of background variables, organizational commitment, work engagement, and core self-evaluation for organizational learning capability of teachers at primary and secondary public schools in Ankara?

Based on this main research question the following sub-questions were identified and answered.

- What is the predictive value of background variables, organizational commitment, work engagement, and core self-evaluation for the managerial commitment dimension of organizational learning capability of the primary and secondary schools in Ankara?
- What is the predictive value of background variables, organizational commitment, work engagement, and core self-evaluation for the systems perspective dimension of organizational learning capability of the primary and secondary schools in Ankara?
- What is the predictive value of background variables, organizational commitment, work engagement, and core self-evaluation for the knowledge

transfer and integration dimension of organizational learning capability of the primary and secondary schools in Ankara?

- What is the predictive value of background variables, organizational commitment, work engagement, and core self-evaluation for the openness and experimentation dimension of organizational learning capability of the primary and secondary schools in Ankara?

In the light of these questions a research model is developed in order to understand the predictors of organizational learning capability that contribute to have a better competitive advantage in a changing competitive global market.

1.4. Significance of the Study

The related literature has a common idea about the importance of developing learning capacities of the organizations in order to be a successful organization. There are many researches from different disciplines and also many managers from business sector who focuses on the organizational learning. Since, in this rapidly changing environment because of knowledge economy, organizational learning is a pre-requisite to survive (Akgün et al., 2009). To use organizational learning for the benefit of the organizations, there is a need to understand and espouse the crucial subject of organizational learning.

The managerial literature has different definitions of the variables and also the relationship between them. In order to answer the general research question an overview of organizational learning, organizational commitment, work engagement and core-self evaluations will be addressed in the second part. The studies conducting to investigate the relationship between the variables in different sectors also summarized to construct a theoretical background.

In terms of research, for this study Organizational Learning Capability Scale (OLCS) of Gomez, Lorente and Cabrera (2005), Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) of Meyer and Allen (1990), Work Engagement Scale (WES) of Schaufelli and Baker (2003) and Core-Self Evaluation Scale (CSES) of Judge, Erez, Bono and Thoresen (2003) were adapted into Turkish and educational organizations for the

first time and a pilot study was carried out for reliability and validity analysis, which is expected to contribute to literature as further research studies may consider using it. The related literature does not have studies that illuminate the direct relationships between the variables in educational sector. For instance Stumpp et al. (2008) mentioned that there is not any study which investigates the relationship between organizational commitment and core-self evaluations. Moreover their study which illuminates the relation between these variables was not conducted in educational sector.

As Stumpp et al. (2008) stated that it was shown in too many studies that there is a strong correlation between core self-evaluations and job satisfaction. However according to the previous studies, internal job characteristics were used as a composite factor although the way of treating them as separate facets are more meaningful. Moreover, the association between different personality characteristics and organizational commitment has been presented in many studies where on the contrary there are a few studies which link core self-evaluations and organizational commitment. Moreover, the literature has a huge gap about the relationship between organizational learning and core-self evaluations.

There are few studies on the influences of the organizational learning. Most of these studies discussed the effects on job satisfaction and organizational commitment; but there is not any about the relationship between organizational learning and core-self evaluations, also work engagement. Furthermore the management literature has many examples about private sector but has very few examples about the educational sector.

Finally, in practice, this study raises the issue of considering all four dimensions of organizational learning capability of Turkish Schools so that effective management styles can be conducted. Combined with other findings in the literature, the outcomes of the study contribute to survive of the educational organizations in the rapidly changing environment.

1.5. Definition of the Terms

Organizational learning defined as the course of creating, acquiring and integrating knowledge oriented at the development of resources and capabilities that promote better organizational performance (Lopez et al., 2005) and also as a potential multi-faceted construct as it underlies various dimensions in its makeup (Gomez et al., 2005). It involves managerial commitment, systems perspective, openness and experimentation, and knowledge transfer and integration.

Managerial commitment refers to an organization's ability to develop and enable managerial support and leadership commitment for the modernism process and staff motivation in forming and constituting knowledge in an organization.

Systems perspective is the ability of companies to have a common identity and shared vision. Organizational members may be brought together by shared vision that interconnects the activities of these members. Moreover, this ability develops affiliations by exchanging information and shared mental models.

Openness and experimentation is about an organizational climate where new ideas and internal and external aspects of points of view are accepted. The climate of openness and experimentation allows individual knowledge to be continually renovated, broadened, and enhanced.

Knowledge transfer and integration is defined as the ability of organizations to internally spread knowledge. Organizations can spread knowledge by verbal and nonverbal communications. This kind of communication may be in the form of formal and informal conversations, dialogues. In order to have accurate, reproductive and available information, the information systems give the opportunity of exploit knowledge effectively.

Organizational commitment was defined as a predisposition towards organizations that attaches or draws in the identity of the person to that of the organization (Sheldon, 1971). Salancik (1977) defined organizational commitment as a state in which an individual becomes engaged to an organization via beliefs about their behavior that maintains activities and involvement. Meyer and Allen (1990)

assert that organizational commitment is a multi-faceted concept involving affective, continuance and normative commitment.

Core self-evaluations consist of four well established personality traits that are self-esteem, self-efficacy, absence of neuroticism, and internal locus of control (Judge et al., 2003).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter first presents theoretical development and definitions of the variables of Organizational Learning, Organizational Commitment, Work Engagement and Core-Self Evaluations respectively. The theories and constructed models of these variables are summarized with the definitions. Secondly, pair wise comparisons are presented in order to summarize the relationship between the variables that were mentioned in the previous researches. Lastly the education system and the teaching profession in Turkey are described in details.

2.1. Positioning Organizational Learning

2.1.1. Defining Learning

The concept of learning is mostly defined as a permanent change resulted from knowledge and experience by many scholars. Learning can be described as the change in the individual's values, attitudes and behaviors with the knowledge gathered from theoretical ideas, applications and experiences. When defined from the perspective of the organizations, learning is the process of developing and enhancement of the knowledge, qualifications of the organizations and organizational processes (Erçetin, 2001).

It is obvious that the change resulted from learning may not be in behaviorist terms. Learning may cause change in attitudes and beliefs as well as behaviors. In other words, learning is the process of awareness building about the differences and

alternatives, which facilitates making choices from these alternatives. The chosen alternative may not enhance the behavior but may change once conceptual view and understanding. Consequently, in the result of the learning process there will be knowledge and experience accumulation on the part of the individual. So there will be a permanent change in the attitudes and behaviors of the individuals (Eren, 2004).

Göçmen (2003) mentioned that the real learning process should not be considered as an encyclopedic archive that is emerged by memorization of the different subjects. The real learning is a process of getting new understandings and views, developing behaviors and recognizing the environment as a whole by newly gathered information.

It is very difficult to make a formulated definition of the term learning. It is very important to have the ability of adapting the environment, surviving and developing in the rapidly changing world. All the creatures in the world should have the ability of surviving, adapting the change by having new behaviors and attitudes. Learning must be a process of developing this ability. Parallel to this Senemoğlu (2004) defined learning as a permanent change caused by the experiences sourced by the interaction of individual and environment.

Doğan (2010) defined the crucial aim of the learning as gaining the ability of managing the change of the individuals and groups by changing themselves. This is true for both the individuals who will grow and the organizations which pass from difficult processes. The success of the firms can be determined as learning efficiently like creating and gathering knowledge within the framework of their culture from the environment and using them efficiently for developing the qualifications of their employees; also adapting to the changing environment.

2.1.2. Levels of Learning

Understanding levels of learning is essential for capturing the real meaning of organizational learning. The levels of learning can be studied in three stages as individual learning, group learning and organizational learning. (Crossan, Lane &

White, 1999). Crossan and his colleagues proposed the well-known model integrated the three levels of learning.

Yazıcı (2001) defined individual learning as the change of personal qualifications, understandings, knowledge, attitudes and values resulted from individualized studies, observations and experiments. Individual learning is a must for organizational learning since organizations can only learn via its individuals. In addition to individuals the groups, who have the dynamism resulted from their synergy, share knowledge efficiently within or outside the group that give the chance of group interaction. The learning environment can be enhanced by the dynamism of the within group and interaction of different groups. This gives a chance to the organizations for creating a learning environment.

It is important to have a transference process of knowledge among people to pass on the knowledge gained via learning by individuals and groups into the organizations. This transference can be done through systems, structures, procedures and strategy. However individual learning does not guarantee organizational learning (Castaneda & Rios, 2007). Additionally, there is more to organizational learning than just individual learning (Fiol & Lyles, 1985).

2.1.3. Defining Organizational Learning

There is a wide range of perspectives that attempted to define organizational learning in spite of the ongoing research process for over 30 years (Lopez et al., 2005). Also Easterby-Smith (1997) and Tsang (1997) mentioned that the concept of organizational learning has been studied by various fields of study and from different angles; so the definition of this concept varies and various explanations have been presented, which are reviewed in this study.

It is important to hold an organizational aspect (rather than limiting the concept with psychological aspect) in the conceptualization of organizational learning. Besides, organizational learning refers to a process rather than an event or a thing.

There is a common agreement that developing capacities of organizations to learn is crucial for the success of the organizations. Akgün et al. (2009) mentioned that the organizational learning is a pre-requisite for surviving in the rapidly changing competitive environment where the economic systems are depended to knowledge. They also stated that many researchers from different disciplines and managers from business sector focus on the concepts of organizational learning and learning organizations. Researchers conduct studies to investigate the organizational learning from different aspects and the managers try to espouse the concept and use it for the benefit of their organizations. So, it is obvious that organizational learning is crucial subject that must be understood and espoused very deeply.

The related literature of organizational theory shows that classical economic theory had become dominant during and after the World War II. However behaviorists found the classical economic theory overly simplistic.

Simon (1953) mentioned that his analysis shows organizations are shaped by environmental forces that mediate human minds. Simon and March (1958), however, refuted the claim of economic models that organizational decision outcomes are uniquely determined by environmental constraints. Simon (1953) determined learning process as a process. Human beings grow insights and restructure the problems in the structural elements of the organization in this process. Also March and Simon (1958) suggested that organizational behavior depends on organizational process which introduce massive unpredictability into organizational decision making.

Katz (1956) and Argyris (1957) pointed out the importance of learning, especially the individual learning, and mentioned that learning requires individuals who are willing to improve their skills.

Chapman, Kennedy, Newell and Biel (1959) studied on the training activity of the air force with a large air defense simulation. They mentioned that learning evidenced itself as procedural shortcuts, reassignment of functions to team members, increased selectivity and discrimination in responding to environmental inputs, increased sensitivity to patterns of information and increased awareness of response alternatives, incorporation of redundant actions into the system to make judgments

and decisions more clearly "fail-safe." They also mentioned that learning did not appear in smooth increments which means changes in behavior were usually preceded by high levels of tension in individuals. Moreover, procedures often changed without any signs in prior discussions or actions that change was impending, and changes sometimes were made in one direction, although discussions were proceeding in a different direction; so learning was often not explicit. Chapman et al. defined two kinds of tension, which seemed to influence learning. One of them is discomfort stress caused by demanding more time and energy than available of the task. The other one is the failure stress caused by the possibility of having low performance. It was also stated in their work that within broad limits, teams were able to maintain and improve performance despite large increases in task load over the course of the exercise; so learning kept pace with task demands (Chapman, Kennedy, Newell, & Biel, 1959).

The classical approach pointed that the expectations make the employees committed to the organization economically. This approach argued the expectations of the employees, allocation of scarce resources; and efficiency for the positive outcomes of the processes of organization. Learning can be seen as a rational organizational trait, compatible with rationalistic assumptions of economic theories. Learning processes were rational from the perspective of the organization; they were directed toward performance improvement. In the long run learning processes could result in an improved match between organizational arrangements and environmental constraints. Adaptation processes are complex, slow and sensitive to slow variations in organizational parameters; so, learning can be seen as a non-rational organizational trait. In the light of these, it can be said that organizational learning emerged in 1950s in reaction to the unreal claims of neoclassical micro-economists.

Cyert and March (1963) in their book titled the Behavioral Theory of the Firm sharpened the focus on organizational learning. This theory argued that the organizations are complex and adaptive systems. Their approach was more formal and more general as part of an over-all theory of economic decision-making. Cyert and March defined a learning cycle that captures organizational learning. They mentioned that there are specific operating procedures which guide the way

organizations alter their actions as opposed to short-run feedback. It was also stated that organizations respond to external shocks by adjusting the likelihood of reusing specific operating procedures. They discussed the possibilities for adaptation in goals, aspiration levels, or preferences; for adaptation in the performance criteria or in the environmental events to which the organization pays attention; and for adaptation in the methods by which the organization seeks and classifies information and alternatives.

March and Olsen (1975) refuted Cyert and March's learning cycle and introduced the concept of ambiguity to the learning models. They mentioned that learning cycles can be unrealistic because goals can be ambiguous, experience can be misleading, interpretations are problematic and etc. In the light of these, March and Olsen explored four situations in which ambiguity enters the learning cycle. First one is in the role constrained learning cycle. Individual role definitions can prevent that individuals bring their learning to bear on their actions in this learning cycle. The outcomes will be inertia. Secondly, the connection between organizational action and environmental response is severed in superstitious learning. Superstitious learning in the term originates in Lave and March's (1975) lucid exploration of mathematical models in the social sciences. In this kind of learning cycle, the organization learns from an apparent environmental response even though it was not caused by the organization. Third one is that the connection between individual action and organizational action can be problematic in audience learning. For instance new and powerful solutions developed by individuals cannot be implemented due to cultural inertia. The last one is the situation of learning under ambiguity which means that individuals develop interpretations about casual connections on the basis of insufficient or inaccurate information about the environment, and instead draw on myths, illusions or ideology.

Parallel to this, Levinthal and March (1981) introduced a comprehensive, thoroughly formalized learning model which incorporated learning under ambiguity. The model focused on search for new technologies. Seeing the effect of an adopted technology on performance as uncertain and seeing adopted technologies as evolving are the two places that ambiguity entered the model.

Güçlü and Türkoğlu (2003) compared the classical organizations and learning organizations according to the components of learning process and based on this comparison they called the classical organizations soulless while the learning organizations as enthusiastic. The comparison is summarized in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1

Comparison of Classical and Learning Organizations

Components of Learning	Classical Organizations	Learning Organization
Who will learn?	Target group (e.g. managers, Sales employee and etc.)	Everybody (all of the employees in all levels)
Who will teach?	Trainer (in-sourced or out-sourced)	Trainers, experts, and Specialists.
Authorized unit	Training Department	Everybody
Learning instrument	Classes, on the job training, Apprenticeship, formal education plans	Classes, on the job training, education plans, comparisons, team-work, eer work, individual effort
When	Need in that, periodically, in apprenticeship	Every-time, life-long
What to improve	Technical knowledge	Technically and commercially, human relations and etc.
Where	Classrooms, at work	Every where
Need Analysis	Needs of present day	Needs of future

Source: Güçlü, N. and Türkoğlu, H. (2003). İlköğretim Okullarında Görev Yapan Yönetici ve Öğretmenlerin Öğrenen Organizasyona ilişkin Algıları. *Türk Eğitim bilimleri Dergisi (Journal of Turkish Educational Science)* Vol. 1(2), pg.139.

Table 2.2

Organizational Learning (OL) Definitions and Concepts of Four Intellectual Sources

Theorists Definition	Individual versus OL	Key Concepts
Argyris & Schön (1978)	OL is the process of individual and collective inquiry by which organizational theories in-use are constructed and modified	Individual Learning becomes organizational when it becomes embedded in organizational theories-in-use
		Dewey's concept of inquiry to organization Theories-of-action & theories-in-use Single-loop versus double-loop learning Error detection and Correction
Daft & Weick (1984)	Organizational interpretation is "the process of translating events and developing shared understanding and conceptual maps among members of upper management" (p.286) Organizational interpretation precedes learning.	"Individuals come and go but organizations preserve knowledge, behaviors, mental maps, norms, and values over time" (p.285)
		Organizations as interpretation systems Interpretation method depends on the organization's relationship to the environment Sharing (of data, perceptions, and puzzling developments) is the distinctive feature of interpretation.
Fiol & Lyles (1985)	OL is "the development of insights, knowledge, and associations between past actions, the effectiveness of those actions, and future actions" (p.811)	Organizations, unlike individuals develop and maintain learning systems influence their immediate members, but are then translated to others by way of organization histories and norms." (p.804)
		Behavioral versus cognitive change Organizational adaptation versus OL
Levitt & March (1988)	"Organizations are seen as learning by encoding inferences from history into routines that guide	Individual Learning becomes organizational when it modifies, creates, or replaces organizational routines behavior" (p.320)
		OL is - routine based - history dependent - target oriented

Table 2.2 (continued)

	Interpretation is difficult because of
	- competency traps
	- limits of organizational paradigms
	- ambiguity of success
	- superstitious learning

Source: Collinson, V. & Cook, T.F. (2007). *Organizational Learning*. Sage Publications, Thousands Oak, California, USA, pg.18.

Beside the theories defined organizational learning concept from a classical and behavioral point of view, it is known that learning is a complex construct and that it could be studied at various levels (Argyris & Schön, 1996; Rebelo & Gomes, 2008). The four main intellectual sources of organizational learning that see the organizational learning from individual to organization are summarized by Collinson and Cook (2007) in order to understand the origin of the concept. They mentioned that the reason of choosing these four is that these ideas are some of the earliest and most influential ones. The definitions and concepts of these selected theories are summarized in Table 2.2.

The knowledge era brings the idea that organizational members must learn. They must question, reflect, and act actively, innovate. They cannot obey or automatically accept the problems, failure or processes. For instance, fear from mistakes cannot be acceptable in the postmodern knowledge era. The organizational members must learn from mistakes, and produce useful and new ideas from these mistakes. Table 2.2 illustrates that Argyris and Schön (1978) envisioned the organizational learning as error identification and rectification process. This understanding of learning resonates Dewey's inquiry which can be defined as cyclical process of questioning, data collection, reflection and action. Argyris and Schön (1978) also mentioned that learning must be both *single-loop* and *double-loop*

process; if a person solve the problems with given values, plans and rules the single-loop learning is operationalized but if the person questioned and alternative responses are innovated the double-loop learning is operationalized. They also differentiate theory-of-action and theory-in-use as the responses of the questions of how somebody will behave under certain circumstances are their theory-of-action; however the theory that actually governs his/her behavior is theory-in-use.

Daft and Weick's (1984) theory pointed the interpretation process in organizational learning. They believe that organizational members collect data by scanning environment then they interpreted them by constructing new understandings and finally demonstrate new actions and understandings where learning is occur. So the organizational learning process can be seen in new decisions and also in new decision making processes where the interpretations of the environment can change.

The third conceptualization of organizational learning was provided by Fiol and Lyles (1985). The authors distinguish the behavioral and cognitive changes which can refer to single and double-loop learning respectively. The behavioral changes are the actual responses or actions to the environmental changes; however the cognitive changes are new shared understandings among the individuals. Consequently, they make a distinction between organizational adaptations and learning because when the organizations give responses to the changing environment they only adapt themselves, but when they produce new understandings, insights the organizational learning is operationalized.

Lastly Levitt and March (1988) define rules, practices, and strategies as the ways of how organizations make decisions and operate as routines which are encoded for organizational learning. Moreover, they pointed the importance of past experiences as the organizational memory for the organizational learning. However it is obvious that interpretation is a difficult process because it involves judgments of routines with limited information in a complex organizational environment.

2.1.4. Organizational Learning versus Learning Organizations

Organizational learning (OL) and learning organizations (LO) are researched by many disciplines. There are different studies which uses the concepts as synonyms whereas there are others that make the difference between terms. It is very important for this study to distinguish these concepts. The concepts of OL and LO can be distinguished by their emphasis on process and structure. When the activities that an organization undertakes for learning, the process is mentioned which the concept of OL emphasizes. In contrast, the structure is mentioned when the competence of an organization to learn is pointed, which is also emphasized by the concept of LO. In other words LO is focused more on the structural characteristics rather than the actions (Ang & Joseph, 1996; Gorelick, 2005).

2.1.5. Organizational learning: Senge's Fifth Discipline

In addition these four theories, Senge (1998) put forward that organizations learn through learning individuals. Organizational learning without individual learning does not occur. However it does not mean that individual learning guarantee organizational learning all the time. Balay (2012) mentioned that the tendency to see learning as a lifestyle for organizations, especially, started after Senge's work in 1990s. It is common in the literature Senge's works has a crucial role in the related literature of organizational learning.

Senge (1998) studied about the concept of organizational learning in a very detailed way in his work named The Fifth Discipline. The starting point of Senge is the flight of Wright Brothers with motor. He considered this flight as an invention. He mentioned that an idea can be an innovation after being an invention by combining different technologies. These technologies may have been developed together or separately. The point is that technologies enable inventions to become innovations by harmony. Senge (1998) determined five different components of technology which makes the organizational learning an innovation. These five

components are (a) systems perspective, (b) personal mastery, (c) mental models, (d) building shared vision and (e) team learning.

Systems Perspective was determined as the most important component of the concept of organizational learning. It refers to re-comprehend individual's her/himself and the world. It was mentioned that there is a change of mentality in the learning organizations. This was a kind of mentality change refers to perceive ourselves depended to the environment and not to believe that actions and/or problems are driven by external circumstances; in contrast to believe that actions and problems are directed by his/her personal decisions and efforts that have an internal locus of control (Senge, 1998).

Personal Mastery is one of the crucial necessities of learning organizations. The individuals who have high level of mastery always try to have reliable and valid results. Therefore, there is always a continuous learning process in this kind of organizations (Brestrich, 2000). The term of mastery does not refer to have sovereignty or authority; it is a kind of special qualification level. Senge (1998) mentioned that the individuals, who have personal mastery, have already created their visions. Personal mastery helps individuals to analyze the existing situation and determined the necessities in order to create vision. It was also mentioned that personal mastery increases creativity by the increase in motivation level. Senge said that leaders cannot manage to encourage personal mastery under coercion. He defined two ways in order to encourage the personal mastery in organizational climate. These are; (a) to strength the idea of appreciating individual development in the organization and (b) to have on the job training process which gives the opportunity of developing personal mastery.

Mental Models was determined as the conceptual frameworks consisting of generalizations and assumptions from which individuals understand the world and take action in it. It was also mentioned that the mental models give the opportunity of change must have the systems perspective (Senge, 1998).

Building Shared Vision is essential to construct a successful learning organization. Shared vision was defined as a construct what an individual and the other members want to create or accomplish as part of the organization (Senge,

1998). A shared vision is derived from the members of the organization, creating common interests and a sense of shared purpose for all organizational activities; it is not imposed as an organizational mandate by one or a few people. According to Senge, a shared vision gives employees energy and focus. Senge believed that individuals can learn best when he or she seeks to accomplish things that matter to him or her. Senge also believed that striving to accomplish a shared vision will encourage individuals to take risks, experiment and become committed to a long-term vision of the organization and organizational environment. All of these factors empower an organization to learn and transform itself as necessary to accomplish the organization's shared vision (Senge, 1998).

Team learning was determined as a skill developed for group problem solving and learning by Senge (1998). He also determined the components of effective learning as discussion refers to a process of exploration taken by the team members. Each member presents and defends his view on the issue or problem facing the group. Second component is dialogue, in its simplest terms, is a conversation. It's important to emphasize that dialogue in this context is not a debate. Team members are not attempting to successfully impose their view on their fellow members when engaging in dialogue. Instead, team members are attempting to go beyond each of their individual understandings of the issue presented and explore the issue creatively from many different points of view in order to make the best decision (Senge, 1998).

From the view of Senge's big picture, there is an important interrelationship with the components of learning organizations. In order to engage in team learning, organizations should have personal mastery, which gives the chance of commitment to the truth. Moreover, these organizations should also understand and be able to apply system thinking, which is the ability to see patterns and interrelationship. Additionally, organizations must be able to effectively recognize, test the validity, and improve upon their mental models to generalize the way of viewing the world. Organizations also need an understanding of their own shared vision in order to have solutions presented in harmony with the vision. All of these mentioned skills are necessary to effectively help teams in discussions, dialogues and in finding creative solutions to problems facing the organization.

2.1.6. Individual learning vs Organizational learning

As mentioned above individual learning is essential but not enough for organizational learning. Different levels can facilitate the organizational learning process. Gomez, Lorente and Cabrera (2005) stated that Huber (1991) and Crossan et al. (1999) indicated that organizational learning is a process related to knowledge implying a cycle among different levels of action that are the individual, group and organizational levels. This perception of learning was verified by Gomez, Lorente, and Cabrera (2005). Figure 2.1 illustrates Gomez et al.,’ understanding of organizational learning.

Parallel to Gomez and his colleagues, Robey, Boudreau, and Rose (2000) identified five fundamental characteristics that define organizational learning: (a) organizational learning takes place at the organizational level; (b) organizational learning is a structure; (c) organizational learning is both intended and unintended; (d) organizational learning necessitates organizational memory storages and mental models; and (e) organizational learning directs organizational action.

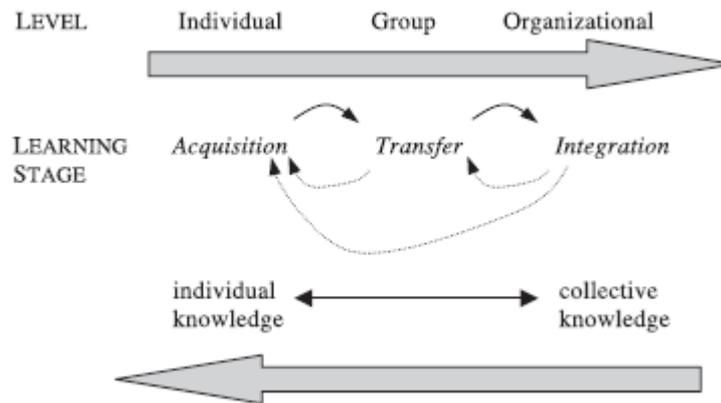


Figure 2.1. The Organizational Learning Process

In addition to these, Gomez and his colleagues (2005) considered organizational learning as an inherent multidimensional concept. They defined four different dimensions, which are managerial commitment, systems perspective,

openness and experimentation, and knowledge transfer and integration. They also mentioned that in order for an organization to say that it has a high learning capability; a high level of learning should be shown in all four dimensions stated above. *Managerial commitment* refers to the fact that the management should notice the significance of learning. An organizational culture, which values the acquisition, construction, and transfer of knowledge as essential values should be developed by the management. Management should also adopt a strategic view of learning, making it a focal visible factor and a precious tool with an effect on achieving long-term results. Moreover, management should make employees understand the significance of learning and have them to be involved in the learning process. Lastly, management should promote change and take on the responsibility to form an organization that is able to self-regenerate and withstand new challenges (Gomez et. al, 2005).

Systems perspective, as mentioned before from Senge (1998), refers to viewing the firm as a system in which the exchange of information and services is valued and the development of shared mental models is inferred. In as much as organizational learning denotes shared knowledge, perceptions, and beliefs; it will be enhanced by the presence of a common means of communication and collective action by all the parties taking part in the process, thus going beyond the employees' individual learning and becoming a joint practice.

Openness and experimentation is an organizational climate of openness that welcomes the generation of new ideas and viewpoints, both internally and externally; allowing individual knowledge to be constantly reformed. Openness to new ideas encourages experimentation, which is essential for generative learning to occur. Experimentation necessitates a culture that values creativity, entrepreneurship, and the readiness in taking controlled risks; by this way backing the idea that one can learn lessons from mistakes.

Knowledge transfer and integration are closely related to internal transfer and integration of knowledge. Transfer connotes the internal transmission of knowledge acquired at an individual level to the organizational level via conversations and interaction among individuals. Team learning is a useful mean to

achieve this and leads to the creation of collective knowledge deeply rooted in the culture and work processes of the organization.

Another conceptualization of organizational learning comes from Lopez et al (2005). They mentioned that in order to have a better organizational performance with the development of resources and capabilities, organizations should create, acquire and integrate knowledge. Organizational learning was defined as a dynamic process of creating, acquiring and integrating knowledge by them. (Lopez et al., 2005, p.228). According to Chiva and Alegre (2005), organizational learning is a process of knowledge development by an organization. Moreover, Tseng and McLean (2008) submitted that organizational learning consists of at least four dimensions that are knowledge acquisition, knowledge distribution, interpretation, and organizational memory. In the light of these, organizational learning can be accepted as a dynamic process that involves, creating, categorizing, transferring and mobilizing knowledge in all levels of the organization to adapt to a changing environment.

Collinson and Cook (2007) define five fundamental assumptions of organizational learning: (1) OL is multilevel in the sense that it depends on learning at individual, group and organizational levels (2) OL requires inquiry (3) OL relies on shared understandings among members (4) OL at its best involves both behavioral and cognitive change and (5) OL includes embedding new knowledge and practices in organizational theories-in-use or routines.

In the philosophy of organizational learning, it is obvious that the organizations must always develop and renew themselves continuously in order to reach their aims. The organizations must consider a multi-dimensional change while preparing an infrastructure that permits the organization continuous. An organization should be more rapid from its competitors in learning process, should predict its future and especially should volunteer for cultural changes. The environment is full of technological and strategic changes and developments so an organization must be alerted and inquiring about its customers, partnerships, competitors and etc. In addition to these an organization should have the experiences like know-how

archives, strategic human resources development, team-work for learning and opportunities for employees to develop themselves (Baytekin, 2008).

Keskin (2007) summarized the benefits of organizational learning for the organizations as; (a) to have the competitive advantage and to be the leader in the sector, (b) to increase the efficiency for success and for increasing the income, (c) to create a motivated working environment and enhancing the energetic spirit, (d) developing the common intelligence of the organization, (e) to prevent the mistakes and repeatability, (f) to benefit from the whole potential of the employees, (g) to answer the customer expectations, (h) to reinforce the personal development of the employees, (i) to increase the quality by having continuous total quality management systems.

The philosophy and benefits of the organizational learning is valuable for all kinds of organizations. Initially the attention for organizational learning is crucial for private sector; however it is not limited to it. It is a crucial element for every organization both private and public to be able to compete and survive (Kasim, Pak & Uli, 2008). Like the other organizations organizational learning is exclusive to educational organizations. Especially the mission and vision of the educational organizations make the organizational learning culture more crucial for these organizations where learning, teaching and, research and development studies have an important role (Dağlı, Silman & Birol, 2009; Seonghee; 1999; Shoham & Perry, 2008).

It is common in the literature that organizational learning is dynamic process which has a positive relationship with success of the organization in the name of performance. Also it is the fundamental necessity to have a cooperative advantage in this rapidly changing environment. Moreover, the definitions are common about the processes of knowledge acquisition, knowledge distribution, interpretation, and memorization.

2.1.7. Organizational Learning in Educational Organizations

Organizational learning has triggered the interest of educational researchers. Mulford (1994) mentioned that schools moved from competitive, top-down forms of power to more collective and facilitative forms. There is not only an attempt to have first order changes like in curriculum and instruction but also have a second order change like in culture and structure in order to have a great success in the competitive environment. In addition to these statements, Aydin (2001) indicated that the inefficiency in pedagogic formation system causes unqualified managers and teachers. So in order to reach the goals and aims of the education system there is a need to have a continuous learning system.

Silins and Mulford (2004) conducted a study in schools on organizational learning and identify four dimensions of OL on schools as learning organizations. These dimensions are (a) a trusting collaborative climate, referring to the degree to which the climate and culture of school supports collaborative studying, sharing knowledge, and open communication; (b) an observed and shared vision, referring to the degree to which teachers participate in all aspects of school functions; (c) taking initiatives and risks, referring to the degree to which school leaders and the school structure supports teachers' experiences by valuing and rewarding teachers when they take initiatives and (d) professional development, referring to the degree to which there are opportunities for personnel to achieve the knowledge and capabilities necessary to improve their performance continuously.

The relationship between learning process and performance development was investigated by Kumar (2005). The results showed that individual and organizational learning predicted financial performance; and also showed that team and organizational learning are the predictors of knowledge performance.

Parallel to Kumar (2005), Garcia-Morales, Lopez-Martin, and Llamas-Sanchez (2006) mentioned that the organizational performance has a key role in organizational learning. They also founded that team learning, to have a shared vision and individual success of educators in educational organizations have a vital

role in the development of organizational learning capacity and organizational performance.

Callahan and Dorian (2007) proposed a model that define and evaluate the collaborative system between a school and a university in order to have continuous learning process in their case study compares the collaboration between two schools and a university. In the light of these studies, it can be said that collaboration among the organization members is essential in the development of organizational learning capability.

In their work of positioning organizational learning in school systems Collinson and Cook (2007) define organizational learning as the intentional use of individual, group, and system learning to conjoin new ways of thought and practices that continuously renovate and alter the organization in line with its aims. They clearly stated the terms used in their definition, for instance schools are the organizations and systems where learning can regularly occur. So it is important to distinguish the organizational learning from a regular learning process and the term deliberate must be used for pointing the planning, organized process. Also the definition is important because of mentioning the continuous renewal process of schools.

It is common in the literature that organizational learning is not crucial only for the private sector but also for non-profit organizations. Matin, Jandaghi and Moini (2007) founded a significant difference between public and non-profit schools. They mentioned that the level of organizational learning capacity in non-profit schools is higher than the capacity in public schools for every dimension that measures the level of organizational learning capacity.

Schools are natural environments where organizational learning capability has the opportunity to develop. For instance, Sarkar Arani, Shibita and Matoba (2007) mentioned that the system of “Jugyou Kenkyuu” that is applied in the schools in Tokia at the center of Japan maintains the opportunity of developing organizational learning capacity with including innovative educational applications. Another study conducted by Piggot-Irvine (2010) at a school of New-Zealand, which evaluates the organizational learning process in order to overcome with resistance to

change and improve the appraisal system. The results showed the school is a good example of organizational learning and learning organizations also organizational learning can be tool to overcome with the mentioned problems.

In educational setting, there were studies in order to measure the capacity of the schools. For example, Park (2008) developed a scale that measures whether Senge's learning organization model is applied or not. The vocational high school teachers in Seoul City, which has cultural differences, participated in the study and the scale proved to be both valid and reliable.

In addition to these studies about the structure and culture in educational organizations; there were studies about the association between organizational learning and other organizational level variables. In the study that is conducted in Boroojerd, Iran, in educational organizations, Mehrabi, Soltani, Alemzadeh and Jadidi (2013) investigated the link between organizational structure and aspects of learning organizations. They defined the organizational structure as the standardization of jobs, task division and distribution of power. The results indicated a significant relationship that is negative between organizational structure and fulfillment degree of learning organizations. Also the participants thought that the most important dimension of organizational learning is team learning.

Another example conducted by Saki, Shakiba and Savari (2013) as a case study in Tehran to analyze whether there is a connection between organizational learning and organizational innovations like product innovation, process innovation, and administrative innovations at University of Tehran or not. The findings indicated significant positive correlations between the variables.

There are different studies in Turkey that investigates the organizational learning variable in educational organizations. For instance, Töremen (1999) conducted a study which can be accepted as the initial one on the organizational learning process and its obstacles in public and private secondary schools. This study aims to define the perceptions of the managers and teachers about the roles in the OL process, OL culture and also the obstacles in the OL process. He found statistically significant differences between the perceptions of schools and also between the teachers and managers.

In contrast, another study which was conducted by Özus (2005) in schools does not show statistically significant differences between teachers and managers. In addition to this, this study shows that the awareness about passing a learning organization is significantly different from one school to another.

Ünal (2006) also conducted a study in primary schools, but the participants were the supervisors. The results show that the different qualifications of the supervisors matched with the properties of learning organizations in average or highly.

There are also studies conducted in Turkey about the capacity of schools about organizational learning. Kış and Konan (2010) mentioned that the 20th centuries schools are not qualified about the needs of 21st centuries requirements. They mentioned that in order to survive in this rapidly changing environment schools must develop themselves to have qualified characteristics.

It is known that to understand the concept of organizational learning is very crucial in order to have qualified characteristics. The study conducted by Erdem and Uçar (2013) about the perceptions of elementary school teachers in Van and the results show that they agreed on sub-dimensions of learning organization as team-learning, mental models, shared vision, and system thinking except personal mastery.

The public and private schools have different organizational climate in Turkey. Yumuşak, Yıldız and Yıldız (2012) conducted a study at public and private schools in İstanbul in order to evaluate them about the learning organization approach. The results showed that the public primary schools do not have the features of learning organization, unlike the private primary school.

In addition to the studies conducted in primary and secondary schools, there are also studies conducted in higher education in Turkey. There are different studies that are conducted in universities in Turkey (Doğan, 2010). For instance, Ergani (2006) found that the selected three programs at the university have the general features of learning organizations in his case study. Another case study at higher education system conducted by Kuru (2007) for investigating the perceptions of academicians and administrative staff showed that there is a difference between the perceptions of academicians and administrative staff about the level organizational

learning capacity. The academicians perceived the organizational learning capacity as mid-level, but the administrative staff perceived it as high-level. Moreover, Kılıç and Aytekin's (2010) study that was conducted at higher education system shows that the organizational learning culture have not been accepted by the university and the academicians do not internalize the culture of learning organizations.

These studies show that performance and organizational learning capabilities of the schools positively correlate with each other. Also team-learning is an important concept to have in order to have a considerable capability of organizational learning. The studies' findings commonly show that there is significant differences as to how managers and employees perceived organizational learning capability. In contrast to the studies conducted abroad, the schools in Turkey are not capable of organizational learning process.

All of these studies show that there is a need to differentiate the terms of organizational learning and learning organizations. The studies used the terms synonyms. Although most of them focus on the structures of the schools, they mentioned term of organizational learning. It can be said that organizational learning is focused on actions of the organization while learning organizations focused more on the structural characteristics.

2.2. Positioning Organizational Commitment

2.2.1. Defining Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is a very crucial subject in the organizational behavior concept which gives a chance to reach the aims of the organization successfully. According to the theory of Becker (1960), who had proposed one of the most recent comprehensive framework approaches about the concept of commitment, the reason behind employee commitment is "side-bets", which is a term that refers to the investments esteemed by the individual that he or she would lose if he or she were to quş the organization. Becker's point of view presents a close relation between commitment and turnover processes. This approach has drawn

attention to the cost of leaving the organization. Sowmya and Panchanatham (2011) define Becker's theory as an untenable theory because of being more in line with the behavioral rather than attitudinal approaches.

Hall, Schneider and Nygren (1970) stated organizational commitment as a process. The result of this process is high integration and congruency of individuals to the organization and its goals. According to Sheldon (1971), organizational commitment is an inclination towards an organization. It was also stated that organizational commitment draws in the identity of the person to the organizations. Salancik (1977) stated that organizational commitment attaches individuals to organizations in terms of both actions and beliefs (Sowmya & Panchanatham, 2011).

Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974) focused on commitment by defining the term as the psychological attachment an individual had towards the organization. Also, Mowday, Steers and Porter (1982) summarizes ten different definitions of the researchers until late 70s. They concluded from these definitions that there is no real consensus exist for constructing definition. So they summarize three important typologies that make the problem clear. Table 2.3 summarizes the typologies of Etzioni, Kanter, and Staw and Salancik (Mowday, et al., 1982, p.27).

Morrow and Writh (1989) defined three related factors that characterize commitment as: (1) the acceptance of and a strong faith in the goals and values of an organization; (2) a will to expend significant effort on behalf of the organization; and (3) a powerful desire to sustain membership in the organization. In the light of these, organizational commitment can be seen as a psychological state that involves beliefs in and acceptance of the worth of his or her job, and a will to pursue that job.

Despite the study carried out by Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian (1974), O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) proposed that the previous researches on organizational commitment do not focus on psychological attachment to the organization. However, they conceptualized commitment in psychological terms referring to it as the attachment of a person to the organization depending on the degree of the perspectives of the organization that is internalized or adopted by the person. According to them there are three independent factors that predict an individual's psychological attachment: (a) conformity for specific, extrinsic rewards;

(b) desire driven involvement for affiliation; and (c) internalization of the harmony between individual and organizational values.

Table 2.3

Typologies of Organizational Commitment

Author(s)	Typology	Definitions
Etzioni (1961)	Moral involvement	A positive and high-intensity orientation based on internalization of organizational goals and values and identification with authority
	Calculative involvement	A lower-intensity relationship based on a rational exchange of benefits and rewards
	Alienative involvement	A negative orientation that is found in exploitative relationships (e.g. prisons)
Kanter (1968)	Continuance commitment	Dedication to organization's survival brought on by previous personal investments and sacrifices such that leaving would be costly or impossible
	Cohesion commitment	Attachment to social relationships in an organizations brought on by such techniques as public renunciation of previous social ties or engaging in ceremonies that enhance group cohesion
Kanter (1968)	Control commitment	Attachment to organizational norms that shape behavior in desired directions resulting from requiring members to disavow previous norms publicly and reformulate their self-conceptions in terms of organizational values.
Staw (1977); Salancik (1977)	Organizational behavior	Commitment viewed in terms of a strong identification approach with and involvement in the organization brought on by a variety of factors (attitudinal commitment)
	Social psychological	Commitment viewed in terms of sunk costs invested in approach the organization that bind the individual irrevocably to the organization (behavioral commitment)

Meyer and Allen (1990) see organizational commitment through a multi-dimensional way that has three components, which are affective, continuance and normative. Affective commitment is the emotional attachment of the individual. As the affective commitment gets stronger the willingness of the employee to stay in the organization gets higher. Continuance commitment is considering the cost of leaving the organization by an employee. If the commitment of an employee is continuance it is due to being obliged to stay. The normative commitment is to be bounded to the organization because of personal norms and values. Also they mentioned that the employees that are normatively committed to the organization remain in the organization just because they believe they ought to.

Despite the fact that there are several definitions and measures made so far on organizational commitment; Sowmya, K. R. Panchanatham, N. (2011) mentioned that Meyer and Allen's (1990) three-component model of OC is based on a more comprehensive understanding of OC so it is the dominant framework for OC research. In other words, Allen and Meyer (1990) developed one of the most well-accepted model of organizational commitment which is characterized by three commitment components: affective, continuance, and normative.

2.2.2. Allen and Meyer's Three Dimensional Organizational Commitment Model

Allen and Meyer (1991) stated that there are various definitions of commitment. However they stated that these varied definitions reflect general themes as affective attachment to the organization, perceived costs of leaving the organization, feelings of liability to remain with the organization. In the light of these, they constructed a model which has three components. They also declared that these three are not the types of commitment, so it is more appropriate to consider them as components of commitment. In other words one employee can experience all of these forms of commitment with different degrees, or two or one of them in the same time. For instance an employee might feel strong obligation and need to remain; but little desire and so on.

2.2.2.1. Affective Commitment

The affective commitment reflects an employee's identification and integration to the organization and organizational goals (Chen & Francesco, 2003; Cheng & Stockdale, 2003). It can be said that the affectively committed employee sees the goals and objectives as herself or himself, accept the values of the organization strongly and shows high performance for the benefit of the organization (McGee & Ford, 1987).

2.2.2.2. Continuance Commitment

The continuance commitment can be defined as the awareness of the costs of leaving the organization (Chen & Francesco, 2003). If an employee thinks the heavy costs of leaving the organization and he or she continue his or her membership to the organization, this commitment can reflect the continuance commitment (Lamsa & Savolainen, 1999). The continuance commitment can emerge if an employee's career and benefits from the organization costs too much. So the employee continues to work although he or she wants to work or not for not paying the highly costs of leaving the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). This approach evaluates the concept of organizational commitment from the view of the relation between rewards and costs; as if the rewards are higher than costs, the OC can increase. Also because of the increased investment of the employees to the organization in time, when the time passes the costs of leaving will be increased and the possibility to lose the benefits resulted in strong commitment (Becker, 1960; Hrebiniak & Aluuto, 1972).

2.2.2.3. Normative Commitment

In 1984, with the advice of Weiner and Vardi (1980), Meyer and Allen added normative commitment to their two-component model (Meyer & Allen, 1984). The third component was constructed by Weiner in 1982. If an employee perceives his or her commitment as a must, a mission, or a right way of employment, the normative

commitment can emerge. This perception differentiates the third component from the initial two components. Normative commitment reflects the responsibility of the employees to stay in the organization. It is resulted from the feelings of continuing the membership of the organization. This component includes obligation. The employees who continue to stay in the organization under the pressure of other people and they thought that they ought to stay in the organization, it can be said that they are normatively committed to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Balay, 2000; Sezgin, 2010). When the employees believe that being a member of an organization is right and ethical either they have benefits or not, they will be normatively committed to the organization. Normative commitment is the commitment which is based on the feeling of necessity to continue to the organization with ethical concerns. It is different from the continuance commitment which relies on benefits rather than virtuousness or normative feelings.

As mentioned before an employee may affectively and continuously commits to the organization; or normatively and affectively commits; or only continuously commits and so on. The common point of these three components can be defined as the decreased turnover and turnover intention with strong commitment level (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Allen & Meyer, 1991). Cable (1995) mentioned that the feeling of continuity and decreased turnover can be developed by the fit between employee and organization. The fit between employee and organization is also an indicator of high organizational commitment level (Finegan, 2000). The employees, who have high level of organizational commitment, have low turnover intention and internalized the organizational aims and goals mostly.

2.2.3. Conformity of Allen & Meyer's OC Model to Turkish Culture

The study of Wasti (2000) determined the similarities and differences of the models in Turkish and Western literature about organizational commitment. The study shows that the "Three Dimensional Organizational Commitment Model" of Allen and Meyer is generally valid in Turkish Culture. In other words, Wasti (2000) observed that Turkish employees present the "affective commitment", "continuance

commitment” and “normative commitment” of Allen and Meyer’s model in their behaviors. Moreover the results of this study show that normative commitment is a kind of commitment which can be seen in the collectivistic cultures like Turkey where the employees prefer the organizations with the family environment which they are protected and noticed.

2.2.4. Teachers’ Organizational Commitment

Organizational Commitment is not a passive obedience, in contrast, as Mowday and his colleagues (1982) mentioned it was a willingness to reach the goals of the organizations. The crucial subject for the educational organizations is having teachers’ ability of transforming a huge energy to the target audience, students. This can be able to demonstrate the commitment of teachers (Serin & Buluç, 2012).

Collie, Shapka and Perry (2011) summarized teacher commitment in different forms as organizational commitment, commitment to profession, commitment to students, commitment to the academic goals of a school and etc. They mentioned that all forms of commitment are predictors of teacher attrition, turnover, absenteeism, teaching performance and teacher burnout. The studies in the related literature shows that committed teachers make more plans to enhance the school quality and the teaching and classroom management techniques and practices (Firestone, 1996; Perk, 2005).

In the study of Anderman, Bezler and Smith (1991), the results show that affiliation, recognition and accomplishment are the strongest predictors of commitment; also teachers feel committed to their schools when the environment stresses these qualities.

The educational literature has also examples about the relationship between organizational commitment and positive work outcomes like job satisfaction. For instance, Shin and Reyes (1991) assessed the causal priority of teacher commitment and job satisfaction. The findings indicated that commitment and satisfaction are moderately correlated but separate concepts and also satisfaction is a determinant of commitment.

Another study of Firestone and Pennel's (1993) developed a framework for assessing the effect of working conditions and differential incentive policies on teacher commitment. They recommended combining policies that increase participation, collaboration and feedback because of their direct effect on increased teacher commitment.

Parallel to these studies, Hulpia, Devos and Van Keer (2010) conducted a study on how distributed leadership influenced teacher's organizational commitment. They stated that in predicting teachers' organizational commitment, a cooperative leadership team and the amount of leadership support has a significant role. Furthermore, participative decision-making and distribution of the supportive leadership function were found to have a significant positive effect on teachers' organizational commitment. Conversely, distribution of the supervisory leadership function and the job experience of instructors had a significant negative effect on teachers' organizational commitment.

To sum up, it can be said that there is a positive relationship between organizational commitment, working conditions, and positive working outcomes in educational settings.

There are also studies on organizational commitment of educational staff in Turkey. For instance, Celep (1998) found that teachers are highly dedicated to their job and this dedication is mostly related to the teaching profession rather than school.

In contrast to dedication to profession, Balay (2000) conducted a study on organizational commitment in public and private high schools to teachers and principals. This study evaluates the type of the organization in the name of the relation with organizational commitment. The results show that both teachers and principals in private high schools have higher organizational commitment scores than the teachers and principals in public high schools.

In the name of the organizational processes, Sarıdede and Doyuran (2004) analyzed the relations between the participation to the decision making process, the turnover intention and organizational commitment in educational organizations. The results indicate that teachers' participation level to the decision making process has an indirect negative relation with the turnover intention. Meyer and Allen's (1991)

three dimensional model was used in order to measure teachers' organizational commitment level. The findings show that the turnover intention has a significant negative relationship between the affective and normative commitment, while the negative relationship between normative commitment and the turnover intention is not significant.

Parallel to these, in the study of examining the organizational commitment of teachers in primary schools Balay (2007) found that organizational commitment is especially related to the conflict management styles of comprising and problem solving; and also organizational commitment is seen as the only predictor of conflict management strategy of fostering. These studies show that management styles have significant effect on organizational commitment in educational organizations.

In line with Balay's study in 2007, in the study that investigates the relationship between educational leadership and organizational commitment, Serin and Buluç (2012) found that dimensions of educational leadership have a mid-level effect on organizational commitment. In addition, the correlational analysis showed that there is a positive mid-level significant correlation and also 31 % of the variance of organizational commitment is explained by the subscales of educational leadership according to the regression analysis results.

In addition to these in the meta-analysis study of Aydın, Sarier, and Uysal (2013), twelve different studies on educational leadership and its influence on job satisfaction and organizational commitment were analyzed. The results showed that leadership has a great role in the level of organizational commitment resulted in high level of motivation.

In the name of organizational level factors, Yılmaz's (2009) study on primary school teachers shows that there is a close relationship between organizational commitment, job satisfaction and organizational creativity. Parallel to this, Balay and İpek (2010) examined organizational culture and organizational commitment in primary schools. According to their study's results, compliance based of organizational commitment positively correlated with the power and role culture; whereas it is negatively correlated with success and supportive culture.

There are also studies which evaluates individual differences. Topaloğlu, Koç and Yavuz (2008) conducted a study in primary and secondary schools' teachers in Ankara. The findings show that the demographic factors as gender, profession experience, salary and having administrative function have an impact on teachers' organizational commitment except the factor of age. Also, it was mentioned that the level of commitment of secondary school teachers is higher than the primary school teachers. Moreover, the teachers who have administrative function are more committed than the teachers who have not. Parallel to the related literature the level of commitment of novice teachers is higher than the experienced ones; and also teachers who are satisfied from their salaries are more committed to their organizations than the ones who are not satisfied.

In the study of examining the level of organizational commitment of teachers, in İzmir, Turkey, who work in primary schools Kurşunoğlu, Bakay and Tanrıöğen (2010) found out that according to Meyer and Allen (1991) theory, the dimension of commitment that teachers mostly express the affective commitment, then the normative commitment and continuous commitment are seen respectively. In addition to these analyses were conducted in order to understand whether there is a difference between the groups according demographic factors or not. The results indicated that teaching subject and present school experience make a significant difference on all the three dimensions of organizational commitment while work experience does not have any significant effect on them. Gender and marital status do not have a significant effect on teachers' affective and continuous commitment, but both of the demographic variables have a significant effect on normative commitment of teachers. So it was mentioned that male teachers have higher level of normative commitment than the female teachers and married teachers' normative commitment level is higher than the single teachers' normative commitment. The conducted variance analysis showed that continuous and normative commitment does not change according to age of the teachers, while affective commitment changes. It was observed that the level of affective commitment of youngest teachers is higher than the oldest teachers.

In contrast, Nartgün and Menep (2010) study the perceptions on organizational commitment of primary school teachers in Şırnak city of Turkey. The study carried out the organizational commitment with Meyer and Allen's (1984) dimensions and investigates whether there is a difference between the perceptions of teachers according to their demographic features or not. The results show that there is not a significance difference between female and male teachers' organizational commitment levels in all the dimensions as affective, normative and continuous commitment. In parallel the marital status does not have a significant effect on organizational commitment level. Moreover, although there is not a significance difference between teachers according to their experience in profession in the level of continuous and normative commitment, there is a significant difference in the level of affective commitment of teachers.

2.3. Positioning Work Engagement

2.3.1. Defining Work Engagement

Work engagement has become a popular term in academic research in contrast to job burnout. Kahn (1990) is the first scholar who conceptualizes the term. First of all Kahn (1990) mentioned the physical, cognitive, emotional and mental relationship between person and work than he differentiated the engagement concept from psychological presence and evaluated the concept from a behaviorist perspective; so assumed engagement as producing positive outcomes. Also, Kahn (1990) suggested that there are daily changes in the experience of work engagement of one person opposite to the idea of the conceptualization of work engagement as a relatively fixed individual difference variable (Salanova et al., 2000, Schaufeli and Bakker, 2008; Wang & Qin, 2011).

Although it is common in the literature that Kahn (1990) is the first scholar who conceptualizes work engagement Hegarty (1960) mentioned that for being engaged a worker should like his job if he or she is good at it, he or she can do it in his or her way, he or she gets recognition for doing it well, he or she feels it

important, he or she feels that he or she has accomplished something and etc. Also he defines the factors for enthusiasm as the (a) work itself, (b) company, (c) leaders, (d) product or service, (e) what the product or service does for the customers, (f) conditions of work, (g) customers, (h) coworkers, and (i) future. In addition to these he defines the importance of organization for enthusiasm and engagement about the work as the pride in the company's background, size, place in the industry, and contribution to the sector, accomplishments, reputation and stability.

It can be seen that the aspects that are mentioned by Hegarty (1960) are the job resources from the JD-R model Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreider and Schaufelli (2001). Work engagement is generally regarded as a function of job resources, personal resources, and job demands. The JD-R model defines job demands and job resources. The physical and psychological costs like high work pressure, poor environmental condition and problems. In contrast to this the physical, psychological, social and organizational aspects that reduces job demands and stimulate personal development and growth like are refer to job resources.

The level of organization at large such as salary and career opportunities, the interpersonal level like supervisors and team working, the level of the organization of work such as participative management and task level that refers to performance feedback, task significance, task identity, skill variety and task autonomy are the four levels where the job resources located (Demerouti et. al., 2001). There are different studies which investigate the relation between job engagement and the balance between job demands and resources. The studies show that work engagement correlates with job demands and resources (Bakker, Demerouti & Euwema, 2005; Hakanen, Bakker & Schaufelli, 2006; Schaufelli & Bakker. 2004; Schin, 2003).

Another different conceptualization perspective belongs to Maslach, Schaufelli and Leiter (2001), which considers work engagement as the positive antithesis of burnout. This approach mentioned that engagement is characterized by energy, involvement and efficacy. However, a different view regards work engagement as a separate concept, which has a negative relationship with burnout.

Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma and Bakker (2002) characterized work engagement by vigor, dedication and absorption and saw it as a positive and

satisfactory state of mind related to work. Vigor involves high levels of energy, the will to put in the required effort, mental resilience while working, and persistence to carry on when faced with challenges. Dedication refers to strong and tireless involvement in work. Absorption means a full concentration on and a joyful involvement one's work. In the light of these it can be said that work engagement can differ within person, there is no need to have differences only between individuals.

It is clear that, Schaufelli and his colleagues (2002) defined work engagement as a permanent and pervasive state that is both affective and cognitive, not a momentary and specific state that is focused on a particular object, event, individual or behavior. Parallel to this, according to Kirkpatrick (2007) an employee's interest in, enthusiasm for and investment in his or her job can be defined as work engagement. In accordance with this, Macey and Schneider (2008) specified two constituents of employee engagement which are feelings of engagement (focus and enthusiasm) and engagement behavior (proactively and persistence).

In the light of these, Leiter and Bakker (2010) defined work engagement as affective-motivational state of work-related well-being that is satisfactory and which can be seen as a remedy for job burnout.

The definitions in the literature are common about being affective and positive state of organizational commitment. They also commonly mentioned that work engagement focuses on enthusiasm.

Researches nowadays regard work engagement as a concept in the light of Schaufelli and his colleagues (2002) point of view and the JD-R Model of Bakker and Demerouti (2007). Besides the relation with burnout, work engagement is also compared with workaholism. The reason of this both the engaged workers and workaholics are passionate hard workers (Gorgievski, Bakker, & Schaufelli, 2010).

In their work of differentiating workaholism and work engagement, Taris, Schaufeli and Shimazu (2010) said that engaged employees are hard-working, dedicated and engrossed in their work and that they worked simply because of the joy they get from their job.

As mentioned in many of the definitions, the related literature shows that engaged employees are enthusiastically involved in their work. There is a famous saying by Ralph Waldo Emerson “Nothing great has been achieved without enthusiasm”. Enthusiasm is a kind of energy that a person spends for accomplishing great things. So the term job enthusiasm refers to the employee who has high motivation and willingness to accomplish his performance with a great energy. It is obvious that the energy and task-focus are key predictors allowing employees to bring their full potential to their job (Bakker and Leitter, 2010).

In addition to these, it is obvious that organizations need to create positive work conditions that are healthy and which allow the employees to feel safe in a trustworthy environment. Related researches indicated that the level of work engagement is influenced by personal characteristics, the work place and the characteristics of the work (Adekola, 2010). For instance, Koyuncu, Burke & Fiksenbaum (2006) conducted a study in a Turkish Bank and resulted that the three engagement factors as vigor, dedication and absorption are strongly predicted by work experiences as levels of control, rewards and recognition, and work load. Moreover, the researchers found positive correlations between work engagement and some variables like job satisfaction, intention to quit, physical and emotional health parallel to the other studies (Gonzalez-Roma et al., 2006; Hakanen et al., 2006; Langelaan, Bakker, Doornen & Schaufelli, 2006) which reflects the necessity of having a thorough understanding of and increasing the level of work engagement of the employees in an organization.

In the level of organizational factors, Dalay (2007) investigates the relationship between job engagement and other variables as organizational trust, organizational commitment and job involvement. The study was conducted in a large scale state hospital and it was found that there is a positive relationship between job engagement and organizational commitment. Also a moderate relationship was detected between job involvement and the “vigor” factor of work engagement. In accordance, human resources practices can also create and develop work engagement. These show that management has the responsibility to create the conditions for employees’ engagement (Macey and Schneider, 2008).

The researches that are conducted on the consequences of work engagement show that there is a positive relationship between work engagement and positive outcomes like low absenteeism, low turnover, job satisfaction, high performance and high organizational commitment (Salanova, et al., 2000; Schaufelli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufelli et al., 2002). In general, researches have suggested that personal characteristic, the work place, job status, and job demands are the factors that affect the work engagement (Kirkpatrick, 2007; Adekola, 2010).

2.3.2. Teachers' Work Engagement

There are studies which investigate work engagement in schools (Adekola, 2010; Hakenen et.al., 2006; Klassen, Aldhafri, Mansfield, Purwanto, Siu, Wong, McConney, 2012; Wang & Qin, 2011).

The related literature has examples which investigate whether individual differences have impact on teachers' work engagement or not. For instance, Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990) found that profession career has a significant effect on the level of teacher commitment. The novice teachers' commitment is influenced more by organizational supports for the management of boundary issues, while experienced teachers are influenced more by organizational qualities that affect the core instructional tasks. In addition to these, mid-career teachers have a lower commitment to their jobs and place a greater emphasis on task autonomy than do either novices or veterans.

Another study belongs to Güner (2006) studied on whether personal characteristics of the teachers affect the work engagement of the teachers or not. The results showed that some of the characteristics have a direct effect on work engagement.

From a different point of view, the effect of temporary differences was investigated by Ouweneel, Blanc, Schaufeli and Wijhe (2012). They conducted a study at a university to academicians and the results shows that the experience of daily positive emotions had an indirect effect on the level of the dimensions of work

engagement. According to the findings, academicians who have positive emotions after work, presents high level of engagement on the following day.

In the light of these studies, it can be said that individual differences and temporary feelings that the individuals experienced have direct effect on the level of teachers' work engagement.

There are also studies investigates the relationship between teachers' work engagement and organizational factors and outcomes. For example, according to Bakker and Bal (2010) the studies that are conducted in educational settings show that the teachers display higher teaching performance when they are engaged their work and also some researches show that teacher engagement has effects on students enthusiasm for learning (McKinney, Larkins, Kazelskis, Ford, Allen and Davis, 2001). McKinney and his colleagues mention that teacher enthusiasm with high engagement has both negative and positive effects. For instance an enthusiastic teacher can increase the performance of learning in contrast may have problems about the classroom discipline. So they stated that many of the students behave more appropriately when their teachers perform medium level enthusiasm. However it is very common in the literature that engaged teachers who display enthusiastic and higher teaching performance have students who are engaged in learning (Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon & Kaplan, 2007).

Çelik (2008) also conducted a study in the primary schools in Turkey. They investigated the relationship between work engagement and the leadership models of the principals of the schools. The results show that there is a significant relationship between the variables.

Another study was conducted by Turhan, Demirli and Nazik (2012) to classroom teachers in Elazığ, Turkey for investigating the factors that affect the work engagement level of teachers. According to the findings, job enjoyment, job effort, job appreciation, social status and job strain are the main factors that predict the teachers' work engagement.

These studies show that organizational factors like leadership styles and positive organizational outcomes like performance directly affect the level of teachers' work engagement. So, there are individual and organizational factors affect

the level of teachers' work engagement. The related literature cannot be so clear about the meaning of organizational commitment and work engagement. So there is a need to differentiate these two concepts.

2.4. Differentiating Organizational Commitment and Work Engagement

The related educational literature shows that the studies are mostly conducted to investigate teacher commitment. The term of teacher commitment generally include the terms of organizational commitment and work engagement. However there are some studies on teacher commitment which used these terms interchangeably. For instance Firestone and Pennell (1993) studied on teacher commitment that refers to organizational commitment, while Rozenholtz and Simpson (1990) studied only the work engagement for identifying teacher commitment. So there is a need to differentiate organizational commitment and work engagement that can be defined as job commitment.

Collie and her colleagues (2011) mentioned from Coladarci (1992) that professional commitment-work engagement, refers to the amount of psychological attachment a teacher has towards his or her profession. In contrast, from the definition of Mowday, Steers and Porter (1992) they mentioned that organizational commitment refers to the degree of identification and involvement that an individual has within an organization. Parallel to these, Bakker and Leiter (2010) stated that organizational commitment is a binding element between an individual and the organization, unlike the work engagement that is about being involved in the work itself.

In summary, when a teacher is psychologically attached to the school where he or she is working, the addressed term should be organizational commitment. However, when the teacher is psychologically attached to the teaching profession, the addressed term should be work engagement. Bakker and Leiter (2010) mentioned that the very notion of engagement is superfluous when it is used as synonyms with organizational commitment as used in business literature.

2.5. Positioning Core-Self Evaluations

2.5.1. Defining Core-Self Evaluations

Gardner and Pierce (2009) mentioned that although there have been several more empirical studies on core self-evaluation within the organizational context before Judge and his colleagues published the essay about the core self-evaluations in *Research in Organizational Behavior* in 1997; it is common in the literature that Judge and his colleagues introduced the core self-evaluations concept for the first time. They theorized the dispositional bases of job satisfaction. First of all, Judge et al., (2003) viewed the core self-evaluation construct as a broad, latent, higher-order trait which indicates three well established personality traits as self-esteem (e.g., Rosenberg, 1965), self-efficacy (e.g., Locke, McClear, & Knight, 1996), and absence of neuroticism or emotional stability (e.g., Watson, 2000). Later, in the light of Judge and his colleagues' additional researches, an additional trait as locus of control (e.g., Rotter, 1966) is accepted. Then a construct, consisted of self-esteem, self-efficacy, absence of neuroticism, and internal locus of control, has been treated by Judge and his colleagues (e.g., Judge et al., 2003). Self-esteem is a term used in psychology to reflect the overall evaluation or appraisal of a person about his or her own worth. Beliefs like "I am worthy" are encompassed by self-esteem. Also emotions like pride and shame are encompassed by self-esteem.

Self-efficacy can be defined as the belief of a person in his or her own competence. It is believed that our social interactions are effected by our beliefs on our own self efficacy. A person who has high self-efficacy is mostly productive and happy.

Neuroticism is one of the main personality attributes in psychology. It is a continuous tendency to have negative emotional states. The feelings as anxiety, anger, guilt, and depressed mood are indications of neuroticism. Environmental stress, ordinary situations are threatening, and frustrating situations for the people who have high scores in neuroticism. In contrast individuals who have low neuroticism levels are more stable in emotional terms and are more reluctant to

stress. They are usually calm, coldblooded, and less likely to feel nervous. So the term absence of neuroticism can be used as emotional stability.

The last term locus of control on the other hand, is related to how an individual perceives the main underlying causes of events in his or her life. The construct was originally developed by Julian Rotter in the 1950s. A locus of control orientation are beliefs as to whether our actions are dependent on what we do (internal control orientation) or on events that are out of our control (external control orientation). External Locus of Control means to believe that our behavior is managed by fate, luck, or other external circumstances; in contrast Internal Locus of Control on the other hand is to believe that our behaviors are guided by our own decisions and efforts (Rotter, 1966).

Srivastava, Locke, Judge and Adams (2010) stated the three criteria that were used by Judge et al. to investigate existing traits in the related literature that might be regarded as measures of CSE. These three criteria are evaluation focus, fundamentality and breadth of scope. The evaluation focus addresses the extent to which the trait comprises self-evaluation rather than self-description. The second criteria fundamentality refers the level of being closer to the source trait rather than a surface trait of one trait. The source and surface traits are identified by Cattell (1946). His model consisted of three types of traits as second-order traits, source traits and surface traits. An individual's personality type which differs from one to another can be defined as source trait. These traits are not formed by value variations, specific situations or influences. Calmness, excitability or jitteriness can be given as the examples of source traits. In contrast, surface traits are projected by the individual according to the situation and environment. These traits can be determined by multiple influences or sources. The third criteria, breadth of scope means that the primary traits have broader scope compared to that of secondary traits. Cardinal traits are one of the three human personalities which are determined by Gordon Allport (1936). Allport mentioned that the most dominant traits that characterize almost all of an individual's personality can be defined as cardinal traits. So it is obvious that Judge and his colleagues identified four traits that met these three criteria (Judge et al., 1997; Judge et al., 1998; Judge, Erez & Bono 1998). For

instance, self-esteem is the main and most comprehensive for of self-evaluation since it reflects the total value that one places on oneself (Locke, McClear & Knight, 1996). Also, Smith (1989) mentioned that generalized self-efficacy is an assessment of how well one can deal with the challenges faced in life. In addition, one's evaluation of one's ability to manage life outcomes is defined as a high internal locus of control by Srivastava et al. (2010). Moreover, low neuroticism demonstrates personal stability and strength towards negative emotions.

In the light of these Core Self-Evaluations can be referred to how you assess yourself, in other words what your perception is about yourself. The high CES means you are satisfied with yourself, your goal commitment is high, and you are a motivated individual, also you are emotionally stable; moreover you have internal locus of control. In contrast low CES means that you have external locus of control, you are not emotionally stable and you have low success so you cannot satisfied with yourself.

In the study of assessing the core self-evaluation theory, Chen (2011) summarized the negative and positive critics about the theory and concluded that the studies conducted in organizational behavior literature show that core self-evaluation construct explains and meaningful variance of employee-level outcomes. It is obvious in the related literature that CES construct can be useful in organizational behavior research but not enough on developing more understanding of why or how.

The organizational behavior literature has many studies that investigate the relationship between core self-evaluations and organizational outcomes like job satisfaction, work performance, engagement, commitment and etc. in different sectors (Cope, & Wuensch, 2009; Joo, Yoon & Jeung, 2012; Judge et al., 1999; Kittinger, Walker, Rich, Levin and Crawford, 2010; Stumpp, Hülshager, Muck and Maier, 2009). Although, there are many studies conducted abroad, Gürbüz (2010) mentioned that there are only two graduate theses on the concept of core self-evaluations in Turkey. Kisbu (2006) conducted her study on taxi drivers in order to understand the influence of core self-evaluation on biases in perception and choice. The results show a significant on the dependent variables. Güven (2007) studied on the core self-evaluations' effect on performance appraisals with the participations of

university students. The findings indicated that performance appraisals were not affected by core self-evaluations. In 2010, Gürbüz conducted a study the core self-evaluations as an antecedent of job performance and job satisfaction and found that core self-evaluations significantly predicts the job performance and job satisfaction in IT sector.

2.5.2. Teachers' Core Self-Evaluations

As stated above there is huge gap in the related literature about the concept of core self-evaluations in Turkey. Moreover the literature is scarce about the studies on core self-evaluations teachers and other constituencies in educational organizations. There are very few studies which were conducted to students especially college or university students abroad. However there is not any study discovered to teachers or instructors.

2.6. Relationships between Organizational learning, Organizational Commitment and Core Self-evaluations

Although there are many studies on organizational commitment, learning organizations in educational settings, there are limited numbers of studies on core self-evaluation. Efficacy beliefs of teachers are studies extensively in Turkey and other parts of the world. However, core self-evaluation is a broader concept. More importantly the interrelationships among these three set of variables are not investigated in the in the literature. Therefore, in the following section of the literature review, studies on different combination of these three sets of variables are reviewed.

2.6.1. Organizational Learning and Organizational Commitment

The process of transforming a learning organization, should primarily start with an organization's employees' learning (Özalp, Uzun & Yelkikalan, 1998;

Yalçın & Ay, 2011). It is obvious that employees have the intellect to transform individual knowledge into organizational knowledge. So the level of an employee's organizational commitment is a great support to organizational learning (Akpınar, 2007).

Organizational Commitment enables the employees to adopt the organization's goals and values and have a strong belief and willingness to remain in the system and moreover to use all their potential for the organization and surpass the effort expected from them (Erdem & Uçar, 2013). Atak (2009) mentioned that organizations can only assure a long lasting continuity via the commitment of their employees, which give chance to the organizations to build an organizational memory and then transform a learning organization.

Some studies, which are conducted abroad especially in private sector, shows that the correlation between organizational learning and affective organizational commitment is moderate (Joo, 2010; Joo & Lim, 2009). Krishna (2008) found that learning organization is a significant predictor of organizational commitment. Kasim et al. (2008) indicated that organizational learning and organizational commitment has a moderate positive relationship 31% of the variance of organizational commitment is explained by organizational learning. In another study Hsu (2009) mentioned that organizational learning explains the 55% of the variance of organizational commitment. Joo and Shim (2010) found that organizational learning have a positive significant effect on the level of organizational commitment. Tseng (2010) pointed that organizational learning and organizational commitment have a moderate relationship. Phromket, Thanyaphirak and Phromket (2012) mentioned that organizational learning culture has a positive impact on employee commitment, defined as psychologically attached to the place worked, in their study conducted in a Thai university. Also, Islami Kahn, Ahmad and Ahmed (2013) founded that organizational learning culture and organizational commitment are correlated with each other and organizational commitment performs a role of mediator between organizational learning culture and turnover intention.

The related literature shows that the studies conducted in private sector is more than the public sector and also studies on the relationship between

organizational learning and organizational commitment in educational organizations is scarce, especially in Turkey. Also, there is a few numbers of studies that are conducted in higher education system.

In the study that investigates the effect of learning organization on organizational commitment as a predictor, the regression analysis of Turan, Karadağ and Bektaş (2011) shows that whole of the sub-dimensions of learning organizations explains 32 % of the organizational commitment.

Balay (2012) compared the private and public universities in the name of the effects of learning organization perception to the organizational commitment. The results indicated that the perceptions of the faculty members in private universities are more positive than the perception of the faculty members of public universities. Also, there is not a significant impact of learning organization dimensions on organizational commitment.

Erdem and Uçar (2013) conducted a study in primary schools in Van in 2010-2011 education year and found a significant relationship between organizational commitment and organizational learning.

All of the mentioned studies show that there is significance difference between the perceptions of the employees in private and public sector in the name of organizational learning and organizational commitment. There are studies which found a significant relationship between organizational learning and organizational commitment, while some studies cannot found this kind of relation. The studies investigate the causal relation show that these two concepts do not significantly affect each other.

2.6.2. Organizational Learning and Work Engagement

There is only one study encountered in the literature about the variables of organizational learning and work engagement. In their work of documentation Firestone and Pennell (1993) mentioned that increasing learning opportunities of teachers' directly affects the level of their engagement to teaching.

2.6.3. Organizational Commitment and Core-Self Evaluations

There are several studies conducted on the relationship between core self-evaluations and relevant workplace constructs. However, Kittinger, Walker, Cope, and Wuensch (2009) mentioned that there is only one study which is conducted in 1999 in order to examine the relationship between organizational commitment and core self-evaluations. Kittinger and his colleagues also claimed that the researchers have totally neglected the relationship between organizational commitment and core self-evaluations. The unique study conducted in 1999, mentioned by Kittinger and et.al. (2009), by Judge, Thoresen, Pucik and Welbourne is not directly about the relationship between organizational commitment and core self-evaluations. The study examined seven traits loaded to two factors and the results shows that these traits significantly predicts coping with organizational change and coping with organizational change was related to organizational commitment (Judge et al., 1999).

Kittinger and his colleagues' (2009) study examined the relationship between core self-evaluations and affective commitment indicates that there is a meaningful relationship between affective commitment and core self-evaluations.

Stumpp, Hülshager, Muck and Maier (2009) founded that there is moderate correlation between CSE and organizational commitment. They also mentioned that people who have high levels of core self-evaluations will have more job satisfaction and will also be more committed to the organization that they work for.

Joo, Yoon and Jeung (2012) conducted a study which directly analyzes the relationship between core self-evaluations and organizational commitment. It was founded that CSE contributed to OC which means that employees displayed higher organizational commitment when they had higher CSE. Also, it was mentioned that there is direct positive relationship between these two variables.

2.6.4. Organizational commitment and Work Engagement

As mentioned above organizational commitment and work engagement are the concepts that are used interchangeably. Although the studies should differentiate

the concepts, there is a few studies which investigates the relationship between these variables.

Hakanen, Schaufeli and Ahola (2008) discovered a positive significant relationship between organizational commitment and work engagement. Similarly, in their study conducted in a tertiary education institution in South Africa, Field and Buitendach (2011) founded that there is a significant relationship between affective organizational commitment and work engagement with a large effect size.

2.6.5. Work Engagement and Core-Self Evaluations

Rich, Levin and Crawford (2010) stated from Kahn (1990) that the psychological availability gives a chance to individuals to be ready to engage a particular moment. So they thought that the individuals who are psychologically available can put their energy to their performance. They also stated from Kahn (1990) that in addition to physical, cognitive and emotional energies the individuals who are confident more likely feel themselves available and prepared to engage their energy to their jobs. In the light of these they thought that whether individuals who have high core-self evaluations tend to feel more capable of dealing with work demands and also perceive a higher level of availability to invest themselves to their performance. So they analyzed whether core self-evaluations and work engagement are related. The results showed that there is positive relationship between these two variables.

Parallel to this Karatepe, Keshavarz and Nejati (2010) conducted a study in Iran to Hotel employees whether core self-evaluations has an effect on work engagement. The results demonstrate that while CSE is a partial mediator in terms of the impact of co-worker support on vigour, while it is full mediator with regards the relationship between coworker support and dedication. However, CSE do not act as mediator between coworker support and absorption.

In addition to these there is not any study in the literature which studies on the relationship between organizational learning and core self-evaluations.

2.7. Education System in Turkey

2.7.1. The General Structure of Turkish Education System

According to the Basic National Education Law No.1739 published in the official gazette in 1973, the National Education System in Turkey consists of two main parts of “formal education” and “informal education”. Formal Education is the regular education conducted within a school for a certain age group and also at the same level, under developed programs in accordance with the purpose of national education system (MoNE, 2013). General, vocational and technical education programs are applied under this education system. In contrast, informal education is a system for citizens who have never attended formal education or have left at any level. This system aims to provide education for the different age groups and different levels under the common purposes according to the needs of the participants in suitable time and location (Sarpkaya, 2008; MoNE, 2013).

This study covers the teachers working at the formal education system. Therefore, it is necessary to describe the formal education system in Turkey.

2.7.1.1. Formal Education in Turkey

It is known that in 2012 the Turkish education system is restructured. The eight year compulsory education increased to twelve consisting three levels, generally known as 4+4+4.

With the new regulations formal education includes pre-primary, primary school, lower-secondary school, upper secondary and higher education institutions.

The first level named as primary schools includes the 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th grade students, the second level named as lower secondary school or junior high school include the 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th grades and the last level named as upper secondary school includes the 9th, 10th, 11th and 12th grades. However according to the issued mandating by the ministry, the term primary schools and lower secondary school

have been named as primary education and upper secondary education has been named as secondary education.

2.7.1.1.1. Primary Education

Minister of National Education defines the aim of primary education as having good citizens by acquiring the necessary knowledge, skills, behavior and habits. These knowledge, skills, behaviors and habits should be in accordance with the national morals. Moreover, it acts as a bridge for the next educational level in accordance with his or her interests, talents and capabilities (MoNE, 2013).

Primary education institutions consist of the four year compulsory and the lower secondary schools which give opportunity to allow between different programs. The compulsory primary school age involves generally the age group of 6 to 13. In other words, the children completed 66 months on September enroll to the primary schools and the children from 60 to 66 months can enroll to the schools according to their parents' preferences.

There are also open lower secondary schools which are the institutions that provide the opportunity of completing lower secondary education to the citizens who could not attend to lower secondary education because of any reasons although they completed the primary education. The open lower secondary schools have the method of distance education, so there is not any division or teacher in this system.

2.7.1.1.2. Upper Secondary Education

Upper secondary education includes all the teaching institutions as general secondary schools and vocational and technical ones. These are the education institutions with at least four year compulsory formal or non-formal education, based on primary and lower secondary education.

To enable all students have the awareness of the problems of individuals and society and the power of having solutions in order to contribute to country's economical, social and cultural development by giving a minimum level of general

common cultural norms and to prepare the students to the higher education system and/or life also for job fields according to their interests, aptitudes and abilities by various schools and programs can be accepted as the general objectives of upper secondary education.

General secondary education is a four year compulsory educational process that prepares students both for higher education and for the future in accordance to their interests, expectations and abilities. Also to equipping them with world knowledge with an education based on primary education is one of the missions of general secondary education.

Like the general secondary schools, vocational and technical secondary education is a compulsory four year educational process that prepares the students for higher education and future and also especially for an occupation and job fields.

There are also open upper secondary high schools which offer education to students who are not able to attend formal educational institutions providing face-to-face education, who have completed the formal education stage in terms of age, and who want to follow an open upper secondary high school while attending upper secondary high school. As mentioned before there are not any classes and teachers in the system. The Turkish Education System is illustrated in Figure 2.2.

2.7.2. The Structure of Turkish Education System

The organizational structure can be defined as selecting the organizational model and specifying the levels and the authority and responsibilities according to these levels (Sarpkaya, 2008). In addition to this the anatomy, physiology and hierarchy, also the interactions between the structured divisions are the indicators of an organization's structure.

When the Turkish education history is reviewed, it can be seen that in 1920, Ministry of National Education is one of the established ministries by Grand National Assembly of Turkey. Moreover, in 1924 with the law on Unification of Education Act *Tevhid-i Tedrisat Kanunu*, education came under the control of the state in order to provide the unity after the War of Independence.

Başaran (2006) mentioned that with establishment of Turkish Republic the central state had the authority in the educational administration. In the light of these, the organizational structure of the Turkish Education system is a centralized organizational structure.

Like the management of other public services the Turkish educational system has adopted the centralized management in the name of educational administration. The Ministry of National Education which holds the educational services has been organizationally structured according to the principles of centralized management.

The Ministry of National Education transferred its duties and authorities to the provincial administrators by legal regulations under the principle of decentralized authorities of central organizations, which is a smoothed version of centralized management styles. This means that to increase the participation of the local officials to the decision-making process by taking their views, not the reduction of decision-making power of the state.

The Ministry of National Education is organizationally structured with central organization, field organization, foreign council and subsidiaries by the legal laws and regulations. Moreover, the legislations give the authority to establish new field organizations to the Ministry.

2.7.3. Teaching Profession in Turkey

The entry to the profession of teaching is carried out by KPSS exam, the examination of public personnel selection, like the other public sector employee whether they are permanently employed or contracted. This general proficiency exam is mostly based on citizenship knowledge. However in recent years a part that measures the knowledge educational sciences has been added to the exam. The related literature criticizes the exam because of not measuring the professional knowledge and skills gained during the pre-service training. Also the success in the higher education period does not take into consideration in this kind of selection process.

Like the other public professions the first year in the profession is considered as the nomination period for recognizing the school and system, to become aware of personal competencies and weaknesses and to enhance self-confidence by eliminating the deficiencies. In fact, many of the teacher candidates take the responsibility of a classroom, even work as a school administrator without a preparation training program in their first assigned year (Özoğlu, Gür & Altunoğlu, 2011).

The professional development of teachers is a crucial subject. There has been variety of activities and programs organized by central and local education authorities for the quality and continuous professional development of teachers. The Ministry of National Education and Provincial Directorate mostly planned and organized these activities and programs at the central level and also the schools are responsible from these activities and programs at the local level. Most of these activities for teachers' professional development are in the form of in-service training activities like seminars, courses, workshops and conferences. From 2005, the Turkish Ministry of National Education introduced "The Teacher Career Ladder System" (TCLS) in order to encourage the continuous professional development of teachers. Within the frame of TCLS teaching profession is divided in to three career steps as teacher level, master teacher level and head teacher level. Teachers advance from one step to other by gaining necessary competencies (MEB, 2006). In addition to seniority in the profession and the exams conducted by TCLS, master and PhD degrees are the criteria for the competencies that give chance to advance in the career steps (Özdemir, 2013).

It is common in Turkish culture that teaching profession is a holy profession. Teachers are continuing to be highly respected members of the Turkish community.

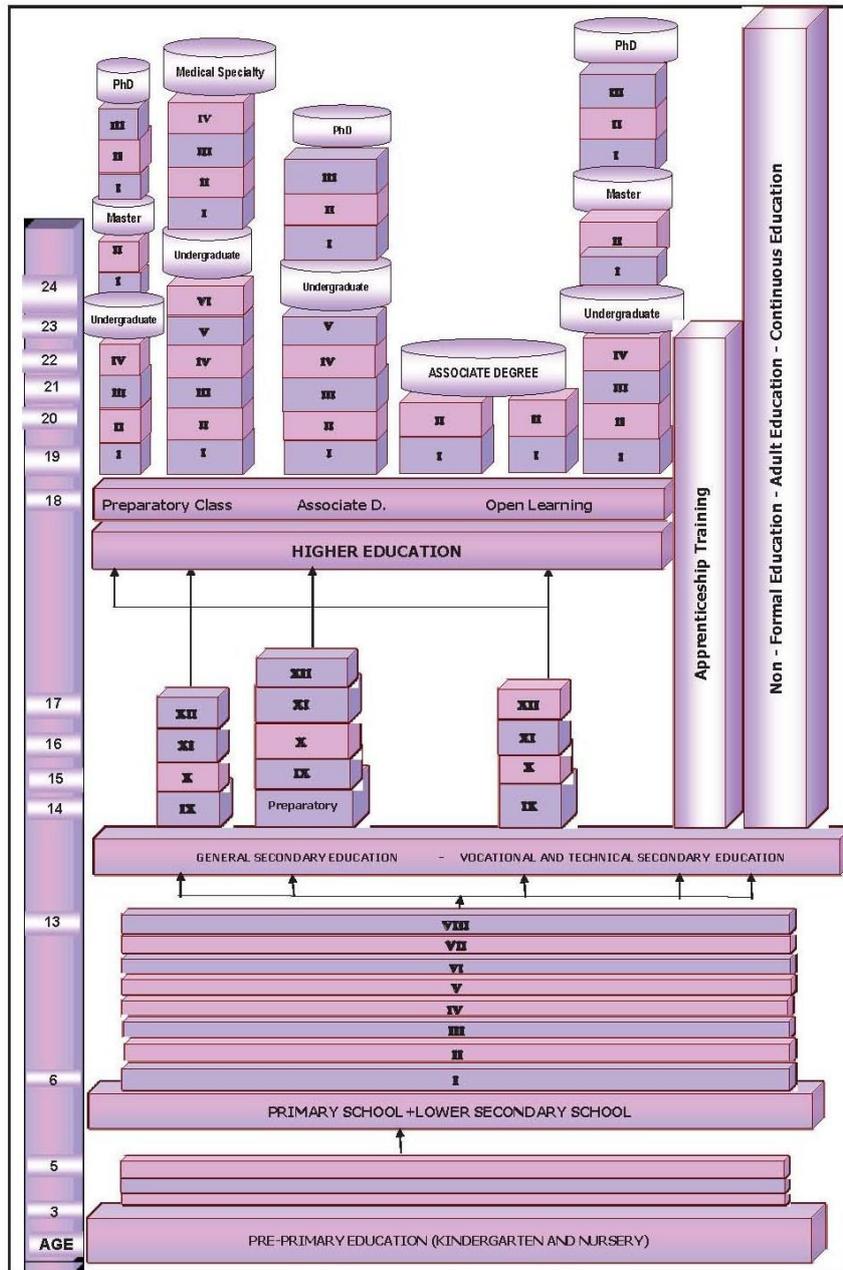


Figure 2.2. Turkish Education system

2.7.4. MoNE Statistics for Turkish Education in the Academic Year of 2012-2013

The statistical data about the numbers of teachers working at public schools in Turkey according to the education levels is shown in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4

Number of Teachers in Turkey

Type of School	Total number of teachers	Total number of female teachers	Total number of male teachers
Primary School	147721	113776	261497
Junior High School	128481	122352	250833
General Secondary Education	43150	56046	99196
Vocational & Technical Secondary Education	57996	75325	133321
TOTAL	377348	367499	744847

The statistical data about the numbers of teachers working at both public schools and private schools in Ankara according to the education levels is shown in Table 2.5.

The data shows that there are 15884 teachers in primary schools, 13801 teachers in junior high schools, 7336 teachers in general secondary education and 10245 teachers in vocational and technical secondary education schools in public schools Ankara.

Table 2.5
Number of Teachers in Ankara

Type of School	Total number of teachers	Total number of female teachers	Total number of male teachers
Primary School	18124	13421	4703
Junior High School	16028	11033	4995
General Secondary Education	9681	5619	4062
Vocational & Technical Secondary Education	10464	6157	4307
TOTAL	53514	36230	18067

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter first presents the overall design of the study and then the operational descriptions of the variables. After defining the hypotheses of the study the participants will be presented, and then the instruments and instrumentation process will be presented in order to summarize the construction of the instruments that were used to gather data. Lastly the data collection process and data analysis procedure will be summarized.

3.1. Design of the Study

This study is a quantitative research which is designed as a correlational study in order to assess the link between organizational learning and several other constructs. It is mentioned that quantitative research method and particularly the correlational design is appropriate for the studies that aim to investigate the relationship between the variables that cannot be manipulated (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2011). So it is believed that in order to analyze the relationship between organizational learning, organizational commitment, work engagement and core-self evaluations, it is appropriate to use the quantitative method and correlational design. Many of the studies conducted about organizational learning and positive working outcomes were designed as a correlational one (Islami Kahn, Ahmad & Ahmed, 2013; Joo, 2010; Joo & Lim, 2009; Kasim et al., 2008; Krishna, 2008).

3.2. Operational Descriptions of the Variables

Organizational Learning is the criterion variable of the study. It presents the capability of an educational organization about the dynamic process that involves creating, categorizing, transferring and mobilizing knowledge in all levels of the organization as teacher, group and school to adapt to a changing environment. Four-dimensional Organizational Learning Capability Scale (OLC) was used in order to measure the dependent variable. The scale is made up of 21 items with a 7-point-likert type, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

Managerial Commitment was one of the continuous criterion variable which shows to what extent managers encouraged the learning capability of the organization. There are five items in the scale in order to measure this dimension. The lowest score a participant can get is 5 and the highest score is 35. The higher the score in this dimension is, the higher the management committed to the learning capability of the organization is.

Systems Perspective was another continuous criterion variable which shows the level of recognition of the organization about the importance of organizational learning capability. There are six items for this dimension in the scale. The lowest score that a participant can get is 6 and the highest score is 42. Higher scores refer to higher recognition levels.

Openness and Experimentation was the third continuous criterion variable of the study. This variable measures the capacity organizational climate and culture in the name of openness to new ideas and generating learning by these new ideas. Seven items measure this dimension of the scale. So the lowest score that can be got from the scale is 7 and the highest score is 49. The highest scores refer open organizational environments give a chance to learn from experience and mistakes.

Knowledge transfer and integration was the last continuous criterion variable of the study. The level of spreading knowledge in the organization and having a learning process in the group and organizational level based on the knowledge acquired individually. There are three items in the scale about this dimension. The lowest score gathered from the scale can 3 and the highest is 21. The lowest scores

show that there is not an effective process of knowledge transfer and integration in the organization.

Organizational Commitment is one of the chief predictors of the study. It presents a teacher's emotional attachment to identify with and involve in the school with awareness of the costs associated with leaving the present school based on teacher's personal norms and values. It was a continuous variable, measuring organizational commitment in three dimensions. The scale is made up of 24 items with 7-point-likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). The higher the score in each dimension of this scale is, the higher the level of related commitment is.

Affective Commitment was a continuous predictor measuring teachers' emotional attachment to identification with and devotion in their organization and its goals. There are 8 items in this dimension of the scale; thus, the lowest and highest scores can range between 8 and 56.

Continuance Commitment was the second predictor related to the disadvantages of leaving the organization. This dimension was measured by 8 items; thus, the lowest score could be 8 and the highest could be 56.

Normative Commitment was the third predictor which shows teachers' will to stay within the organization based on feelings of responsibility, loyalty and obligation. There are 8 items were included in this dimension; thus, the lowest score can be 8 and highest score can be 56.

Work Engagement is another predictor of the study. It refers to a positive, fulfilling mind which is characterized by high energy and mental resilience while teaching, the willingness to invest effort in teacher's work. It also refers to being strongly involved in teaching profession, and having a sense of worthiness, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge. Work engagement scale was used in order to gather data. The scale is made up of 22 items with 7-point-likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). The higher the score in each dimension of this scale is, the higher the level of related engagement is.

Core-Self Evaluations is the predictor of the study indicated how teachers assess themselves, in other words what their perception is about themselves. There

are 12 items with 5-point-likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7) in the scale. The lowest score that a participant can get is 12 and the lowest score is 60. Teachers who have high CES means they are satisfied with themselves, they are motivated, emotionally stable and have internal locus of control.

3.3. Sampling and Population

Participants were selected from the teachers who work in primary and secondary schools in Ankara. The participants were selected by using cluster sampling procedure. In the real sense, Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun (2012) suggested random sampling should be used as a selection method in correlational design; because sampling should be conducted carefully to get the exact degree of relationship between variables. However it is challenging to conduct random sampling in this study because of limited financial sources and time.

The entire population was divided into different clusters, the districts of Ankara city. Three districts were selected through random sampling. The districts of Çankaya, Yenimahalle and Sincan were selected. The subjects from these selected clusters were randomly selected.

According to the statistical results of the academic year of 2012-2013 there were 53.514 teachers who work in primary and secondary schools in 2095 schools in Ankara. 36.230 of these teachers are female and 18.067 male teachers. The distribution of the teachers according to the type of school was illustrated in Table 2.5.

3.3.1. Population and Data Collection Procedure in Pilot Study

In order to test the construct validity of the inventory developed to collect data for this study, a pilot study was conducted. Since the approval of METU Ethics Committee was going to be obtained for administering the inventory only after the pilot study was carried out, the schools that would be willing to participate in the pilot study before obtaining the related approval were approached. Participants of the

pilot study consist of 336 teachers from primary and secondary public schools in Ankara. The researcher contacted with the principals of the schools explaining the purpose of the pilot study and stating that approval of METU Ethics Committee would be obtained. The principals and the teachers were informed about the validation process of the instrument deeply because of not having the approval of MoNE. Confidentiality of the responses was assured in addition to informing the teachers about the voluntary nature of the participation in the study. Hard copies of the questionnaire were distributed and collected from the participants through the Guidance Services.

3.3.2. Sampling in the Pilot Study

Pilot study was carried out in order to provide evidence for construct validity of the inventory, and to observe how compatible the Turkish adaptation was with the original scale. Data were collected from 336 teachers teaching at primary and secondary schools in Ankara. The sample included 130 male (38.7 %) and 206 female (61.3 %) teachers. About 29 % ($N=97$ of the attended teachers) worked at primary schools and the 71 % ($N=289$) of the attended teachers work at secondary schools.

The age of the participants ranged from 24 to 62 years old ($M = 42.31$; $SD = 8.03$). As to the faculties that the participants graduated, the teachers filled the demographic information form by writing the name of the department they graduated from, their answers were grouped as the ones graduated from educational faculties and the ones graduated apart from the educational faculties. The results showed that 60.1 % of the participants ($N = 202$) graduated from the other faculties like engineering and social sciences. 39.9 % of the participants ($N = 134$) graduated from the educational faculties. In addition to these, most of the participated teachers (88.1 %) had a bachelor's degree ($N = 296$), and 11.3 % of the teachers ($N = 38$) had master's degree. There were also 2 teachers who have PhD degree.

Table 3.1

Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Variables	Category	Frequency	Percent (%)
Gender			
	Female	206	61.3
	Male	130	38.7
Type of School			
	Primary School	97	29
	Secondary Sch.	289	71
Education Level			
	Two year program	0	0
	BA	296	88.1
	MA	38	11.3
	PhD	2	.005
Graduated Faculty			
	Faculty of Education	134	39.9
	Other Faculties	202	60.1
Employment Type			
	Permanent staff	287	85.4
	Specialist	44	13
	Contracted	3	.005
	Substitute	2	.005
Participating In-service Training			
	Yes	159	47.3
	No	177	52.7
Administrative Task			
	Yes	57	17
	No	279	83

The experience of the teachers participated to the study ranged from 1 to 44 in years. The average of the years of experience in teaching profession was about 18 years.

The participants also mentioned the years that they have been working at their present school. The working years in the present school ranged from 1 to 31 years ($M = 7.50$, $SD = 6.26$).

According to the employment type, there were four different groups of teachers. Most of the teachers ($N = 287$), as 85.4 %, were permanent staff. There were 44 teachers worked as specialists and also 3 contracted teachers and 2 substitute teachers.

As to the participation to in-service training activities, 52.7 % of the teachers ($N = 177$) did not attend to an in-service training activity in the recent year. In contrast, 47.3 % of the teachers ($N = 159$) participated to the study attended at least one in-service training activity.

The teachers participated to the study were asked whether they performed an administrative task or not. Most of the teachers as 83 % ($N = 279$) did not perform an administrative task. There were 57 teachers (17 %) who performed or still performing an administrative task. Table 3.1 summarized the descriptive results for the pilot study.

3.3.3. Participants of the Main Study

The sample size was reduced to one thousand and fifty teachers from two thousand and five hundred because of uncompleted scales and non-performing scales. Therefore, the sample of the present study consisted of one thousand and fifty teachers ($N=1050$) from the primary and secondary public schools in Ankara.

The sample included 350 male (33.3 %) and 700 female (66.7 %) teachers. The 29 % of the attended teachers ($N=304$) work at primary schools and the 71 % of the attended teachers ($N=746$) work at secondary schools. 88 of the male teachers work at primary and 262 male teachers works at secondary schools. There are 216 female teachers who attended to the study from primary schools and 484 female teachers

from secondary schools. The age of the participants ranged from 23 to 63 years old ($M = 41.75$; $SD = 7.50$). As to the faculties that the participants graduated, the teachers filled the demographic information form by writing the name of the department they graduated from, their answers were grouped as the ones graduated from educational faculties and the ones graduated apart from the educational faculties. The results shows that 59.3 % of the participants ($N = 623$) graduated from the other faculties like engineering, literature, mathematics, social sciences as history, geography and etc. 40.7 % of the participants ($N = 427$) graduated from the educational faculties. In addition to these, most of the participated teachers (89 %) has a bachelor's degree ($N = 934$), and 10 % of the teachers ($N = 106$) has master's degree. There are also 8 teachers who have PhD degree and 2 teachers who graduated from a two year undergraduate program.

The experience of the teachers participated to the study range from 1 to 45 in years. The average of the years of experience in teaching profession is about 18 years.

The participants also mentioned the years that they have been working at their present school. The working years in the present school ranges from 1 to 31 years ($M = 7.06$, $SD = 5.75$).

According to the employment type, there are four different groups of teachers. Most of the teachers ($N = 889$), as 84.7 %, are permanent staff. There are 146 teachers work as specialists and also 5 contracted teachers and 10 substitute teachers.

As to the participation to in-service training activities, 56 % of the teachers ($N = 587$) did not attend to an in-service training activity in the recent year. In contrast, 44 % of the teachers ($N = 463$) participated to the study attended at least one in-service training activity. The number of in-service training activities that the teachers attended range from 1 to 7, the participants mostly attended to one to two activities.

Table 3.2

Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Variables	Category	Frequency	Percent (%)	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Gender							
	Female	700	66.7				
	Male	350	33.3				
Age							
				41.75	7.51	23	63
Education Level							
	Two year program	2	.2				
	BA	934	89.0				
	MA	106	10.1				
	PhD	8	.8				
Graduated Faculty							
	Educational Faculty	427	40.7				
	Other Faculties	623	59.3				
Experience as a Teacher							
	1-4 years	36	3.4				
	5-9 years	88	8.4				
	10-14 years	241	23.0				
	15-19 years	288	27.4				
	20-24 years	234	22.3	17.47	7.35	1	45
	25-29 years	85	8.1				
	30-34 years	63	6.0				
	35-39 years	10	1.0				
	40-45 years	5	.5				
Employment Type							
	Permanent staff	889	84.7				
	Specialist	146	13.9				
	Contracted	5	.5				
	Substitute	10	1.0				

Table 3.2 (continued)

Participating			
In-service Training			
Yes	463	44.1	
No	587	55.9	
Administrative Task			
Yes	145	13.8	
No	905	86.2	

The teachers participated to the study were asked whether they performed an administrative task or not. Most of the teachers as 86.2 % ($N = 905$) did not perform an administrative task. There are 145 teachers (13.8 %) who performed or still performing an administrative task. The descriptive results of the main study are summarized in Table 3.2.

3.4. Instrumentation

In order to construct the instrument of the study, required permission from the authors of the scales subjected to adaptation was taken by e-mail. Each response about the permission of the authors for using the scale is presented in Appendix-I. Then the necessary permission was obtained from Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Ethics Committee (see Appendix II) to collect data for this study. At the same time METU Human Subjects Ethics Committee took the permission of Ministry of National Education (see Appendix III) in order to administrate the inventory of the study in primary and secondary schools. Hard copies of the questionnaire and the consent form (see Appendix IV) declaring willingness to participate in the study were administered by the researcher. In the consent form, the participants were ensured about the confidentiality and they were not asked any questions revealing their identity. It was stated in the consent form that participants

could quit the study whenever they wanted in order to ensure the essence of willingness. The data of the main study were collected in 2012-2013 Academic Year.

Table 3.3

The Summary of the Original Constructs

Variable	Constructs (# of items)	Source of Instrument	Translation	Reliability
Organizational Learning Capability	OLCS (16)	Gómez, Lorente & Cabrera (2005)	-	.73~.88
Organizational Commitment	ACNCS (24)	Allen & Meyer (1990)	Wasti (2000)	.73~.82
Work Engagement	UWES (17)	Schaufeli & Baker (2003)	Schaufeli & Baker (2003)	.80~.90
Core Self-Evaluation	CSES (12)	Judge, Erez, Bono Thoresen (2003)	-	.81~.87

A four page survey form with 90 items which consisted of the measures of organizational learning capability, organizational commitment, work engagement and core self-evaluations, and also a demographic information form, was used in the study. Except the demographic questions, the four variables were measured by previously developed scales that are broadly used. In other words based on a thorough literature review, existing and established instruments were used. The scales were Organizational Learning Capability was measured by the 16 items of the Organizational Learning Capability Scale (OLCS) which was designed by Gómez, Lorente and Cabrera (2005). Organizational Commitment was measured by using Allen and Meyer's (1990) Organizational Commitment Scale (ACNCS) with 24 items. Work Engagement was measured by the 17 items of Work and Well-Being

Survey (UWES) from Schaufeli and Baker (2003). A 12-item instrument, the CSES, which was developed by Judge, Erez, Bono and Thoresen (2003), was used for measuring Core Self-Evaluations. A summary of constructs is illustrated in Table 3.3.

Two of the developed scales are in English so the items were translated into Turkish. There is a Turkish version of the scales of OC and WE scale, so the Turkish version was used. OC scale was translated in Turkish by Wasti (2000) and the Turkish version of WE was published by the authors of the scale. Throughout the Turkish cultural literature, new items were added to two of the scales the OLCS and WE in order to adapt the scales to educational setting.

The translation and adaptation process were completed and checked in different stages as the translation of the items by the researcher and an English Instructor separately then matching the translated versions, then reading and discussion session with two different people from the area and revising according to the feedbacks, lastly the assessment of the advisor for the study.

The summary of the scales that were used in this study are given in Table 3.4. Sample items and their translations for each dimension are given in Table 3.5.

Table 3.4

The Summary of the Original Constructs

Variable	Constructs (# of items)	# of additional Items	Dimensions
Organizational Learning Capability	OLCS (21)	8 items	4
Organizational Commitment	OCS (24)	No additional item	3
Work Engagement	WES (22)	5 items	1
Core Self-Evaluation	CSES (12)	No additional item	1

Table 3.5

Sample Items for Turkish Translation and Adaptation of OLC, OC, WE and CSE.
Original items are given in brackets

OLC (Scale of Organizational Learning Capability)	
Subscale	Sample Item
Managerial Commitment	<p>Okulumuzda çalışan öğretmenlerin eğitim alarak gelişmelerine çok önem verilmektedir. [Employee learning capability is considered a key factor in this firm.]</p> <p>Okul müdürümüz değişiklik yapmayı ancak yeni çevresel koşullara uyum sağlamak için tercih ediyor. [The firm's management looks favorably on carrying out changes in any area to adapt to and/or keep ahead of new environmental situations.]</p>
Systems Perspective	<p>Okulumuzun hedefleri ile ilgili tüm öğretmenlerin bilgisi vardır. [All employees have generalized knowledge regarding this firm's objectives.]</p> <p>Okulumuzdaki tüm bölümler, birimler, çalışma grupları ve bireyler okulumuzun başarısına ne denli katkıda bulduklarının farkındadırlar. [All parts that make this firm (departments, sections, work teams and individuals) are well aware of how they contribute to achieving the overall objectives.]</p>
Openness and Experimentation	<p>Bakanlık, müfettişler, veliler, öğrenciler vs. gibi kaynaklardan sağlanan bilgiler okulumuzun gelişimi açısından gerekli birer araç olarak görülmektedir.</p>

Table 3.5 (continued)

	<p>[Experiences and ideas provided by external sources (advisors, customers, training, firms, etc) are considered a useful instrument for this firm's learning]</p>
	<p>Okulumuzun başarılı olması için kullanılan yöntem ve teknik ile ilgili biz öğretmenlerin fikirlerini belirtmesi ve önerilerde bulunması okulumuz kültürünün içerisinde yer almaktadır.</p>
	<p>[Part of this firm's culture is that employees can express their opinions and make suggestions regarding the procedures and methods in place for carrying out tasks.]</p>
<hr/>	
Knowledge transfer and integration	
	<p>Yönetim ve öğretmenler, okulumuzun her kademesinde meydana gelen hataları tartışır ve analiz eder.</p>
	<p>[Errors and failures are always discussed and analyzed in this firm, on all levels]</p>
	<p>Okulumuzda geçmiş bilgilere ulaşmamızı sağlayacak arşiv, veritabanı, dökümanlar vb. bulunmaktadır.</p>
	<p>[The firm has instruments (manuals, databases, files, organizational routines, etc.) that allow what has been learnt in past situations to remain valid although the employees are no longer the same.]</p>
<hr/>	
OC (Scale of Organizational Commitment)	
Affective Commitment	
	<p>Çalıştığım okulda kendimi "aileden biri" gibi hissetmiyorum.</p>
	<p>[I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization]</p>

Table 3.5 (continued)

	<p>Kendimi çalıştığım okula “duygusal olarak bağlı hissetmiyorum.</p> <p>[I do not feel “emotionally attached” to this organization]</p>
Continuous Commitment	<p>Bu okuldan ayrılmak istesemde, şu anda bunu yapmak benim için çok zor olurdu.</p> <p>[It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to]</p> <p>Bu okuldan ayrılmanın yol açacağı olumsuz sonuçlarından biri de alternatif iş olanaklarının az olmasıdır.</p> <p>[One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.]</p>
Normative Commitment	<p>Bir öğretmenin çalıştığı okula sadık olmasının gerekli bir şart olduğunu düşünmüyorum.</p> <p>[I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization]</p> <p>Yeniden bir meslek seçebilecek olsam öğretmen olmazdım.</p> <p>[I do not think that to be a “company man” or “company woman” is sensible anymore]</p>
WE (Scale of Work Engagement)	<p>İşim bana ilham verir.</p> <p>[My job inspires me]</p> <p>Yaptığım işten gurur duyuyorum.</p> <p>[I am proud on the work that I do]</p>

Table 3.5 (continued)

CSE (Scale of Core Self Evaluations)	
	Sorunlarımın çoğuyla başa çıkabilirim. [I am capable of coping with most of my problems]
	Bazen, başarısız olduğumda kendimi değersiz hissedirim. [Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless.]

As mentioned before in order to adapt the questionnaire to the educational organizations, items were added to the scales of OLC and WE. The additional items and their English translations are listed in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6

Sample Additional Items to the Scales

Scale	Items
OLC	Okulumuz değişikliklere kolayca uyum sağlayabilmektedir. [Our school can adapt to change easily.] Okulumuz çalışanlarının yaptığı hatalar onlar suçlamak için kullanılan neden değil, okulumuz için bir öğrenme aracı olarak görülmektedir. [The failures of the employees of our school are not perceived]
WE	Öğrencilerime ders dışında da zaman ayırmaya çalışıyorum. [I tried to have extra time for my students beside the course sections] İşime her zaman önceden hazırlanarak giderim. [I always prepare my classwork]

The last version of the instrument was cognitively interviewed by five teachers from primary and secondary schools. They read the questionnaire loudly and answered the questions. All of them are clear about the questioning thing and the answers. Because of not having any negative feedback or any misunderstandings there was no need to change. To sum up detailed studies were carried out to determine the items included were sufficiently clearly worded and discriminating.

3.5. Validity and Reliability of the Scales

In order to ensure the reliability and validity of the instrument used in this study, firstly, the related literature were reviewed, and commonly acceptable scales were taken into consideration. To ensure the face validity and content validity experts in the field were consulted during the translation and adaptation of the scales. In addition, correlation between the dimensions of the adapted OLC scale were checked, based on which it was concluded that the dimensions within the OLC scale are related constructs while measuring different dimensions. Table 4.3 illustrates the correlation coefficients. Also, correlations between OLCS and the other scales in the instrument were checked, and discriminant validity yielded that pre-developed scales used in the instrumentation and the adapted OLCS were different but related while measuring different constructs.

The results of the exploratory factor analysis of the OLC scale did not prove it to be compatible with the original scale. However, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to ensure the construct evidence.

As mentioned before, to ensure the quality of the instrument, the process of developing the survey was ended with a pilot study which is applied to 336 teachers in primary and secondary schools in Ankara, except the sample of the study. Also Exploratory Factor Analysis was conducted with the data gathered from the pilot study. The factor analysis results will be presented separately under the sub-topics of Exploratory Pre-studies of each variable.

3.6. Measuring Organizational Learning Capability

3.6.1. Background of the Construction of the Scale

Learning capability is a complex multidimensional construct and there are different studies which have defined different dimensions or components. Mikkelsen and Gronhaug (1999) mentioned that organizational learning is the most important ability to cope with the challenges of the changing world; so reliable instruments for

organizational diagnoses are needed to determine the capacity of organizational learning. In addition to these they also mentioned that Bartram, Foster, Lindley, Brown and Nixon the contemporary researchers who have systematic efforts in order to develop a measurement instrument for organizational learning climate. In 1993 Bartram and his colleagues developed the Learning Climate Questionnaire (LCQ). The LCQ is a multi-dimensional construct. There are seven dimension as Management Relations and Style- the supportiveness of the management, Time- the sufficient time to do the job and learn, Team style- opportunities to learn from expert colleagues, Opportunity to Develop – opportunities to learn new and varied jobs, Guidelines on How to Do the Job – easy access to relevant written information, and Contentedness – the general feeling of satisfaction with the workplace. It is obvious that the LCQ focuses on individuals and reflects the perceptions of the individuals in the organization about the organization's support. Mikkelsen and Gronhaug (1999) stated that they had some concerns about the face validity in the name of the performance of the items about capturing the core meaning of the organizational learning construct. It is obvious from their study that there is a need to study the dimensionality of the LCQ.

Goh's and Richard's (1997) also constructed a 21 item learning scale with five dimensions. These dimensions are purpose and mission clarity, leadership commitment and empowerment, experimentation and rewards, knowledge transfer, team-work, and problem solving in groups. The scale has well established items but it is criticized because of not to be applied to a satisfied sample in order to have strong evidence about the reliability, convergent and discriminant validity. Another example of designed scale is Hult's and Ferrell's (1997) which is more exhaustive about the validation procedure. The scale has four dimensions and these were measured by four dimensions as team, systems, learning, and memory orientations.

It is very clear that the organizational learning is a construct which must be measured by a multi-dimensional instrument. The most important thing is the absenteeism of the measurement of the shared vision dimension in the aforementioned scales. Oswald, Mossholder and Harris (1994) studied on the psychological attachment to the organization and job by defining the strategic vision

as clarity sharedness and appropriateness. The related literature shows that the Scale of Organizational Learning Capability of Gómez, Lorente and Cabrera (2005) is a composition of the dimensions of the mentioned scales.

3.6.2. The Scale of Organizational Learning Capability

Gómez, Lorente and Cabrera (2005) considered organizational learning to be a latent multidimensional construct. Also they mentioned that an organization must have a high degree of learning in each and every dimension from individuals to whole organization.

When the related literature was reviewed, it can be seen that there are variety of researches in and outside the country where the different versions and adaptations of the developed scales were used. The common point is that organizational learning has a multidimensional nature and Gómez and his colleagues mentioned their objective as developing a measurement tool which is appropriate for the nature of Organizational Learning.

Gomez et al. (2005) mentioned that there are four conditions for effective organizational learning capability to be constructed. First, company management must be determined to support organizational learning, in other words must make clear its backing and involving all the personnel. Second, it necessitates the existence of a joint conscience that allows the company to be seen as a system in which each element must function at its best to obtain a satisfactory result. Third, by transferring and integrating individual knowledge it aims to develop organizational knowledge. Lastly, organizations must overreach adaptive learning and concentrate on the level of learning necessary to question the organizational system in force. Moreover, it should be able to make required changes in search of more innovative and flexible alternatives. In the light of the multidimensional nature of the variable they construct a scale for the organizational learning capability with four dimensions: (1) Managerial commitment, (2) Systems perspective, (3) Openness and experimentation and (4) Knowledge transfer and integration.

The OLC scale has 16 items which are measured using a Likert type scale, 1 representing “totally disagree” and 7 “totally agree”. The first five items are about managerial commitment, the next three are about the systems perspective, the following four items are about openness and experimentation and the last four items are about knowledge transfer and integration. The surveyors mentioned that items and subscales can be used separately or inspired the other researchers in the process of developing their own instruments.

Gómez et al. (2005) reported that in order to check the content validity, they overviewed the literature in depth and also the preliminary test was conducted by personal interviews in which five general managers and six human resource managers participated. The factor analysis results are shown that the dimensions are proposed the questionnaire’s validity. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were calculated for the each four dimensions and they are ranging from .73 to .82 and for the whole scale it is equal to .88. In addition to these the authors compared the organizational learning capability scale with different subscales and they mentioned that the clear differentiation of OLC is an evidence for discriminant validity.

There is potential danger because the questions of the scale are subject to respondents’ perception which may not reflect the real process however it can be said that the scale has a positive behavior in statistical analysis and also it is much more appropriate for educational organizations than the other scales. It is obvious that educational organizations are different from the other sectors so it is very important to have items which can be adapted to educational organizations.

3.6.3. Exploratory Pre-Studies

Considering the Gómez, Lorente and Cabrera (2005) construct an initial item pool of 24 items was generated based on related literature. As it was mentioned the original scale has 16 items, one of these items divided into two and seven items were added to the scale in order to have a more suited scale to the profession and native language. A 7-point scale was chosen for the response format, where 1 corresponded to totally disagree and 7 corresponded to totally agree.

The aim of the pilot study was to confirm the validity of the scale. In order to determine the underlying factor structure of OLC items, the data were subjected to EFA. The gathered data was analyzed by the package program of SPSS 21. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was .89, which suggested that data were appropriate for factor analysis. In addition to KMO measurement Barlett's test of sphericity was applied and found to be statistically significant, $\chi^2(276) = 5600.46$, $p < .00$. It is found that the correlation matrix is not an identity matrix and suitable for factor analysis.

Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, and Strahans (1999) suggested that principal axis factoring technique is a more robust factor extraction technique against the violation of the assumption of multivariate normality so it was used for the extraction of the factors. Oblique rotation was applied as a rotational method to interpret the analysis much easier. Oblique rotation (direct oblimin) was selected since it allows for factor correlation (Preacher & MacCallum, 2003).

To decide the number of factors firstly the criteria of eigenvalue of greater than 1 and scree tests were considered (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2001). Based on the tests, there are five factors explaining the 60.79 % of the variance. However, this structure was not compatible with Gómez, Lorente and Cabrera (2005). So, measure of organizational learning capability failed to support the structure suggested by Gómez et al. (2005). Therefore, the extraction was forced for four factors. The results suggested that four dimensions account for 57.35 % of the total variance. When the number of factors was fixed at four, the first factor included ten items, explaining 41.89 % of the variance.

Table 3.7

Factor Loadings of Organizational Learning Capability Scale

Item	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
ol21	.794	-.517	.030	-.145
ol24	.794	-.391	-.006	-.139
ol15	.762	-.547	-.147	-.187
ol19	.741	-.582	.169	-.189
ol17	.727	-.538	.431	-.235
ol23	.724	-.589	.101	-.142
ol18	.713	-.310	-.093	-.048
ol20	.681	-.612	.432	-.294
ol16	.625	-.417	.334	-.086
ol22	.613	-.560	.404	-.198
ol2	.452	-.882	.118	-.160
ol1	.424	-.769	.422	-.270
ol4	.534	-.740	-.047	-.143
ol5	.517	-.737	-.117	-.258
ol14	.618	-.733	.282	-.497
ol3	.431	-.711	.084	-.202
ol8	.632	-.665	-.213	-.317
ol10	.474	-.639	-.149	-.250
ol13	.582	-.625	.395	-.349
ol11	.540	-.622	-.022	-.295
ol6	.296	-.571	.266	-.101
ol12	-.123	.216	.465	.439
ol7	-.112	.016	.183	.685
ol9	.029	.112	-.051	.497

The second factor included eleven items, and explained 6.08 % of the variance, and the third factor included one item, explaining 5.43 % of the variance, and the fourth factor included two items, explaining 3.93 % of the variance as presented in structure matrix in Table 3.7. The factor loadings are reviewed with the criteria of .30 (Hair, 1998). The factor loadings greater than .30 are accepted as loaded the four factors.

Still, detailed analysis of the items loaded in each factor revealed that this structure was not compatible with the one suggested by Gomez et al. (2005). Further analyses were carried out by excluding item 12, which has loaded one factor as well as excluding the newly added items by researcher. However, no different results were obtained. Thus, it was decided to carry out Confirmatory Factor Analysis with the data from a much larger population in the main study to further examine the compatibility of the factor structure of OLC. Table 3.7 shows the factor loadings of the items.

3.7. Measuring Organizational Commitment

3.7.1. Background of the Construction of the Scale

The concept of employee's commitment to an organization has received increased attention since the early 1970s. As it was mentioned in the previous chapter the term of organizational commitment is subjected to many studies which are increased especially in recent years. However there is not a very common definition of organizational commitment. The reason of this can be the different views of the researchers according to their different disciplines like sociology, psychology, social psychology and organizational behavior (Gündoğan, 2009). Mowday, Porter & Steers (1982) mentioned that the approaches of organizational behavior and social psychology are the most significant developments in the literature of organizational commitment. The organizational behavior approach defines the organizational commitment from the view of having common goals and values with the organization and especially by determining the desire of being a member of an organization (Aven, Parker, & McEvoy, 1993; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). For instance Alutto, Hrebiniak and Alonso (1973) conducted a study in 70s in order to measure commitment by analyzing why people are leaving the organization. This kind of approach can be criticized as reflecting only the attitudinal commitment not reflecting the behavioral commitment defined from the perspective

of social psychology. It is known that the most prevalent approach to organizational commitment is considering it as an emotional attachment. The best known study about measuring organizational commitment is belong to Mowday, Porter, and Steers in 1979. The developed questionnaire has 15 items and it can be said that it is acceptable psychometric properties. In the real sense there are also other studies at the beginning of 70s which defines commitment as an engagement in consistency or not to leave the organization. This kind of commitment is a typical cost-induced commitment which can be defined as the cost of leaving the organization or losing side-bets. Ritzer and Trice (1969) and Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) conducted studies and measure organizational commitment by evaluating the costs of leaving the organization. However, it can be seen that although it has disadvantages the 15 itemed of Mowday and his colleagues' scale was the most frequently used one until the late 90s.

These mentioned items reflect the attitudinal approach of the OCQ. The willingness to perform actions in support of the organization is not behavioral intentions. They reflect a mindset (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982). However, researches criticized the OCQ make researchers cautious about the application of it. Therefore, these researchers decided to use a shorter version of the scale. There were two different kinds of shorter version. One of them was a 9-item version that omitted the six negatively phrased items. Second one is the 12-item version that omitted the three items supposedly dealing with turnover intentions. There are studies like the ones conducted by Rubin & Buttlar (1992) and Hovekamp (1994) to examine the organizational commitment in library setting, which employed the measure developed by Mowday and his colleagues. However, these studies could not be used as evidence of construct validity and internal reliability, because there was not any attempt to evaluate the psychometric properties of the scale. Vandenberg and Sep (1994) concluded that there was not any contribution to the explanations that were captured by OCQ.

The study of O'Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell (1986) figured it out that there is need of an alternative to the OCQ. The study criticizes the scale whether it is justifiable or not. They proposed an advanced, conceptual and operational alternative

to the OCQ. Meyer and Allen (1984) criticized these instruments about measuring the cost-based commitment, not to measure the affective commitment. They examined more improved scales using the side-bet approach in the light of their aims and goals. Later on, the dominant approach to OC became the methodological paper of Meyer & Allen (1984).

In contrast, Ko, Price and Mueller (1997) criticize the Meyer and Allen scales. They mentioned that psychometric difficulties were founded in the scales. Moreover, they pointed the conceptual problems of the scales as the accounters of these problems. They contended that the three component definition, included the components of affective, continuance, and normative, of Meyer and Allen (1984) was not a precise definition. They simply noted that the common point of these three components is “psychological state”. According to Ko and colleagues, it was obvious that psychological state links the employee to the organization, but the meaning of this term is not clear in the study of Meyer and Allen. The problem of a lack of discriminant validity of normative commitment was founded by them because they believe that between normative and affective commitment there is a considerable conceptual overlap. As indicated above, the employees who are committed to the organization normatively believe that it is the right thing to remain with the organization and the employees who are affectively committed strongly involved in, and enjoys membership in the organization. In the light of this, it is not possible to separate conceptually these two commitment style. These mentioned problems figured out that there is a considerable need of conceptual work, and also new measures should be developed to make adequate assessment. Meyer & Allen (1984) were proposed and tested some changes in the scales throughout the years because of being aware of the problems associated with the three-dimensional scales. They generated a pool of 66 items by the help of Mowday et al. (1979)'s 15 item scale and different scales in the literature in order to adapt them. Secondly, items were eliminated with the criteria of the endorsement proportion and item-total correlations. Lastly, they advanced a shorter 6-item version of the three scales. Moreover, Meyer & Allen (1990) proposed revised scales related to normative commitment and two dimensional continuance commitment.

3.7.2. The Scale of Organizational Commitment

The OC scale of Meyer & Allen (1990) has 24 items which are measured using a Likert type scale, 1 representing “totally disagree” and 7 “totally agree”. There are eight items in each subscale. The surveyors mentioned that items and subscales can be used separately.

Meyer and Allen (1990) mentioned that the factor analysis results are shown that the dimensions are proposed the questionnaire’s validity. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were calculated for the each three dimensions and the study reported that the reliability were .87 for affective commitment scale, .75 for continuous commitment scale and, .79 for normative commitment scale. In addition to these the authors mentioned that the results indicate that each one of the psychological states including commitment to the organization that are evident in the related literature can be measured reliably. Also, the evaluation of generalizability of the findings of the study shows consistency. So, it can be said that the scale has a positive behavior in statistical analysis.

3.7.3. Exploratory Pre-Studies

Considering the Meyer and Allen (1990) construct an initial item pool of 30 items was generated based on related literature. As it was mentioned the original scale has 24 items, six items were added to the scale in order to have a more suited scale to the profession and native language. A 7-point scale was chosen for the response format, where 1 corresponded to totally disagree and 7 corresponded to totally agree.

Table 3.8

Factor Loadings of the Items of OCS

Item	Factor		
	1	2	3
oc1	.655	.205	-.081
oc5	.642	.154	-.193
oc8	.638	-.215	.262
oc12	.632	-.024	-.068
oc20	.625	.254	-.090
oc4	.594	-.164	.118
oc9	-.562	.124	-.041
oc3	.539	.004	-.015
oc7	.527	.205	-.231
oc22	.525	-.214	-.017
oc15	.464	-.095	.096
oc19	.318	.081	-.031
oc17	.179	.729	.235
oc23	-.171	-.721	-.189
oc14	-.244	-.692	-.130
oc13	.076	.615	.236
oc18	.159	-.594	.162
oc24	.013	.512	.055
oc16	.224	-.500	.149
oc21	.377	-.432	.007
oc6	-.145	.358	.271
oc10	-.050	.089	.570
oc11	.026	.110	.505
oc2	-.129	.091	.456

The aim of the pilot study was to confirm the validity of the scale. In order to determine the underlying factor structure of OC items, the data were subjected to EFA. The gathered data was analyzed by the package program of SPSS 21. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was .78, which suggested that data were appropriate for factor analysis. In addition to KMO measurement Barlett's test of sphericity was applied and found to be statistically

significant, $\chi^2(435) = 5451.85$, $p < .00$. It is found that the correlation matrix is not an identity matrix and suitable for factor analysis.

As mentioned before, in the light of Fabrigar et.al. (1999) suggestion principal axis factoring technique was conducted to extract the factors. Also, oblique rotation was used as a rotational method to ease the interpretation of the analysis, since it allows for factor correlation (Preacher & MacCallum, 2003).

To decide the number of factors firstly the criteria of eigenvalue of greater than 1 and scree tests were considered (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2001). Based on the tests, there are seven factors explaining the 54.49 % of the variance.

However, this structure was not compatible with Meyer and Allen (1990). So, measure of organizational commitment failed to support the structure suggested by Meyer and Allen (1990). Therefore, the extraction was forced for three factors. The results suggested that three dimensions account for 45.35 % of the total variance. When the number of factors was fixed at three, the first factor included twelve items, explaining 18.11 % of the variance. The second factor included nine items, and explained 15.10 % of the variance, and the third factor included three items, explaining 4.61 % of the variance as presented in structure matrix in Table 3.8.

During the literature review process, the study of determining the definition of the term of organizational commitment in Turkish culture; and the comparison of western literature for common and/or different characteristics by other constructed models which is conducted by Wasti (2000) was scanned. In the light of this study, it can be seen that the Allen and Meyer's "Three Component Model of Commitment" is generally more appropriate for Turkish culture and life style. In other words Wasti (2000) observed that Turkish employees expose the three different components as the affective, continuance and normative component in their behaviors. In addition to these according to the results of this study, the normative component is mostly seen in the collectivistic cultures like Turkey.

In another study of Baysal and Paksoy (1999) about the multidimensional research of organizational commitment, the scale of Allen and Meyer was used and reliability coefficients were determined as .81 for the whole scale and differ between

.66 and .81 for the subscales. They also mentioned that the scale is usable for the other studies which will be conducted in Turkey.

Noor Harun and Noor Hasrul (2006) mentioned that their findings supported the idea that Allen and Meyer's organizational commitment measures can be applied to international settings.

Ataman (2012) also used the version Wasti (2000) of Allen and Meyer's organizational commitment scale and her analysis showed very satisfactory results in the name of validity and reliability.

There are several studies where Allen and Meyer's scale were used. Some of the instruments that are used included all the three components while the others involve one or two of them. Most of these kinds of researches focused on affective and/or continuance commitment.

As it is known that this study will be applied in educational organizations so it is very important to have items which reflect the characteristics of this kind of organizations. When the items were scanned, although the normative commitment components are appropriate to Turkish culture, they are not totally match with the characteristics of educational organizations. For instance the recruitment process of teachers is very systematic and when the placements are completed it is not very easy for a teacher for change the organization that he/she works in short periods. So the reason of working in a school for long periods may not be the loyalty instead of the system. In order to minimize this risk, additional items were added to the dimension of normative commitment.

Detailed analysis of the items loaded in each factor revealed that this structure was not compatible with the one suggested by Meyer and Allen (1990). Further analyses were carried out excluding the newly added items by researcher. However, no different results were obtained. Thus, it was again decided to carry out Confirmatory Factor Analysis with the data from a much larger population in the main study to further examine the compatibility of the factor structure of OC.

3.8. Measuring Work Engagement

3.8.1. Background of the Construction of the Scale

It is generally accepted that the first scholar who conceptualized work engagement is Kahn in 1990. However, there are other scholars who worked on engagement or attachment in the beginning of 60s like Hegarty and Goffman. In 1961 Goffman conducted a study on individual's attachment and detachment from their work roles. Kahn observed that the participants of Goffman's study physically, cognitively and emotionally engaged themselves to their work. So he analyzed the work experiences in order to gather data about the explanations for why employees engaged or disengaged. The results of his study was reported in 1992, it was founded that three psychological states as meaningfulness, safety and availability are necessary for fostering employee engagement. In other words, Kahn proposed that as people find meaningfulness, safety, and availability in their work roles, they cognitively, affectively, and physically enter a state of engagement, noted by the employment of their preferred selves. The preferred self is the identity and behavior people choose to adopt in different roles.

Another approach to employee engagement was proposed by Maslach and Leiter (1997). According to them engagement is the direct opposite of burnout. They also mentioned that there are three components as energy, involvement and efficacy which are the opposite of burnout components as exhaustion, cynicism and lack of efficacy, respectively. So Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) was recommended by the authors in order to assess engagement; but MBI assesses both engagement and burnout. The authors interpret the results of the inventory as having low scores on the dimensions corresponds to high levels of engagement.

It is obvious that engagement and burnout are distinct constructs. Schaufeli et al. (2002) mentioned that there is a measurement challenge in assessing when these two distinct constructs assessed by the MBI; also it is problematic about the validity evidence for engagement. Hence, Schaufeli and his colleagues redefined the three factors of engagement by distinguishing engagement and burnout as vigor,

dedication and absorption. In the light of these the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) was constructed by Schaufeli and colleagues.

Schaufeli and colleagues (2002) proposed the 17-item UWES. Three factorial structures were found using exploratory factor analysis in line with their conceptualization. Schaufeli, Bakker and Salanova (2006) later shortened the scale in order to create a 9-item version of the measure. By using confirmatory factor analysis and internal reliability estimates, validity evidence for the 9-item scale was constructed by the authors. The results showed that the new model was slightly worse than the 17-item scale. However, negligible difference between the two versions was considered at the result of the model fit analysis. Thus, these are two different versions of the UWES are used in the assessment of work engagement. However, because of not having a satisfactory empirical support and tending to show worse fit than the 17-item scale, it was decided to use the 17-item version of the UWES in this study.

There is also a new construct of Rich, LePine and Crawford (2010) named Job Engagement Scale (JES) based on Kahn's (1990) definition of engagement involving physical, cognitive and affective components. However, the JES is relatively new and there are not sufficient validity studies as the UWES has.

3.8.2. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

Schaufeli et al. (2002) developed the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) which was aroused as the opposite of the MBI (Maslach et al., 1997). The three dimensions assessed under UWES are vigor, dedication, and absorption. Schaufeli and colleagues reported the cronbach alpha coefficients of the scale ranges between .80 and .90.

It was also mentioned that the original scale has 24 items; but after psychometric evaluation, 7 unsound items were eliminated and 6 of 17 items refers to the dimension of vigor, 5 of them refers to dedication and the last 6 of them refers the dimension of absorption. 7 point Likert scale, where "0" refers to *Never* and "6"

refers to *Always*, was used in order to gather data from the participants about their activities belong to engagement.

3.8.3. Exploratory Pre-Studies

In order to adapt the scale to Turkish culture and especially educational organizations, 5 items were added to the original scale. The scale is a commonly used measure in the literature in different countries. So there are versions in different languages. There is also a version in Turkish. With the additional items, a pool of 22 items was generated in order to apply exploratory analysis.

As it was mentioned the gathered data from the pilot group was analyzed by the package program of SPSS 21. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was .94, which suggested that data were appropriate for factor analysis. In addition to KMO measurement Barlett's test of sphericity was applied and found to be statistically significant, $\chi^2(231) = 6706.25$, $p < .00$. It is found that the correlation matrix is not an identity matrix and suitable for factor analysis.

To decide the number of factors firstly the criteria of eigenvalue of greater than 1 and scree tests were considered. Based on the tests, there are three factors explaining the 64.68% of the variance.

The factor loadings are reviewed with the criteria of .30 (Hair, 1998). The factor loadings greater than .30 are accepted as loaded the three factors. However Table 3.9 shows that most of the items loaded to all of the three of the factors. So it is not possible to say that there is a three dimensional structure that was found at the result of the analysis.

In some studies a three-factor model of the UWES was not confirmed. The findings of the study of Rothmann, Jorgensen and Marais (2011) shows that one single factor could be extracted. They performed a principal components analysis and factor analysis and inspecting eigenvalues then decide to use single factor model. There are also other studies like Shimazu et al. (2008), Sonnentag (2003), and Wefald and Downey (2009) that supports the one-factor solution for the versions UWES like 17-itemed, 16-itemed and 14 itemed. In addition to these, Storm and

Rothmann (2003) pointed out that a one-factor solution exhibited a better fit than a three-factor solution with correlated errors to reflect domain-specific shared variance.

Table 3.9

Factor Loadings of Items of The WES

Item	Factor		
	1	2	3
we5	.903	.640	.479
we7	.859	.582	.292
we11	.852	.701	.250
we8	.820	.587	.328
we9	.820	.585	.260
we16	.816	.698	.302
we6	.813	.523	.355
we14	.809	.643	.334
we10	.806	.562	.266
we15	.799	.714	.258
we3	.754	.599	.654
we12	.723	.664	.429
we2	.722	.587	.543
we1	.642	.562	.641
we21	.579	.820	.219
we20	.563	.819	.383
we13	.655	.734	.087
we17	.567	.714	.201
we19	.493	.636	.361
we22	.473	.631	.252
we18	.418	.575	.009
we4	.748	.635	.828

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

The internal consistencies ranged between .80 and .90, and confirmatory factor analysis results shown that the UWES is a reliable and valid measure with its one dimensional structure. In addition Storm and Rothman (2003) mentioned that UWES can be utilized as an objective instrument to measure work engagement because it is a valid instrument.

With the additional items in the last version of the scale with one dimension that is used in this study; there are 22 questions. Participants rated their levels of employee engagement on a 7 point Likert scale where “1” refers to *Never* and “7” refers to *Always* like the original scale.

3.9. Measuring Core Self-Evaluations

3.9.1. Background of the Construction of the Scale

When the related literature is reviewed, it can be seen that the Core Self-Evaluations is studied very widely both in the field of psychology. As Judge and Bono (2001) mentioned that the four traits of CSE were studied in more than 50.000 studies.

Brunborg (2008) mentioned that the previous research in this area was conducted by using and combining separate measures for four different traits in contrast to use a specific measure.

In 1997 Judge and his colleagues defined a broad, latent, higher order trait which was named as CSE and they provided evidence that self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control and low neuroticism are related enough be a higher order construct (Judge & Bono, 2001). In addition to these Judge, Locke, Durham and Kluger proved that these four traits were treated as a single factor.

In the development process of constructing the scale, Judge and his colleagues firstly determined the scales which are used frequently for each trait and then they developed a pool of 65 items based on the literature. This process showed them the significant correlation between the items and commality among them. In the light of this they decided a version of short and enough in order to be useful.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis was conducted and the authors mentioned that the overall results suggested the one-dimensional factor which the items were loaded. Moreover the investigation of nomological network of the CSES showed that this valid construct significantly converges with the four traits especially with three of them (Judge, Erez, Bono and Thoresen, 2003; Gardner and Pierce, 2009).

3.9.2. The Scale of Core Self-Evaluations

Judge, Erez, Bono and Thoresen (2003) developed a single direct measurement with 12 items that loaded strongly on the CSE factor in order to measure the CSE. As mentioned in Gardner and Pierce (2009) Judge and his associates noted the unique variance that each of the traits have. The study, which was conducted with four independent samples, was reported by Judge and his colleagues for validating the scale. They addressed the construct validity by offering some kind of observations which are summarized by Gardner and Pierce (2009). First of all they pointed that all alpha coefficients were greater than .80; therefore there is a strong sample internal consistency reliability estimates. Secondly, test-retest reliability of .81 demonstrated good stability. Thirdly, CSES is one-dimensional since all the analyses indicate a single-factor model. Then, there were strong correlations with global self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and neuroticism; and there were also moderately strong correlations with extraversion and conscientiousness. Furthermore there were weak correlations with agreeableness and openness. Each of these relationships was consistent with theoretical expectations. In the light of these they concluded that there is a good convergent and discriminant validity. In order to evaluate the construct validity, the relationship between CSE and job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and task performance were analyzed and strong construct validity was demonstrated. They also founded the scale as useful in predicting each of the several distinct criteria like job performance, and job and life satisfaction and also over and above the four base traits as self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability. Lastly Gardner

and Pierce (2009) controlled the effects of other theoretically relevant traits and found that the incremental validity was demonstrated by the CSES.

3.9.3. Exploratory Pre-Studies

The original scale was directly used for the pilot study. Unlike the other three scales there is not any additional item to the scale. The translation process was completed for the scale and conducted to the pilot group. So, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used in order to determine the factor design of the scale.

The gathered data from the pilot group was analyzed by the package program of SPSS 21. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was .76, which suggested that data were appropriate for factor analysis. In addition to KMO measurement Barlett's test of sphericity was applied and found to be statistically significant, $\chi^2(66) = 1044.61$, $p < .00$. It is found that the correlation matrix is not an identity matrix and suitable for factor analysis.

To decide the number of factors firstly the criteria of eigenvalue of greater than 1 and scree tests were considered. The factor loadings are reviewed with the criteria of .30 (Hair, 1998). The factor loadings and the total variance explained which is smaller than .55 shows that the scale is not a multi-factorial design. It is only one factor parallel and logical to the literature.

Judge, Erez, Bono and Thoresen (2003) believed that the scale is very useful in order to conduct in applied psychology and their study's results showed that the whole scale betters all of the four individual measures in every related criterion in the four samples.

In order to evaluate the construct validation of the scale Gardner and Pierce (2009) conducted a study which they operationalized the CSES and a composite measure of four different traits. They concluded that however the composite scale performed more strongly than the CSES, it is more practical for organizational studies when time is a constraint in the data collection process. It is obvious that when the number of the items is increased the psychometric properties are reflected

better. So it is not surprising that the 34-itemed composite measure correlated more strongly than the CSES.

Judge (2009) mentioned the process of using composite scales as “cumbersome” in contrast to use a 12-item scale that he and his colleagues developed. Also he mentioned that the scale has the advantage of brevity.

The statistical results and related literature including the examples of the studies which were conducted to determine the CSE and the well-being outcomes like job satisfaction showed that the CSES is a reliable and valid instrument which gives an advantage of direct measurement that is useful in studying the relationship between organizational learning capability, organizational commitment and job enthusiasm.

3.10. Instrument of the Main Study

The instrument for this study was composed of five sections as participants’ demographic information, organizational learning capability, organizational commitment, work engagement, and core self-evaluations. There are 96 items in the survey with a 7-point Likert-type response scale except the Core Self-Evaluation Scale which is designed with 5-point Likert-type scale.

The demographic information form has 11 items which gather data about gender, age, education level, graduated department, experience, employee type, in-service training and administrative tasks. Organizational Learning Capability Scale has 21 items, the Organizational Commitment Scale has 24, the Work Engagement scale has 22 and lastly the Core Self-evaluations has 12 items.

3.10.1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis in the Main Study

3.10.1.1. The Results of CFA conducted to OLCS

As mentioned before the results of EFA with the data of pilot study were not compatible with the factor structure in the related literature for the scale of OLC. The

three factorial structure was not endorsed for the WE scale and it is decided to use the one-dimensional structure. The results of EFA for OC and CSE scale were compatible for the related literature.

Further to EFA, CFA was conducted with the data in the main study in order to test four-factor structure of organizational learning capability and to ensure the construct validity of the scale.

Brown (2006) recommended assessing the model fit. The model chi-square, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) values were taken into consideration while evaluating the fit for four factors CFA model of OLCS.

The results of CFA for OLCS showed that chi-square value was significant ($\chi^2= 2421.83$, $df= 246$, $p= .00$) with the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value of .09, non-normed fit index (NNFI) value of .852, and comparative fit index (CFI) value of .864.

Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggested that chi-square is a test that is sensitive to the sample size, and the test may give significant results when the sample size is large. In the light of Byrne (2001) other fit indices of RMSEA, NNFI and CFI were used to compensate the limitations caused by the chi-square test.

The CFA results of the model were presented in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10

CFA Results for the Model of Organizational Learning Capability Scale

Scale	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI
OLCS	2421.83	246	.09	.86	.85

The results indicate not a sufficient model fit, modification indices errors were checked and those with the highest values were identified in the light of the suggestions of Arbuckle and Wothke (1999). The items were checked to decide whether they belonged to the same factor or measured related constructs. However, after the modification the results were not satisfactory enough again. Therefore, it

was decided to eliminate the three items which seems problematic.

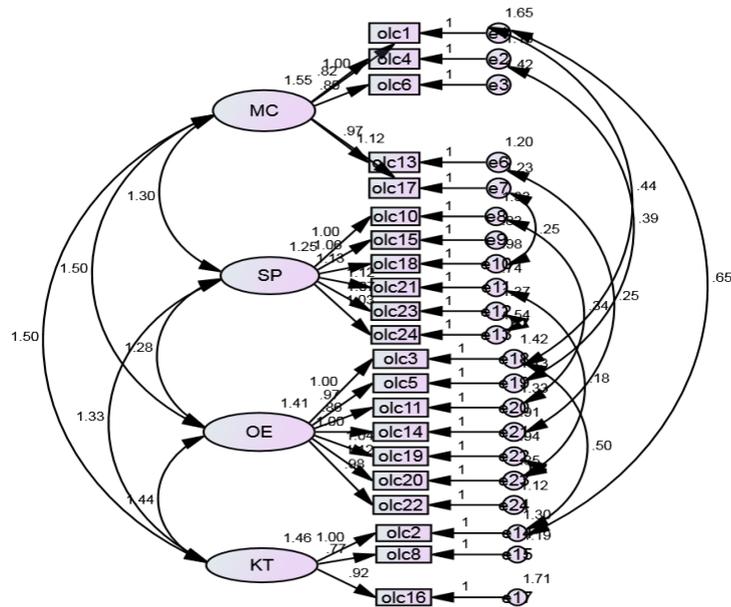


Figure 3.1 Four Factor CFA Model of OLC with Standardized Estimates

Figure 3.1 illustrates the CFA model of OLC Scale.

The CFA was conducted again to the revised model. The results of CFA showed that chi-square value was significant ($\chi^2 = 945.02$, $df = 173$, $p = .00$) with the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value of .065, non-normed fit index (NNFI) value of .94, and comparative fit index (CFI) value of .95.

The CFA results of the model were presented in Table 3.11.

Browne and Cudeck (1992) proposed for the interpretation of RMSEA values in the range of 0.05 and 0.08 indicate mediocre fit. Thus, considering RMSEA value of .065, the analysis can be accepted as resulted in mediocre fit. Hu and Bentler (1999) also mentioned the critical value of a good-fitting model of .95 of the CFI and

NNFI values. Thus, the CFA model can be accepted as provided satisfactory result on the three factor structure of OCS.

Table 3.11

CFA Results for Revised Model of Organizational Learning Capability Scale

Scale	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI
OLCS	945.02	173	.065	.95	.94

3.10.1.2. The Results of CFA conducted to OCS

In addition to EFA, CFA was conducted with the data in the main study in order to test three-factor structure of organizational commitment for ensuring the construct validity of the scale.

In the light of Brown's (2006) recommendations the model chi-square, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) values were taken into consideration while evaluating the fit for three factors CFA model of OLCS.

The results of CFA showed that chi-square value was significant ($\chi^2= 5274.37$, $df= 402$, $p= .00$) with the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value of .10, non-normed fit index (NNFI) value of .554, and comparative fit index (CFI) value of .573.

The CFA results of the model were presented in Table 3.12.

Table 3.12

CFA Results for the Model of Organizational Commitment Scale

Scale	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI
OCS	5274.37	402	.10	.57	.55

Browne and Cudeck (1992) and Hu and Bentler (1999) mentioned the values of RMSEA of .10 indicated non-fit. The CFI and NNFI values were below the critical value of a good-fitting model of .95 as mentioned in Hu and Bentler (1999). Because of indicating not a very sufficient fit, modification indices errors were checked and those with the highest values were identified in the light of the suggestions of Arbuckle and Wothke (1999). These items were checked to decide whether they belonged to the same factor or measured related constructs. For instance the item pair of oc3 – oc9 was loaded on the same factor of the scale, while the item pairs of oc19 – oc20, and oc16 – oc18 were loaded on the different factor. Item 3 is related to find to work in another organization moral or not. Item 9 is about the ethical concerns of the employee to not to continue to work at the organization. So it can be said that the items are about continuing to work in the same place with moral and ethical concerns. Item 19 is about loyalty to continue to work. Item 20 is about to give importance to the organization. It is not surprising to continue to work in the organization that is valuable with loyalty. Item 16 is related to not to have so many choices to quite from the organization. Item 18 is related to not to have alternative job opportunities. Despite not being loaded on the same factor, careful analysis of these items enabled to conclude that they measure the same scale. Therefore, the model was revised.

The CFA was conducted again to the revised model. The results of CFA showed that chi-square value was significant ($\chi^2= 2285.95$, $df= 364$, $p= .00$) with the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value of .069, non-normed fit index (NNFI) value of .858, and comparative fit index (CFI) value of .881.

The CFA results of the model were presented in Table 3.13.

Table 3.13

CFA Results for the Revised Model of Organizational Commitment Scale

Scale	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI
OCS	2285.95	364	.07	.88	.86

Browne and Cudeck (1993) suggest guidelines for the interpretation of RMSEA values in the range of 0.05 and 0.08 indicate mediocre fit. Thus, considering RMSEA value of .07, the analysis can be accepted as resulted in mediocre fit. Although the CFI and NNFI values were below the critical value of a good-fitting model of .95 as mentioned in Hu and Bentler (1999), mediocre fit could be justified considering the result of RMSEA of the CFA. Thus, the final CFA model provided satisfactory result on the three factor structure of OCS.

3.10.1.3. The Results of CFA conducted to WES

In addition to EFA, CFA was conducted with the data in the main study in order to test factor structure of work engagement for ensuring the construct validity of the scale.

Again, according to Brown's (2006) recommendations the model chi-square, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) values were taken into consideration while evaluating the fit for one factor CFA model of WES.

The results of CFA showed that chi-square value was significant ($\chi^2=2331.06$, $df=209$, $p=.00$) with the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value of .09, non-normed fit index (NNFI) value of .875, and comparative fit index (CFI) value of .885.

The CFA results of the model were presented in Table 3.14.

Table 3.14

CFA Results for the Model of Work Engagement Scale

Scale	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI
WE	2331.06	209	.09	.89	.88

Browne and Cudeck (1993) suggest guidelines for the interpretation of RMSEA values in the range of 0.08 and 0.10 indicate poor fit. Thus, considering

RMSEA value of .09, the analysis resulted in poor fit. The CFI and NNFI values were below the critical value of a good-fitting model of .95 as mentioned in Hu and Bentler (1999). Thus, the CFA model provided unsatisfactory result on the one factor structure of WE. Therefore; modification indices errors were checked and those with the highest values were identified in the light of the suggestions of Arbuckle and Wothke (1999). These items were checked to decide whether they belonged to the same factor or measured related constructs. The revised model is illustrated in Figure 3.2 and the results for the revised model are presented in Table 3.15.

Table 3.15

CFA Results for the Revised Model of Work Engagement Scale

Scale	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI
WE	1242.21	198	.07	.94	.93

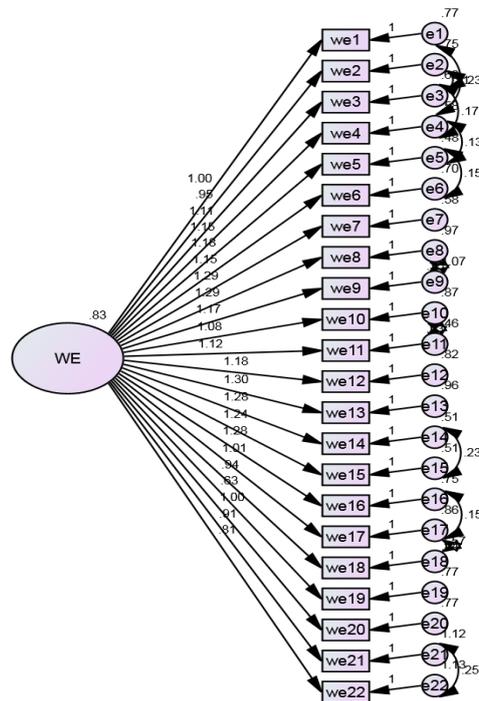


Figure 3.2 One Factor CFA Model of WES with Standardized Estimates

The results of CFA showed that chi-square value was significant ($\chi^2=1241.21$, $df=198$, $p=.00$) with the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value of .07, non-normed fit index (NNFI) value of .933, and comparative fit index (CFI) value of .943. In the light of Brown and Cudeck (1992) the revised model can be accepted as a mediocre fit because of having RMSEA value between .05 and .08, while the CFI and NNFI values are close to .95.

3.10.1.4. The Results of CFA conducted to CSE

In addition to EFA, CFA was conducted with the data in the main study in order to test one dimensional structure of organizational commitment for ensuring the construct validity of the scale.

In the light of Brown's (2006) recommendations the model chi-square, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) values were taken into consideration while evaluating the fit for one dimensional CFA model of CSE.

The results of CFA showed that chi-square value was significant ($\chi^2=1559.43$, $df=54$, $p=.00$) with the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value of .16, non-normed fit index (NNFI) value of .575, and comparative fit index (CFI) value of .582.

The CFA results of the model were presented in Table 3.16.

Table 3.16

CFA Results for the Model of Core Self Evaluations Scale

Scale	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI
OCS	1559.43	54	.16	.58	.58

Browne and Cudeck (1993) suggest guidelines for the interpretation of RMSEA values above 0.10 unacceptable fit. The CFI and NNFI values were below the critical value of a good-fitting model of .95 as mentioned in Hu and Bentler

(1999). Thus, the CFA model did not provide satisfactory result on one dimensional structure of CSE.

So, modification indices errors were checked and those with the highest values were identified in the light of the suggestions of Arbuckle and Wothke (1999). The identified pairs with the high error covariance were cse1 – cse3, cse1 – cse7, cse1 – cse9, cse1 – cse11, cse3 – cse5, cse3 – cse7, cse3 – cse11, cse5 – cse7, cse5 – cse11, cse7 – cse11, cse9 – cse11. These items were checked to decide whether they belonged to the same factor. All of the item pairs were loaded on the same factor of the scale. The mentioned items are the positive items. They are related to be successful and self satisfied. Analysis of these items enabled to conclude that they measure the same scale. Therefore, the model was revised. Figure 3.3 illustrated the revised model of CSE.

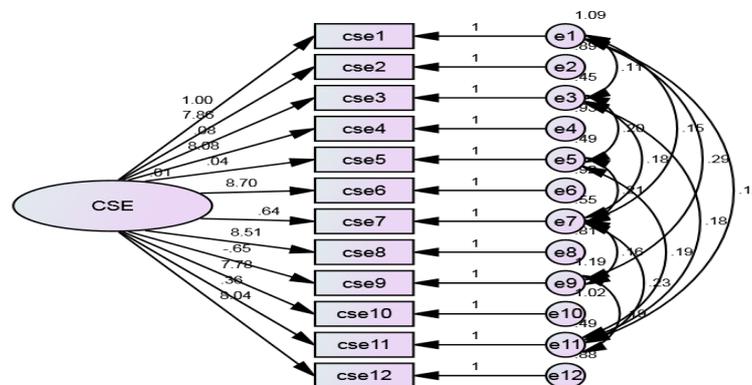


Figure 3.3 One Factor CFA Model of WES with Standardized Estimates

The CFA was conducted again to the revised model. The results of CFA showed that chi-square value was significant ($\chi^2= 1779,84$, $df= 42$, $p= .00$) with the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value of .10, non-normed fit index (NNFI) value of .725, and comparative fit index (CFI) value of .763.

The CFA results of the model were presented in Table 3.17.

Considering RMSEA value of .078 the analysis resulted closer to the limit of mediocre and non-fit model. The CFI and NNFI values were below the critical value of a good-fitting model of .95 as mentioned in Hu and Bentler (1999), mediocre fit could be justified considering the value of RMSEA which is smaller than .08. Harrington (2009) remarked that too few factors may lead to poor fit, which is the case with one-dimensional CSE with 12 items.

Table 3.17

CFA Results for the Revised Model of Core Self Evaluations Scale

Scale	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI
OCS	342.35	42	.078	.917	.907

The important point is the total score for the scale of Core Self Evaluations in order to analyze whether the variable predict the dependent variable or not. It is known that each item should be linearly related to total score. So it is preferred to use Tukey's Additivity Test which tests the null hypothesis that there is no multiplicative interaction between the cases and the items. As a result of examination with Tukey's test of Additivity it was seen that the items of the CSE scale have the additivity quality ($F=705.04$, $p<.00$). In other words the significant result shows that there is a multiplicative interaction.

Finally, cronbach's alpha values (Table 3.18) were checked which provided construct related evidence. The values of alphas are greater than .60 which shows that the scale is reliable.

Table 3.18

Internal consistency Coefficients of Each Dimension of the Scales

Scale	Dimension	Croanbach's
Alpha Value Organizational Learning Capability	Managerial Commitment	.84
	Systems Perspective	.87
	Openness & Experimentation	.90
	Knowledge transfer & integration	.70
Organizational Commitment	Affective Commitment	.66
	Continuance Commitment	.68
	Normative Commitment	.67
Work Engagement		.97
Core Self Evaluations		.75

3.11. Data Analysis Procedure

The uncompleted questionnaires were excluded declining sample size from 2500 to 1050 suggested in Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Before conducting the analysis; the accuracy of data entry, missing values and the assumption of parametric tests were investigated. Missing data were checked using frequencies and descriptives, and missing values analysis (MVA) results indicated Little's MCAR test: Chi-Square = 2254.237, $df = 2420$, $p = .00$. Since the missing data were not missing completely at random (MCAR), and it accounted for more than 5 % of the data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), missing values were imputed using expectation maximization (EM) algorithm available in SPSS, as it is considered to be a common way to impute missing values (Harrington, 2009).

Before the investigation process, assumptions were checked for each analysis. Descriptive and inferential analyses were carried out in the pilot and main studies using SPSS 21. In order to understand the characteristics of the sample, descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation, and frequency) of the data were presented. It was also intended to use as many as possible of the demographic characteristics as predictors in the hierarchical regression model while analyzing the relationship between the organizational and individual level variables that predict the dimensions of organizational learning. To test the construct validity of OLCS, exploratory factor analysis was carried out in the pilot study, and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was carried out in the main study. The CFA for Organizational Learning Capability Scale (OLCS), Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS), Work Engagement Scale (WES) and Core Self Evaluation Scale (CSES) were performed by the software AMOS 22.

In the next step, information related to organizational learning, organizational commitment, work engagement and core self evaluations with regard to demographic information were presented.

Finally, for the main analysis to check the predictive value of OC, WE, CSE for OLC Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis was explored. Four hierarchical regression analyses different from each other were carried out for managerial commitment, systems perspective, openness and experimentation, and knowledge transfer and integration and the related assumptions were validated. The variables were entered in to the model in six blocks. Table 3.19 illustrates the block variables. The first block variables were faculty type, academic degree, years of teaching experience and length of employment at current school. The first block variables were identified as background variables. The second block variable included in-service training variables. The third block included managerial task variable. The fourth block included affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment, and it was identified Organizational Commitment Variables. The fifth block was Work Engagement Variables. The final block included Core Self Evaluations Variable. Analyses were conducted by using the

software SPSS 21. The significance level for all research questions was defined as .05.

Table 3.19

The Blocks of Variables Entering the Model

Predictors

Block 1 Background Variables

- Faculty type
- Academic degree
- Years of teaching experience
- Length of employment at current school

Block 2 In-service training Variable

Block 3 Managerial Task Variable

Block 4 Organizational Commitment Variables

- Affective commitment
- Normative commitment
- Continuance commitment

Block 5 Work Engagement Variable

Block 6 Core Self Evaluations Variable

3.12. Limitations of the Study

This study is a quantitative study uses questionnaire which collected self reported data. The collected data is limited with what the participants say and believe. There may be potential sources of bias contained in the data. Since, the use of self-report measures may lead to inflation of common method variance. Collecting data of dependent and independent variables at the same time may be another reason for inflation of common variables.

In addition to this, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted. The results of the study presents the predictions between the variables, there is not any causal explanation of the variables in the study.

The data for the study were gathered in the education year of 2012-2013, the year that the Turkish Education system adapted to the system of 4+4+4. There can be exogenous variables that affect the results of the study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents the findings of the study. First of all, descriptive statistics related to demographic variables were presented. Then descriptive statistics of the scales are discussed. The following part presents correlations between the scales in the instrument. For the main purpose of the study Hierarchical Regression Analysis results were presented in order to determine whether the variables of organizational commitment, work engagement and core self-evaluations useful in predicting organizational learning capability.

4.1. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants and Descriptive Statistics

The target population of the present study is the teachers work in primary and secondary schools, in Ankara. The sample was selected by cluster sampling method. The sample consisted of 1050 teachers from primary and secondary schools. There are 700 female and 350 male teachers who attended to the study. The youngest teacher was 23 and the oldest teacher was 63 years; and the average age is 42. Most of the teachers ($N=934$) had a bachelor degree, 106 of them had masters, 8 of them had PhD, and there are also 2 teachers graduated from a two year under-graduate program. There were 427 teachers graduated from educational faculties and 623 teachers graduated from different faculties. The teachers had minimum 1 year and maximum 45 years of experience in teaching profession. The mean value of the teaching experience is about 18 years. There were teachers who work in the current school for one year and also have experience in the same school for 31 years; but the

average value that the teachers work in their current school is 7 years. Most of the teachers ($N = 889$) were permanent staff, 146 teachers worked as specialists and also there were 5 contracted teachers and 10 substitute teachers. 587 teachers did not attend to an in-service training activity in the recent year; in contrast 463 teachers attended at least one in-service training activity. The number of in-service training activities that the teachers attended range from 1 to 7, the participants mostly attended to one to two activities. 905 teachers did not perform an administrative task and 145 teachers performed or still performing an administrative task.

4.2. The Results of Descriptive Statistics of Scales

The study gathered data about organizational learning capability, organizational commitment, work engagement, and core self-evaluations. The inventory which consists pre-developed and self-developed scales were used in order to gather data. The data were collected from 1050 public school teachers in Ankara, Turkey. The teachers were asked to respond the close ended items on a Likert type scale with 7 or 5 point. Table 4.1 summarizes the minimum and maximum values, mean scores and the standard deviations of the total scores of the variables.

The higher the score from the OLC scale means that the organizational learning capability of the subjected organization is high. However, the results of the descriptive statistics indicated quite high mean scores. The dimensions of the organizational learning capability have very close mean scores.

The higher the score from the OC scale means that the commitment of a teacher to his/her school is high. The higher scores can be interpreted as the teachers who have high values committed to their school more. The scores for all three dimensions of organizational commitment are also close. The results show that the teacher's affectively commitment has the highest mean value.

The scores from the WE scale show the engagement level of a teacher to the teaching profession. The mean scores of teacher's work engagement are high.

The high CES means a person is satisfied with him/herself, his or her goal commitment is high, and he or she is a motivated individual, and also emotionally

stable; moreover he or she has internal locus of control. The results indicated that CSE has a high mean score.

Table 4.1
Descriptives of Total Scores

Scale	Dimension	Std.				
		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Deviation
Organizational Learning Capability						
	Managerial Commitment	1050	1	7	4.66	1.29
	Systems Perspective	1050	1	7	4.63	1.28
	Openness & Experiment.	1050	1	7	4.69	1.25
	Knowledge Trans.& Shar	1050	1	7	4.8	1.26
Organizational Commitment						
	Affective	1050	1.8	6.4	4.64	.77
	Continuous	1050	1.2	6.5	4.02	.95
	Normative	1050	1.7	6.4	4.40	.75
Work Engagement		1050	1.1	7	5.3	1.02
Core Self Evaluation		1050	2.25	5	3.68	.57

4.3. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients among Predictor Variables and Criterion Variable

The association between the scales was investigated. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient (see Table 4.2) was used to find any existent linear relationship between the variables as mentioned in Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). The results show that there is a strong positive relationship between the dimensions of Organizational learning; the correlations range between .79 and .88. However, the same trend was not observed for the three separate dimensions of OCS. Although the

correlation between affective commitment and normative commitment is moderate, the correlation between continuous commitment and affective commitment and similar to this, the correlation between continuous commitment and normative commitment are very weak. There are weak positive relationships between the work engagement and the other variables except the correlation between WE and continuous commitment which shows a moderate relationship ($r = .41$). In addition to these there are very weak correlations between core self evaluations and the other variables.

Apart from inconclusive findings concerning factor structure about the work engagement variable, it was also analyzed to conduct the study on work engagement as a three-dimensional structure. But high inter-correlations, range between .90 and .95, were detected between the three dimensions. There are also studies showing high inter-correlations amongst the three factors consistently. For instance, Christian and Slaughter (2007) found high inter-correlations in a meta-analysis of work engagement research. Due to high inter-correlation, there are researchers like Balducci et al., (2010), and Schaufeli, Bakker and Salanova (2006) who have proposed utilizing a total score as an indicator of work engagement. In the light of these it was decided to have a total score of work engagement as an indicator.

4.4. Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) mentioned that in order to evaluate relationship between a group of predictor variables and the criterion variable the hierarchical regression analysis should be used. Also, Field (2005) stated that in hierarchical regression analysis, an outcome variable is predicted by several predictors. Four separate hierarchical linear regression analyses were conducted to indicate how well organizational commitment, work engagement and core evaluations predict the dimensions of organizational learning capability of an organization.

As indicated in Table 3.19, predictor variables were faculty type as educational faculties or the other faculties; academic degree as 2 year university, B.A., M.A., Ph.D., and dummy coding was used while taking B.A. degree as the

reference category; years of teaching experience, length of employment at current school; in-service training variable, administrative task variable, organizational commitment with its three dimension, work engagement variable and core self-evaluations.

4.4.1. Research Question 1: Predictors of Managerial Commitment

The first research question was: “What is the predictive value of background variables, organizational commitment, work engagement and core self evaluation for the managerial commitment dimension of organizational learning capability of the primary and secondary schools in Ankara?”

The criterion variable was managerial commitment. The predictor variables were entered in six blocks labeled as presented in Table 3.19.

4.4.1.1. Assumption Check for Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Sample Size. First of all, the sample size was evaluated in order to see whether the sample is suitable to conduct hierarchical regression analysis or not. Green (1991) suggested that the minimum sample size can be calculated by the formula $N > 50 + 8k$, where k refers to the number of criterion variables.

The minimum sample size for this study was calculated as 138 with 11 independent variables. So the sample size of the study ($N=1050$) was appropriate to conduct hierarchical regression analysis.

Normally Distributed Errors. Histogram and normal P-P plot of the residuals were checked in order to assume that the residuals in the model are random in other words normally distributed. It can be visually inspected from the histogram there is a bell-shaped figure (Figure 4.1) and also, despite slight deviations from the normal distribution, P-P plot also represented normal distribution for the residuals (Figure 4.2). So it can be said that the normality is not violated seriously and it can be assumed that the residuals in the model are normally distributed.

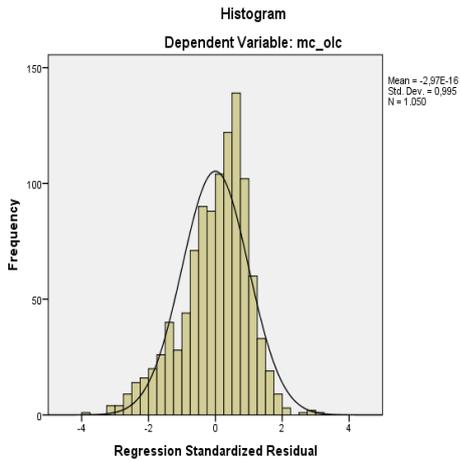


Figure 4.1 Histogram of Residuals

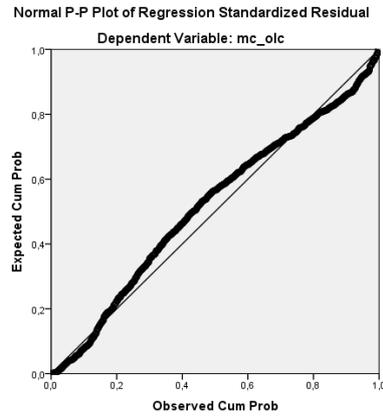


Figure 4.2 P-P Plot of Residuals

Homoscedasticity and Linearity. In order to validate the homoscedasticity and linearity the residual scatterplot (Figure 4.3) was checked. The scatterplot of predicted value and residual has not an apparent pattern. Field (2009) mentioned that the points need to be randomly and uniformly dispersed throughout the plot in order to validate the assumption of homoscedasticity. Although the variance of residuals are scattered horizontally to the right side and vertically to the center, the cases in the residual scatterplot are randomly dispersed. So it can be accepted that the homoscedasticity assumption is not violated.

Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) stated that if there is linearity the overall shape of the scatterplot should be in the form of a rectangle. Figure 4.3 shows that the scatterplot is not perfectly rectangular. Although nonlinearity was presented in the scatterplot, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) also said that nonlinearity does not invalidate an analysis so much as weaken it.

Table 4.2
Correlations for the Scales in the Inventory

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Managerial Commitment									
2. Systems Perspective	.78**								
3. Knowledge Trans. & Integ.	.80**	.79**							
4. Openness & Experimentation	.88**	.85**	.83**						
5. Affective Commitment	.45**	.54**	.46**	.48**					
6. Continuous Commitment	.20**	.17*	.18*	.20**	.13**				
7. Normative Commitment	.36**	.40**	.38**	.39**	.58**	.33**			
8. Work Engagement	.32**	.33**	.34**	.36**	.38**	.10**	.41**		
9. Core Self-Evaluation	.05*	.13**	.10**	.08**	.19**	-.24**	.14**	.31**	

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

* $p < .05$ (2-tailed)

Independent Errors. In order to conduct regression analysis, the residual terms should be uncorrelated or independent for any two observations. It can be checked by Durbin Watson test. Field (2009) mentioned that Durbin Watson value be not less than 1 or greater than 3 so as to validate the assumption of independence errors. The analysis showed that the independent errors assumption is not violated with a Durbin Watson value of 1.989.

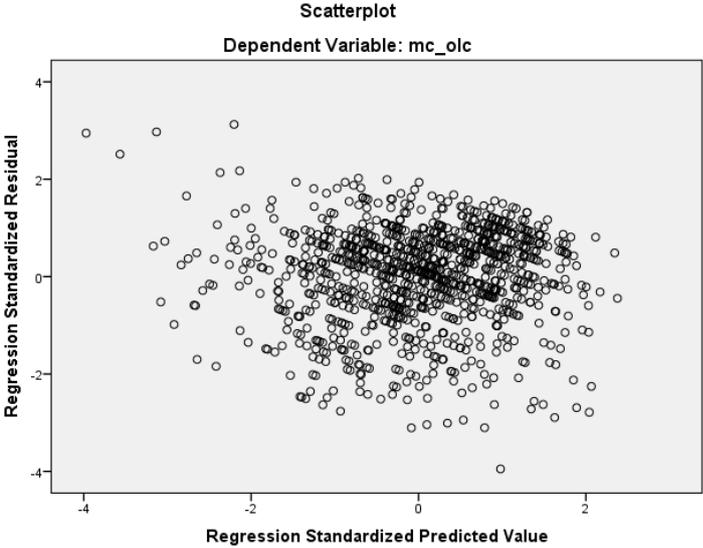


Figure 4.3 Residual Scatterplot

Multicollinearity and Singularity. Multicollinearity exists when there is a strong correlation between two or more predictors in regression model. In order to conduct regression analysis there must be no perfect multicollinearity. Field (2009) suggested three different ways for checking multicollinearity. First way is to scan the correlation matrix. If there is not a strong correlations ($r > .90$) between the variables was observed, it is possible to validate the multicollinearity assumption. The correlation matrix of this study shows that there is not any strong correlation between the variables. The suggested second way is to check the values of variance inflation factor (VIF) which should be less than 4. The findings showed that VIF values are between 1 and 1.8. The third way is to check the tolerance value which should be

more than .20. The results indicated that the tolerance values range from .55 to .98. In the light of these it can be assumed that there is no perfect multicollinearity, there is not any violation of the assumption.

Influential Observation. In order to check the multivariate outliers, the partial regression plot of each predictor were inspected. This visual inspection of regression plots suggested that there are some multivariate outliers in the data set. Field (2009) suggested assessing the values of Leverage, Cook's distance, DFBeta and Mahalanobis distance in order to validate the assumption. The assumption of Leverage value was validated as the leverage values are within the range of .00 and .07 which should not exceed the value of .50. Another way of checking multivariate outliers, the Cook's distance states that values exceeding the value of 1 can be problematic in terms of multivariate outliers (Cook and Weisberg, 1982). The maximum Cook's distance value of the data set is equal to .02; so there is not any violation. Stevens (2002) mentioned that the criterion value is equal to 2 in order to check the DFBeta values for determining multivariate outliers. The data set showed that the maximum DFBeta value is equal to .40; so there is not any case which exceeds the value of 2. Lastly Mahalanobis distance of each case to the centroid of all cases was computed. 9 cases were detected with the largest distance at the alpha level of .001. In order to determine whether the cases are multivariate outliers or not, critical χ^2 at $\alpha=.001$ for 11 independent variables was checked. The determined critical χ^2 value is equal to 31.264 at $\alpha=.001$. None of the 9 cases has a value in excess of 31.264. All of the mentioned analysis results showed that there are no multivariate outliers.

4.4.1.2. Findings of Regression Analysis

Table 4.3 illustrates the results of hierarchical regression analysis for managerial commitment. Step 1 included background variables which were faculty type, academic degree, years of teaching experience, and length of employment at current school. After step 1, the regression model was significant $R^2= .016$, $\Delta F(4,$

1045) = 4.269. Faculty type was the one of the significant predictor of managerial commitment in favor of graduating from educational faculties. The other significant predictor was the education level of the teachers. After adding the variable of in-service training, in step 2, the regression model was again significant, $R^2 = .023$, $\Delta F(5, 1044) = 4.919$, and in-service training was a significant predictor of managerial commitment.

Table 4.3

Summary of Hierarchical Analysis for Managerial Commitment

Predictor Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>R</i>	R^2	ΔR^2	<i>F</i>
Step 1 Background Variables					.13	.02	.02	4.27**
(Constant)	23.14	1.06		21.81**				
Faculty type	1.30	.41	.09	3.21*				
Education level	-1.15	.54	-.07	-2.12*				
Teaching experience	-.02	.03	-.02	-.75				
Experience at school	-.02	.04	-.02	-.58				
Step 2 In-service Training	1.11	.41	.09	2.30*	.15	.02	.02	4.92**
Step 3 Managerial Task Varia	-.77	.60	-.04	-1.28	.16	.03	.01	4.38**
Step 4 Org. Commitment Variables					.43	.19	.16	26.72**
Affective com.	.40	.04	.37	11.58**				
Normative com.	.04	.04	.03	1.01**				
Continuance com.	.10	.03	.12	3.94**				
Step 5 Work Engagement	.07	.01	.24	8.07**	.49	.24	.05	32.06**
Step 6 CSE	-.04	.03	-.03	-1.08	.49	.24	.00	29.25**

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

* $p < .05$ (2-tailed)

After step 3, with the addition of managerial task variable the regression model was significant, $R^2 = .025$, $\Delta F(6, 1043) = 4.377$. However having managerial task was not a significant predictor of managerial commitment. Then step 4, the regression model was again significant; $R^2 = .188$, $\Delta F(9, 1040) = 26.721$. The addition of organizational commitment variables resulted in significant rise in

explained variances, and all of the dimensions as affective, normative, and continuous commitment variables were significant in predicting managerial commitment. After step 5, the regression model was still significant with the addition of work engagement, $R^2 = .243$, $\Delta F(10, 1039) = 32.06$, and work engagement is a significant predictor of managerial commitment. After step 6, the regression model was significant again; $R^2 = .243$, $\Delta F(11, 1038) = 29.25$, but core self evaluations is not a significant predictor of managerial commitment.

4.4.2. Research Question 2: Predictors of Systems Perspective

The second research question was: “What is the predictive value of background variables, organizational commitment, work engagement and core self evaluation for the systems perspective dimension of organizational learning capability of the primary and secondary schools in Ankara?”

The criterion variable was systems perspective. The predictor variables were entered in six blocks labeled as presented in Table 3.19.

4.4.2.1. Assumption Check for Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Sample Size. First of all, the sample size was evaluated in order to see whether the sample is suitable to conduct hierarchical regression analysis or not. Green (1991) suggested that the minimum sample size can be calculated by the formula $N > 50 + 8k$, where k refers to the number of criterion variables. The minimum sample size for this study was calculated as 138 with 11 independent variables. So the sample size of the study ($N=1050$) was appropriate to conduct hierarchical regression analysis.

Normally Distributed Errors. Histogram and normal P-P plot of the residuals were checked in order to assume that the residuals in the model are random in other words normally distributed. It can be visually inspected from the histogram there is a bell-shaped figure (Figure 4.4) and also, despite slight deviations from the normal distribution, P-P plot also represented normal distribution for the residuals (Figure

4.5). So it can be said that the normality is not violated and it is assumed that the residuals in the model are normally distributed.

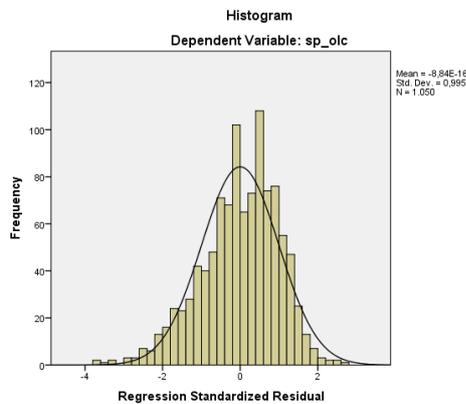


Figure 4.4 Histogram of Residuals

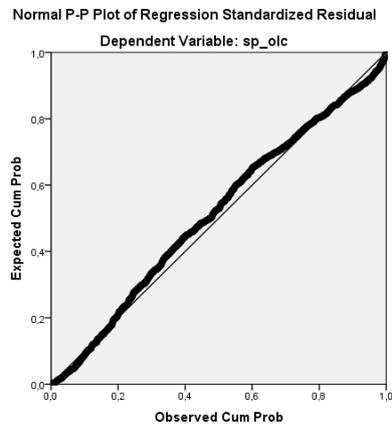


Figure 4.5 P-P Plot of Residuals

Homoscedasticity and Linearity. In order to validate the homoscedasticity and linearity the residual scatterplot (Figure 4.6) was checked. The scatterplot of predicted value and residual has not an apparent pattern. It was observed in Figure 4.6 that the shape of the scatterplot could be considered to represent a rectangle despite some misfits. Thus, linearity assumption was accepted as validated for this analysis. Field (2009) mentioned that the points need to be randomly and uniformly dispersed throughout the plot in order to validate the assumption of homoscedasticity. The cases in the residual scatterplot are randomly dispersed. So it can be accepted that the homoscedasticity assumption is not violated.

Independent Errors. In order to conduct regression analysis, the residual terms should be uncorrelated or independent for any two observations. It can be checked by Durbin Watson test. Field (2009) mentioned that Durbin Watson value be not less than 1 or greater than 3 so as to validate the assumption of independence errors. The analysis showed that the independent errors assumption is not violated with a Durbin Watson value of 1.932.

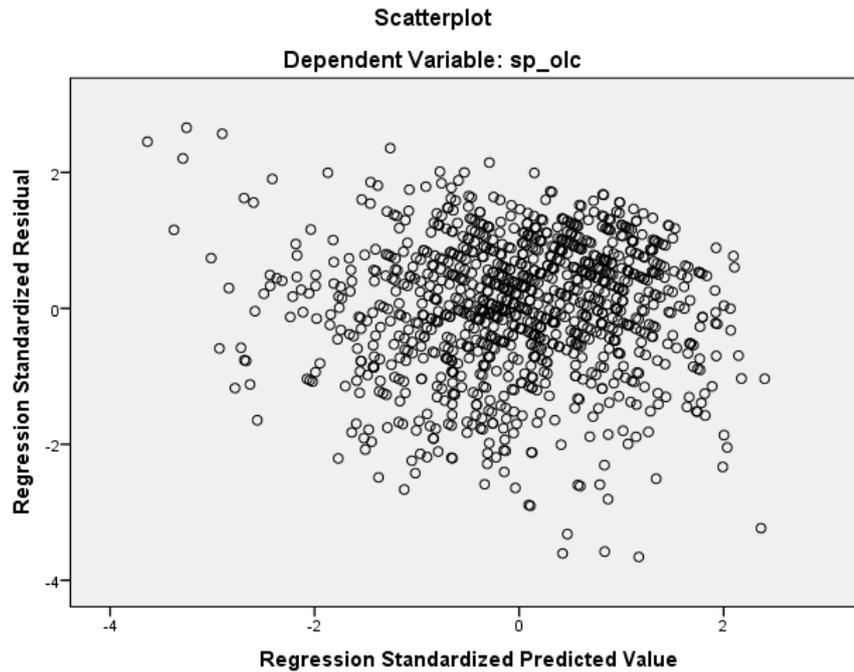


Figure 4.6 Residual Scatterplot

Multicollinearity and Singularity. Multicollinearity exists when there is a strong correlation between two or more predictors in regression model. In order to conduct regression analysis there must be no perfect multicollinearity. Field (2009) suggested three different ways for checking multicollinearity. First way is to scan the correlation matrix. If there is not a strong correlations ($r > .90$) between the variables was observed, it is possible to validate the multicollinearity assumption. The correlation matrix of this study shows that there is not any strong correlation between the variables. The suggested second way is to check the values of variance inflation factor (VIF) which should be less than 4. The findings showed that VIF values are between 1 and 1.8. The third way is to check the tolerance value which should be more than .20. The results indicated that the tolerance values range from .55 to .99. In the light of these it can be assumed that there is no perfect multicollinearity, there is not any violation of the assumption.

Influential Observation. In order to check the multivariate outliers, the partial regression plot of each predictor were inspected. This visual inspection of

regression plots suggested that there are some multivariate outliers in the data set. Field (2009) suggested assessing the values of Leverage, Cook's distance, DFBeta and Mahalanobis distance in order to validate the assumption. The assumption of Leverage value was validated as the leverage values are within the range of .00 and .07 which should not exceed the value of .50. Another way of checking multivariate outliers, the Cook's distance states that values exceeding the value of 1 can be problematic in terms of multivariate outliers (Cook and Weisberg, 1982). The maximum Cook's distance value of the data set is equal to .02; so there is not any violation. Stevens (2002) mentioned that the criterion value is equal to 2 in order to check the DFBeta values for determining multivariate outliers. The data set showed that the maximum DFBeta value is equal to .71; so there is not any case which exceeds the value of 2. Lastly Mahalanobis distance of each case to the centroid of all cases was computed. 9 cases were detected with the largest distance at the alpha level of .001. In order to determine whether the cases are multivariate outliers or not, critical χ^2 at $\alpha=.001$ for 11 independent variables was checked. The determined critical χ^2 value is equal to 31.264 at $\alpha=.001$. None of the 5 cases has a value in excess of 31.264. All of the mentioned analysis results showed that there are no multivariate outliers.

4.4.2.2 Findings of Regression Analysis

Table 4.4 shows the findings of hierarchical regression analysis for systems perspective. Step 1 included background variables which were faculty type, academic degree, years of teaching experience, and length of employment at current school. After step 1, the regression model was not significant $R^2=.005$, $\Delta F(4, 1045) = 1.210$. After adding the variable of in-service training, in step 2, the regression model was significant, $R^2=.01$, $\Delta F(5, 1044) = 2.482$, and in-service training was a significant predictor of systems perspective. After step 3, with the addition of managerial task variable the regression model was again significant, $R^2 = .013$, $\Delta F(6, 1043) = 2.35$. However managerial task was not a significant predictor of systems perspective. Then step 4, the regression model was again significant; $R^2 = .23$, $\Delta F(9, 1040) = 37.53$. The addition of organizational commitment variables resulted in

significant increase in explained variances, and all of the three commitment dimensions were significant in predicting systems perspective. After step 5, the regression model was still significant with the addition of work engagement, $R^2 = .04$, $\Delta F(10, 1039) = 41.16$, and work engagement was a significant predictor of systems perspective. After step 6, the regression model was significant; $R^2 = .001$, $\Delta F(11, 1038) = 3.63$, and core self-evaluations was not a significant predictor of systems perspective.

Table 4.4

Summary of Hierarchical Analysis for Systems Perspective

Predictor Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>R</i>	R^2	ΔR^2	<i>F</i>
Step 1 Background Variables					.07	.01	.01	1.41
(Constant)	27.45	1.28		21.53**				
Faculty type	.85	.48	.06	1.76				
Education level	.94	.65	-.05	1.44				
Teaching experience	.01	.04	.01	.15				
Experience at school	-.01	.05	-.01	-.18				
Step 2 In-service Training	1.27	.49	.08	2.60*	.11	.01	.01	2.47*
Step 3 Managerial Task Var.	-.95	.72	-.04	-1.32	.12	.01	.00	2.35*
Step 4 Org. Commitment Variables					.50	.25	.23	37.53**
Affective com.	.59	.04	.45	14.68**				
Normative com.	.07	.04	.05	1.57**				
Continuance com.	.08	.03	.08	2.86*				
Step 5 Work Engagement	.07	.01	.21	7.48**	.53	.28	.04	41.16**
Step 6 CSE	.05	.03	.04	1.41	.53	.29	.00	3.63**

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

* $p < .05$ (2-tailed)

4.4.3. Research Question 3: Predictors of Knowledge Transfer and Integration

The third research question was: “What is the predictive value of background variables, organizational commitment, work engagement and core self-evaluation for the knowledge transfer and integration dimension of organizational learning capability of the primary and secondary schools in Ankara?”

The criterion variable was knowledge transfer and integration. The predictor variables were entered in six blocks labeled as presented in Table 3.19.

4.4.3.1. Assumption Check for Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Sample Size. First of all, the sample size was evaluated in order to see whether the sample is suitable to conduct hierarchical regression analysis or not. Green (1991) suggested that the minimum sample size can be calculated by the formula $N > 50 + 8k$, where k refers to the number of criterion variables. The minimum sample size for this study was calculated as 138 with 11 independent variables. So the sample size of the study ($N=1050$) was appropriate to conduct hierarchical regression analysis.

Normally Distributed Errors. Histogram and normal P-P plot of the residuals were checked in order to assume that the residuals in the model are random in other words normally distributed. It can be visually inspected from the histogram there is a bell-shaped figure (Figure 4.7) and also, despite slight deviations from the normal distribution, P-P plot also represented normal distribution for the residuals (Figure 4.8). So it can be said that the normality is not violated and it is assumed that the residuals in the model are normally distributed.

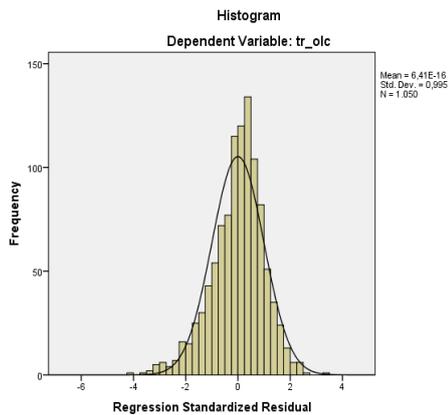


Figure 4.7 Histogram of Residuals

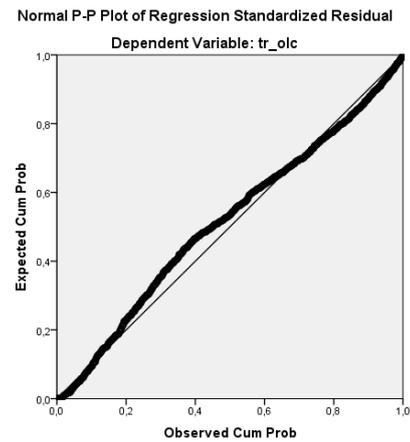


Figure 4.8 P-P Plot of Residuals

Homoscedasticity and Linearity. In order to validate the homoscedasticity and linearity the residual scatterplot (Figure 4.9) was checked. The scatterplot of predicted value and residual has not an apparent pattern. It was observed in Figure 4.9 that the shape of the scatterplot could be considered to represent a rectangle despite some misfits. Thus, linearity assumption was accepted as validated for this analysis. Field (2009) mentioned that the points need to be randomly and uniformly dispersed throughout the plot in order to validate the assumption of homoscedasticity. The cases in the residual scatterplot are randomly dispersed. So it can be accepted that the homoscedasticity assumption is not violated.

Independent Errors. In order to conduct regression analysis, the residual terms should be uncorrelated or independent for any two observations. It can be checked by Durbin Watson test. Field (2009) mentioned that Durbin Watson value be not less than 1 or greater than 3 so as to validate the assumption of independence errors. The analysis showed that the independent errors assumption is not violated with a Durbin Watson value of 1.943.

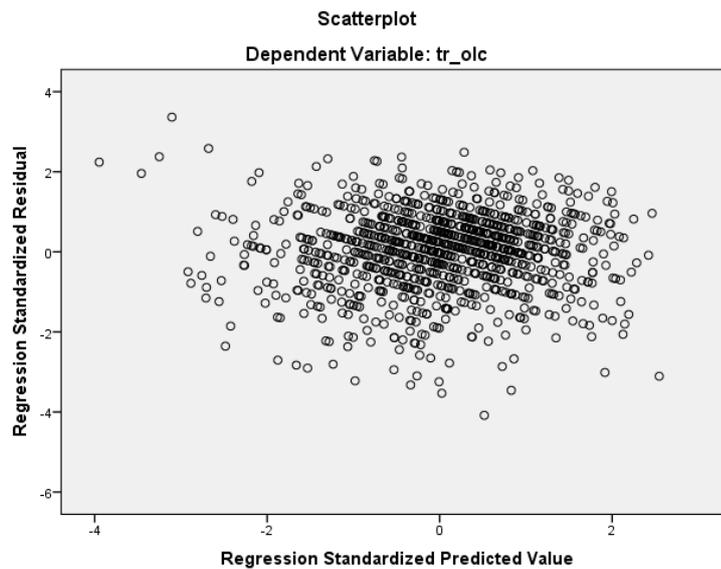


Figure 4.9 Residual Scatterplot

Multicollinearity and Singularity. Multicollinearity exists when there is a strong correlation between two or more predictors in regression model. In order to conduct regression analysis there must be no perfect multicollinearity. Field (2009) suggested three different ways for checking multicollinearity. First way is to scan the correlation matrix. If there is not a strong correlations ($r > .90$) between the variables was observed, it is possible to validate the multicollinearity assumption. The correlation matrix of this study shows that there is not any strong correlation between the variables. The suggested second way is to check the values of variance inflation factor (VIF) which should be less than 4. The findings showed that VIF values are between 1 and 1.8. The third way is to check the tolerance value which should be more than .20. The results indicated that the tolerance values range from .55 to .99. In the light of these it can be assumed that there is no perfect multicollinearity, there is not any violation of the assumption.

Influential Observation. In order to check the multivariate outliers, the partial regression plot of each predictor were inspected. This visual inspection of regression plots suggested that there are some multivariate outliers in the data set. Field (2009) suggested assessing the values of Leverage, Cook's distance, DFBeta

and Mahalanobis distance in order to validate the assumption. The assumption of Leverage value was validated as the leverage values are within the range of .00 and .04 which should not exceed the value of .50. Another way of checking multivariate outliers, the Cook's distance states that values exceeding the value of 1 can be problematic in terms of multivariate outliers (Cook and Weisberg, 1982). The maximum Cook's distance value of the data set is equal to .02; so there is not any violation. Stevens (2002) mentioned that the criterion value is equal to 2 in order to check the DFBeta values for determining multivariate outliers. The data set showed that the maximum DFBeta value is equal to .37; so there is not any case which exceeds the value of 2. Lastly Mahalanobis distance of each case to the centroid of all cases was computed. 5 cases were detected with the largest distance at the alpha level of .001. In order to determine whether the cases are multivariate outliers or not, critical χ^2 at $\alpha=.001$ for 11 independent variables was checked. The determined critical χ^2 value is equal to 31.264 at $\alpha=.001$. None of the 5 cases has a value in excess of 31.264. All of the mentioned analysis results showed that there are no multivariate outliers.

4.4.3.2 Findings of Regression Analysis

Table 4.6 shows the findings of hierarchical regression analysis for knowledge transfer and integration. Step 1 included background variables which were faculty type, academic degree, years of teaching experience, and length of employment at current school. After step 1, the regression model was not significant $R^2=.006$, $\Delta F(4, 1045) = 1.455$. After adding the variable of in-service training, in step 2, the regression model was not also significant, $R^2=.006$, $\Delta F(5, 1044) = 1.237$. After step 3, with the addition of managerial task variable the regression model was again non-significant, $R^2 = .007$, $\Delta F(6, 1043) = 1.160$. After step 4, the regression model was significant; $R^2 = .171$, $\Delta F(9, 1040) = 26.31$. The addition of organizational commitment variables resulted in significant increment in explained variances, and except the continuous commitment, the affective and normative commitment variables are significant in predicting knowledge transfer and integration. After step 5, the regression model was still significant with the addition

of work engagement, $R^2 = .24$, $\Delta F(10, 1039) = 32.49$, and work engagement is a significant predictor of knowledge transfer and integration. After step 6, the regression model was significant; $R^2 = .24$, $\Delta F(11, 1038) = 29.53$, and core self-evaluations is not a significant predictor of knowledge transfer and integration.

Table 4.5

Summary of Hierarchical Analysis for Knowledge Transfer and Integration

Predictor Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>R</i>	R^2	ΔR^2	<i>F</i>
Step 1 Background Variables					.07	.02	.02	1.46
(Constant)	17.80	.63		28.27**				
Faculty type	-.24	.27	-.03	.89				
Education level	.76	.42	.06	1.79				
Teaching experience	.02	.02	.03	.82				
Experience at school	-.04	.03	-.05	-1.41				
Step 2 In-service Training					.08	.01	.01	1.24
Step 3 Managerial Task Var.					.08	.01	.00	1.16
Step 4 Org. Commitment Variables					.43	.19	.17	26.31**
Affective com.	.23	.02	.40	11.98**				
Normative com.	.08	.02	.14	2.57**				
Continuance com.	.06	.01	-.02	2.52*				
Step 5 Work Engagement					.49	.24	.05	32.49**
Step 6 CSE					.49	.24	.00	29.53**

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

* $p < .05$ (2-tailed)

4.4.4. Research Question 4: Predictors of Openness and Experimentation

The fourth research question was: “What is the predictive value of background variables, organizational commitment, work engagement and core self-evaluation for the openness and experimentation dimension of organizational learning capability of the primary and secondary schools in Ankara?”

The criterion variable was openness and experimentation. The predictor variables were entered in six blocks labeled as presented in Table 3.19.

4.4.4.1. Assumption Check for Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Sample Size. First of all, the sample size was evaluated in order to see whether the sample is suitable to conduct hierarchical regression analysis or not. Green (1991) suggested that the minimum sample size can be calculated by the formula $N > 50 + 8k$, where k refers to the number of criterion variables. The minimum sample size for this study was calculated as 138 with 11 independent variables. So the sample size of the study ($N=1050$) was appropriate to conduct hierarchical regression analysis.

Normally Distributed Errors. Histogram and normal P-P plot of the residuals were checked in order to assume that the residuals in the model are random in other words normally distributed. It can be visually inspected from the histogram there is a bell-shaped figure (Figure 4.10) and also, despite slight deviations from the normal distribution, P-P plot also represented normal distribution for the residuals (Figure 4.11). So it can be said that the normality is not violated and it is assumed that the residuals in the model are normally distributed.

Homoscedasticity and Linearity. In order to validate the homoscedasticity and linearity the residual scatterplot (Figure 4.12) was checked. The scatterplot of predicted value and residual has not an apparent pattern. It was observed in Figure 4.12 that the shape of the scatterplot could be considered to represent a rectangle despite some misfits. Thus, linearity assumption was accepted as validated for this analysis. Field (2009) mentioned that the points need to be randomly and uniformly dispersed throughout the plot in order to validate the assumption of homoscedasticity. The cases in the residual scatterplot are randomly dispersed. So it can be accepted that the homoscedasticity assumption is not violated.

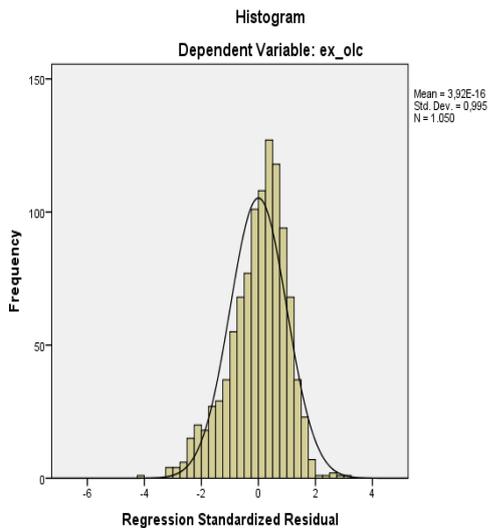


Figure 4.10 Histogram of Residuals

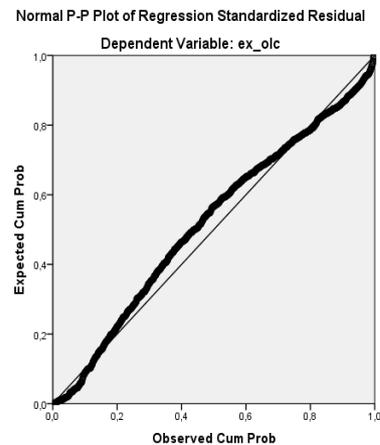


Figure 4.11 P-P Plot of Residuals

Independent Errors. In order to conduct regression analysis, the residual terms should be uncorrelated or independent for any two observations. It can be checked by Durbin Watson test. Field (2009) mentioned that Durbin Watson value be not less than 1 or greater than 3 so as to validate the assumption of independence errors. The analysis showed that the independent errors assumption is not violated with a Durbin Watson value of 1.989.

Multicollinearity and Singularity. Multicollinearity exists when there is a strong correlation between two or more predictors in regression model. In order to conduct regression analysis there must be no perfect multicollinearity. Field (2009) suggested three different ways for checking multicollinearity. First way is to scan the correlation matrix. If there is not a strong correlations ($r > .90$) between the variables was observed, it is possible to validate the multicollinearity assumption. The correlation matrix of this study shows that there is not any strong correlation between the variables. The suggested second way is to check the values of variance inflation factor (VIF) which should be less than 4. The findings showed that VIF values are between 1 and 1.8. The third way is to check the tolerance value which should be more than .20. The results indicated that the tolerance values range from .55 to .98.

In the light of these it can be assumed that there is no perfect multicollinearity, there is not any violation of the assumption.

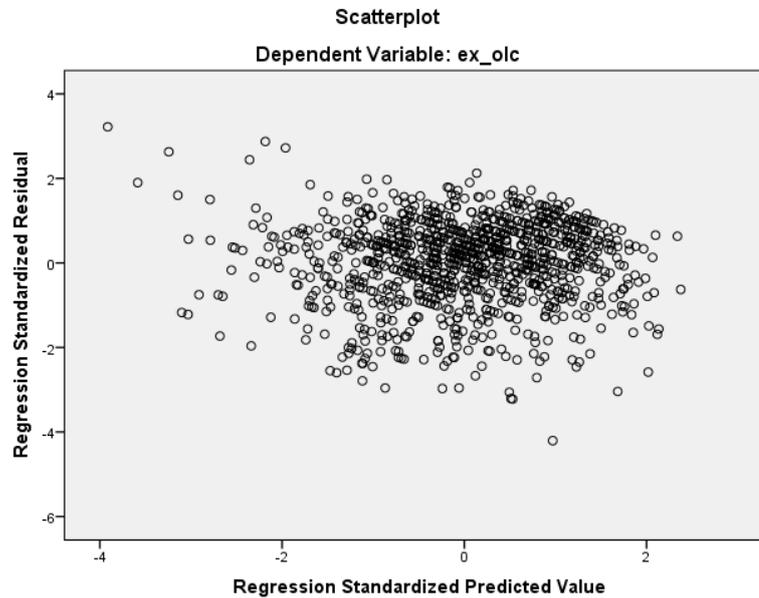


Figure 4.12 Residual Scatterplot

Influential Observation. In order to check the multivariate outliers, the partial regression plot of each predictor were inspected. This visual inspection of regression plots suggested that there are some multivariate outliers in the data set. Field (2009) suggested assessing the values of Leverage, Cook's distance, DFBeta and Mahalanobis distance in order to validate the assumption. The assumption of Leverage value was validated as the leverage values are within the range of .00 and .04 which should not exceed the value of .50. Another way of checking multivariate outliers, the Cook's distance states that values exceeding the value of 1 can be problematic in terms of multivariate outliers (Cook and Weisberg, 1982). The maximum Cook's distance value of the data set is equal to .03; so there is not any violation. Stevens (2002) mentioned that the criterion value is equal to 2 in order to check the DFBeta values for determining multivariate outliers. The data set showed that the maximum DFBeta value is equal to .71; so there is not any case which exceeds the value of 2. Lastly Mahalanobis distance of each case to the centroid of all cases was computed. Again 5 cases were detected with the largest distance at the

alpha level of .001. In order to determine whether the cases are multivariate outliers or not, critical χ^2 at $\alpha=.001$ for 11 independent variables was checked. The determined critical χ^2 value is equal to 31.264 at $\alpha=.001$. None of the 5 cases has a value in excess of 31.264. All of the mentioned analysis results showed that there are no multivariate outliers.

4.4.4.2 Findings of Regression Analysis

Table 4.6 shows the findings of hierarchical regression analysis for openness and experimentation. Step 1 included background variables which were faculty type, academic degree, years of teaching experience, and length of employment at current school. After step 1, the regression model was significant $R^2=.013$, $\Delta F(4, 1045) = 3.315$. Faculty type is the only significant predictor in the first block of the variables. After adding the variable of in-service training, in step 2, the regression model was also significant, $R^2=.018$, $\Delta F(5, 1044) = 3.824$. Also, in-service training is a significant predictor of openness and experimentation. After step 3, with the addition of managerial task variable the regression model was again significant, $R^2=.019$, $\Delta F(6, 1043) = 3.372$. However, managerial task is not a significant predictor of openness and experimentation. After step 4, the regression model was significant; $R^2=.211$, $\Delta F(9, 1040) = 30.04$. The addition of organizational commitment variables resulted in significant increment in explained variances, all of the three predictors, continuous commitment, the affective and normative commitment, are significant in predicting openness and experimentation. After step 5, the regression model was still significant with the addition of work engagement, $R^2=.265$, $\Delta F(10, 1039) = 37.48$, and work engagement is a significant predictor of openness and experimentation. After step 6, the regression model was again significant; $R^2=.265$, $\Delta F(11, 1038) = 34.05$, but core self-evaluations is not a significant predictor of openness and experimentation.

Table 4.6

Summary of Hierarchical Analysis for Openness and Experimentation

Predictor Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2	<i>F</i>
Step 1 Background Variables					.11	.01	.01	3.37*
(Constant)	29.94	1.28		23.33**				
Faculty type	1.50	.55	.09	2.73**				
Education level	1.41	.86	.05	1.64				
Teaching experience	-.02	.04	-.01	-.37				
Experience at school	-.07	.05	-.04	-1.23				
Step 2 In-service Training	1.34	.56	-.08	2.41*	.13	.02	.01	3.87**
Step 3 Managerial Task Var.	-.87	.82	-.03	-1.05	.14	.02	.00	3.42**
Step 4 Org. Commitment Var.					.45	.21	.19	30.04**
Affective com.	.47	.04	.41	12.59**				
Normative com.	.15	.04	.14	4.06**				
Continuance com.	.09	.03	.09	3.11**				
Step 5 Work Engagement	.07	.01	.19	6.43**	.52	.27	.06	37.48**
Step 6 CSE	-.03	.04	-.02	-.81	.52	.27	.00	34.05**

** $p < .01$ (2-tailed)* $p < .05$ (2-tailed)

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the results of the study are discussed with the findings in the related literature. Following this discussion, implications for practice and recommendations for future studies are presented.

5.1. Study Results

This study was designed as a correlational study. The main purpose of the study was to examine the predictors of managerial commitment, systems perspective, knowledge transfer and integration and openness and experimentation in educational organizations including background, in service training, managerial task, organizational commitment, work engagement and core self evaluations variables. The participants of the study were 1050 primary and secondary school teachers working in Ankara. For the purpose of the study four pre-developed scales were used. The first scale was the Organizational Learning Capability of Gomez et al. (2005). The structure obtained from EFA results of the pilot study was not compatible with the structure in the original scale. Analysis of the factor loadings provided an explanation that may account for this incompatibility. Teachers define organizational learning as one of the responsibility of the management. Thus, managerial commitment became a crucial dimension. CFA results in the main study ensured four-factor structure of Turkish adaptation of the scale as managerial commitment, systems perspective, knowledge transfer and integration, and openness and experimentation with moderate fit. CFA of the other scales used in this study provided further evidence for construct validity of the scales.

Descriptive statistics results of organizational commitment showed that on the whole the commitment of teachers to the organization is above average, with the highest mean score of 4.64 for affective commitment, and lowest mean score of 4.02 continuance commitment. Considering the results for organizational commitment, a considerable number of teachers were committed to their organization. Also the results show that teachers were committed affectively at first than normatively. Continuous commitment was above the average but not as much as the others. This finding is in line with the results of previous researches. For instance, the study of Kurşunoğlu, Bakay and Tanrıöğen (2010) found out that teachers mostly express the affective commitment, then the normative commitment and continuous commitment respectively. Similarly, Medallon (2013) found that level of affective commitment of teachers is at the highest mean followed by the level of normative commitment and continuance commitment is the lowest.

The teachers participated to the study were experienced teachers. Most of them have 10 to 24 years of experience. Hupia, Devos and Van Keer (2010) and Reyes (1992), who concluded that compared to less experienced teachers, more experienced teachers are less committed to the organization. The mean scores could be explained by this characteristic of the participants.

Higher mean score for affective commitment could be explained in relation to higher level of work engagement. It could be concluded that teachers do not feel obliged to work at their organization; instead, they are proud of working as a teacher. It is stated in the literature that there is a strong relationship between work engagement and organizational commitment. The engaged employees psychologically attached to their organizations. As found by Hakenen et al. (2006) mentioned that work engagement is a predictor of organizational commitment.

Descriptive statistics of work engagement show that teachers are highly engaged to their job (*Mwork engagement* =5.03). This result can be supported with the findings of Güner (2006) and Turhan, Demirli, Nazik (2012) found high level of teachers' engagement in Turkey. Research has suggested that many people still think that people have respect towards the teaching profession (Brookhart and Freeman, 1992). It includes of altruistic motives like the will to work with children, the desire to shape one's future and helping students to succeed.

Research has emphasized that the level of work engagement in general is influenced by the work characteristics including job status (Mauno *et al.*, 2007) and personal characteristics (Brown, 1992; Kirkpatrick, 2007). The personal characteristics of the teacher might have an impact on teachers' engagement. Accordingly, teachers with clearer identity, higher self-esteem and higher sense of efficacy are likely to be more engaged in their job. Parallel to this the descriptive results of CSE (*MCoreSelfEvaluations* = 3.68) show that teachers have high level of satisfaction, emotional stability, motivation and internal locus of control.

Descriptive statistics results of organizational learning capability indicated that on the whole teachers find their organizations capable about organizational learning above the average. The highest level of organizational capability is knowledge transfer and integration (*MKnow.Transand Integ.* = 4.80); followed by the capability of openness and experimentation (*MOpennessandExp* = 4.69), then capability of managerial commitment (*MManagerialCommitment* = 4.66); and capability systems perspective (*MSystemsPerspective* = 4.63). These mean scores could be explained by the fact due to the understanding about the organizational learning. Managers are blind with regards the importance and impact of organizational learning on positive work outcomes. Moreover the employees do not see the benefits to be gained from the implementation of learning within the organization (Kasim, Pak, Uli; 2008). Schools are the natural environments where learning occurs. The capability of creating, acquiring, spreading knowledge above the average is not surprising. On the other hand, research show that employees perceive learning as a training activity; however it is an activity to enhance organizational learning capability (Vemic, 2007; Niazi, 2011). So, it is also possible that more experienced teachers may regard themselves competent enough, as a result of which they express less interest in training activities.

Kasim, Pak and Uli also mentioned some managers see organizational learning as a cost and waste of time; and also many public service managers do not give serious attention, involvement, and support for organizational learning in their organizations. This may explain the low mean score of managerial commitment. Moreover, teachers do not internalize organizational learning but rather as the responsibility of the managers only.

The results of the correlation analysis indicated that there are significant correlations among the predictor variables of organizational commitment dimensions and work engagement. There is significant moderate correlation between work engagement and the two dimensions of commitment except normative commitment which has a weak correlation with work engagement. There is significant moderate correlation between the predictor variables and predicted variables except a few cases. There is very weak significant correlation between continuous commitment and management commitment; between continuous commitment and systems perspective; between continuous commitment and knowledge transfer and sharing; and finally, between continuous commitment and openness and experimentation. Since continuous commitment seems to be the factor in all correlations that are very weak, the items in this dimension of scale may be problematic. All items in this dimension of the scale carry a pessimistic tone, implying having to work in that institution because there is no other choice, which could be better than this one. Like continuous commitment weak or modest significant correlations was observed between the predictor of core self-evaluations and the other predictor variables and the predicted variables.

According to the results of hierarchical regression analysis, the model is fit in predicting all four dependent variables. Considering the background variables, type of faculty as educational faculty or not significantly predicted managerial commitment and openness and experimentation, but it did not predict systems perspective and knowledge transfer and integration. The other background variables as education level, teaching experience and experience at current school did not predict any of the dependent variables. This could be explained by the fact of centralization in the process of recruitment of teachers and managers. The ideal management system driven by mechanical instructions in a top-down management style defines the goals of the organization for its members, as Weber's bureaucracy, can be seen in the schools especially in Turkey (Uğurlu, 2007). Therefore, it is not possible to conduct the systems approach which gives the opportunity of having open-minded managers and teachers who have a vision to manage the change process in these educational organizations. Teachers recruited by routine actions cannot be expected to have this vision. So, as expected, their individual differences

did not predict the organizational learning capability. The explained variance of 8 % and 9 % of managerial commitment and openness and experimentation respectively by the faculty type can be explained by the accepting the organizational learning process as a management task.

Considering in-service training variable, the present study showed that attending an in-service training program at least one time explained 7 % of the variance in managerial commitment, 9 % variance of the in systems perspective, and 8 % of the variance in openness and experimentation. This is consistent with the related studies in literature. For example, Husman (2001) and Kasim et al. (2008) mentioned that the participants evaluate the training activities in place to organizational learning capability. From a different point of view, the related literature mentioned that the learning individual is the headstone of the learning organization since they are the primary source of organizational learning (Bozkurt, 2000; Senge, 2003).

The results of this study indicated that having a managerial task did not significantly predict the dimensions of organizational learning capability. It is common in the literature that participative management is a crucial subject in order to make the organizations as learning entities (Hipp & Huffman, 2003). Having a managerial task does not mean to be a supportive leadership style. If the individual who has a managerial task was isolated, it is not surprising to not to predict the capability of organizations in the name of organizational learning.

Considering organizational commitment variables, the findings in this study indicated that organizational commitment explained the highest percentage of the variance in all four dimensions of organizational learning. The affective commitment significantly predicted managerial commitment, systems perspective, openness and experimentation, and knowledge transfer and integration. However, the majority of studies in literature related to affective commitment indicate organizational learning as a indicator of affective commitment. Nonaka (1994) mentioned that commitment is one of the key components to stimulate new knowledge within an organization because of underlying human knowledge creation activities. The findings of a study about affective organizational commitment by Krishna and Casey (2008) indicated that organizational learning is a significant determinant of employee attitude and

behavior. Their study provided a theoretical framework to associate organizational learning and organizational commitment, which are two constructs that significantly affect organizational behavior. It was also mentioned in the study that organizational learning can be used by HRD professionals to develop a committed workforce in terms of the values and objectives of the organization. From a different point of view about the effect of organizational learning on organizational commitment; Wright (1997) found that organizational commitment was influencing organizational learning. This result is in keeping with the idea proposed by Yeo (2002). According to Yeo (2002) organizational commitment predicts organizational learning and the characteristics of a learning organization. Similarly Kalyar, Rafi and Ahmad (2012) described organizational learning have positive link with organizational commitment and also their study's results showed that organizational learning enhancing organizational commitment positively and effectively.

In addition to causal analysis, most of the studies in the related literature reported the relationship between organizational learning and organizational commitment. The study conducted by Wang (2003) where the relationship among organizational learning culture, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment in native Chinese enterprise settings are analyzed, revealed that there is a significant moderate relationship between organizational learning and organizational commitment. In their correlational study conducted in a Korean context, Yang, Lim, McLean (2003) examined the dynamic relationships among organizational learning, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. The study conducted by Ng, Butts, Vandenberg, DeJoy and Wilson (2006) shows that the commitment to the organization gets stronger as the learning opportunities increase. Rose, Kumar, Pak (2009) mentioned that organizational learning has a positive strong linear relationship with organizational commitment. They also stated that as the organizational learning activities improves, organizational commitment among the public service managers increases.

The items related to affective commitment in the scale used in this study involves the individual's attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. It could be concluded that when individuals are high in this commitment, they will be motivated to learn more about the organization,

department, and task. The results of commitment scale in this study shows us participants are closer to being affectively or normatively committed.

According to Wiener (1982) commitment is the totality of internalized rule-based pressures to behave in accordance with organizational interests. Similarly, Cladwell, Chatman, and O'Reilly (1990) showed that normative commitment is observed high in organizations with strong cultures, and it would not be wrong to assume that schools compared to most other organizations, have a strong culture.

The results of the study demonstrated that teachers scored lowest on the continuous commitment sub-scale while they scored highest on the affective commitment sub-scale, indicating that teachers' commitment towards their school mostly derives from the involvement to the organization. These findings are parallel to the researches regarding employee commitment stating the most desirable types of employee commitment can be listed as affective, normative, and the continuance commitment respectively (Brown, 2003).

The study results conducted by Sezgin (2010) showed that the highest and lowest commitment level of teachers is affective and continuous respectively in consistent with Balay's (2000) results investigated the commitment level of teachers and principals. Similarly Canipe (2006), Çavuş ve Gürdoğan (2008), and Yüceler (2009) found that affective commitment has the highest level compared to normative and continuous commitment.

Workers with high normative commitment consider working at the organization to be their duty, continuing working at the organization to be a proper behavior and an obligation. Although this commitment type includes an obligation, this obligation is based upon virtuousness and ethicalness (Wasti, 2000). Workers having this feeling feel that their organization cares for them, make investments to them and value them, thus feeling obliged to continue working at the organization (Erdoğan, 2006).

According to Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky (2002), the relationship between continuance commitment and the will to leave the organization gets weaker in workers with low continuance but high affective and normative commitments. Studies conducted in Turkey suggested that workers with high

continuance commitment do not have the loyalty of the workers with affective or normative commitment (Wasti, 2000).

So it is not surprising to have the results of the level and type of the organizational commitment of teachers. In addition to these, the findings of this study also indicated that continuous commitment significantly but negatively predicted knowledge transfer and sharing. This result supports the idea of Ng et al. (2006) where the career developments that found itself as promotions opportunity, higher salary and many other employees' benefits may result through acquired knowledge and skills via learning.

Considering work engagement variable, the results indicated that the work engagement level of teachers significantly predicted the four dimensions of organizational learning capability. Manuel (2011) found the positive relation between organizational learning and work engagement and also the results indicated that work engagement is the significant predictor of organizational learning. Similarly, Mirheidary, Siadat, Hoveyda and Abedi (2012) found work engagement as a significant predictor of organizational learning. It is common in the literature that when the employees are engaged to their work, they enthusiastically apply their energy to their work, they do not hold back, intense involvement to their work, pay attention and they are absorbed in their work, which enhance the learning opportunities (Bakker and Leitter, 2010).

Finally, the results of this study indicated that core self evaluations did not predicted any of the dimensions of organizational learning capability significantly.

5.2. Implications for Practice

Today's organizations are living in a rapidly changing environment. Organizations should have more and more knowledge to cope with change. In order to survive organizations need to learn continuously. To learn continuously organizations should ensure an effective learning environment and culture that facilitate their members' learning opportunities. Organizations should evaluate their actual cultures and working environments. Since organizational learning capability of an educational organization is a dynamic and complex process affected by both

organizational and individual level variables, it needs to be managed effectively. In this respect, the variables that predict organizational learning capability of schools need to be investigated. This study provides empirical evidence on the variables that determine schools' organizational learning capability.

Greenberg (2005) mentioned that in order to understand work related attitudes; we must focus on people's attitudes towards work, commitments to their organizations. With regard to practice, this study indicated that among organizational level factors, which are type of faculty, attending to in-service training program, and organizational commitment, the best predictor of organizational learning capability. Among the individual level factor, which is work engagement is the other predictor of organizational learning capability. Therefore, practitioners should focus on finding out ways for encouraging and increasing organizational commitment and work engagement increasing job satisfaction among teachers since they seem to be critical variables in predicting how well organizations learn, which in turn, shall determine how the organizations cope with change and survive in this rapidly changing environment.

Additionally, attending to in-service training programs could be increased through appropriate training programs in order to make teachers feel competent, resourceful and knowledgeable as a teacher. Attending an in-service training program at least one time predict three dimensions of organizational learning capability.

Previous literature showed that, organizational commitment has an important impact on organizational learning capability. All of the three dimensions of organizational commitment significantly predict the organizational learning capability. In order to develop organizational commitment within the organizations can be to practice human resource management activities which exert influence on employee's organizational commitment and lead them to stay with the organization for a longer period of time, regarding the positive relation between commitment and work time. The important point is that affective commitment of teachers significantly predicts their organizational learning capability more than the other two commitment type. Since affective commitment, also expressed as desire, is related to emotional commitment to, identification with, and involvement in their organization and its

objectives, practitioners should consider implementing the management and leadership style that would lead to increasing affective commitment. The willingness to be a part of an organization stems from work experiences; and employees who have a strong affective commitment willingly continue to work (Ünüvar, 2006), because they think the management and the leader is fair to them.

Still another important point is related to teachers' work engagement. Because of the nature of the profession it is not surprising to have high levels of work engagement level. However, it is important for practitioners to enhance the level of engagement. While engaged employees find their work more enjoyable, they turn that enjoyment into more effective action. Work engagement is both efficient as well as fulfilling which supports extra-role performance because of being full potential to the job. Halbesleben (2010) mentioned that learning opportunities are positively associated with work engagement.

Theoretically, this study provides a broad understanding of organizational learning itself and the factors that affect the organizational learning capability of educational organizations. Moreover, this study contributes to the literature by identifying predictors of organizational learning capability of the educational organizations. The study provides empirical evidence about the importance of certain organizational and individual level variables in educational context, because educational organizations have certain distinctive characteristics different from business organizations. As there is limited research investigating content, environment and process dimensions of organizational learning in an integrated fashion, this study calls attention of both principals and ministry to revise their policies.

With regard to research, this study contributed in the validation of the adapted Turkish version of four-dimensional Organizational Learning Capability Scale, three-dimensional Organizational Commitment Scale and Work Engagement Scale with a considerable sample size in the field of education. Moreover, the results of exploratory factor analysis did not ensure a factor structure proposed in the literature because of the distinctive structure of educational organizations. Thus, researchers may consider developing or making adaptation of another scale with more

specifically identified content areas of educational organizations and teaching profession.

5.3. Recommendations for Further Research

Considering the shortcomings of this study, it can be recommended firstly to conduct a mix-design research. This study was designed as a quantitative research; however, qualitative research studies could be conducted to have a better understanding of the predictors of organizational learning. The data were collected from teachers; however collecting data from different parties may be helpful for providing a better insight about the predictors of organizational learning capability.

Secondly, in the present study, data were also collected in Ankara, Turkey. Further studies can collect data from a wider geographical area in Turkey, which gives a chance to analyze the capability of the educational organizations deeply.

Moreover, the study was conducted in the academic year when the system changed in to 4+4+4. In order to eliminate the effects of this change, further longitudinal studies can be conducted.

Furthermore, although this study examined predictors of organizational learning considering a number of factors, other variables such as the organizational climate, school culture, leadership styles, and job enrichment may also be crucial in our understanding of the concept.

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APPENDIX I

4/18/12

Gmail - approval request



Burcu Tibet <burcutibet@gmail.com>

approval request

3 ileti

Burcu Tibet <burcutibet@gmail.com>
Kime: w.schaufelli@uu.nl

31 Ekim 2011 15:21

Dear Dr. Schaufelli,
I am a Ph. D student at Middle East Technical University (METU), Ankara, Turkey, and I am working on my dissertation, for which I'm trying to identify the predictors of job enthusiasm in Turkish public schools. In this respect, I'm planning to use your Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, and would like to ask your approval to be able use UWES and adapt it to educational organizations.
With my best regards,
B.Tibet

--
Burcu (Arif) TIBET
Phd Canditate-METU
Educ. Plan. - UfukUniversity
burcutibet@gmail.com

Schaufeli, W.B. <w.schaufeli@uu.nl>
Kime: Burcu Tibet <burcutibet@gmail.com>

31 Ekim 2011 19:55

Dear Burcu,

You can use the UWES freely for non-commercial academic research. For a Turkish version: please visit my website.

With kind regards

Wilmar Schaufeli

Wilmar Schaufeli, PhD

Social & Organizational Psychology
PO Box 80.140; 3508 TC Utrecht; The Netherlands
Phone: +31(0)30-2539093

Mobile: +31(0)651475 784

<http://www.schaufeli.com>



Burcu Tibet <burcutibet@gmail.com>

ACNC Scale

4 ileti

Burcu Tibet <burcutibet@gmail.com>
Kime: nallen@uwo.ca

15 Kasım 2011 16:44

Dear Dr. Allen,
I am a Ph. D student at Middle East Technical University (METU), Ankara, Turkey, and I am working on my dissertation, for which I'm trying to identify the predictors of organizational commitment in Turkish public schools. In this respect, I'm planning to use your Affective, Continuance and Normative Commitment Scales, and would like to ask your approval to be able use Affective, Continuance and Normative Commitment Scales and adapt it to educational organizations.
With my best regards,
B. Tibet

--
Burcu (Arif) TIBET
Phd Candidate-METU
Educ. Plan. - UfukUniversity
burcutibet@gmail.com

--
Burcu (Arif) TIBET
Phd Candidate-METU
Educ. Plan. - UfukUniversity
burcutibet@gmail.com

Natalie Allen <nallen@uwo.ca>
Kime: Burcu Tibet <burcutibet@gmail.com>

16 Kasım 2011 06:12

Hello Burcu,

Thank you for your interest in our work. You have my permission to use the TCM commitment measures for research purposes. In case it may be helpful, I am attaching the User's Guide for the measures.

Best wishes with your research!

Regards,

Natalie Allen
[Alintılanan metin gizlendi]

--

Dr. Natalie J. Allen
Professor, Dept. of Psychology
The TeamWork Lab
University of Western Ontario
London, Ontario, CANADA N6A 5C2
(519) 661-3013
nallen@uwo.ca
<http://www.teamworklab.uwo.ca>



Burcu Tibet <burcutibet@gmail.com>

approval request

4 ileti

Burcu Tibet <burcutibet@gmail.com>
Kime: tjudge@nd.edu

31 Ekim 2011 15:24

Dear Dr. Judge,
I am a Ph. D student at Middle East Technical University (METU), Ankara, Turkey, and I am working on my dissertation, for which I'm trying to identify the predictors of Core Self-Evaluations in Turkish public schools. In this respect, I'm planning to use your Core Self-Evaluations Scale, and would like to ask your approval to be able use CSE Scale and adapt it to educational organizations.
With my best regards,
B. Tibet

—
Burcu (Arıç) TİBET
Phd Canditate-METU
Educ. Plan. - UfukUniversity
burcutibet@gmail.com

Timothy A. Judge <tjudge@nd.edu>
Kime: Burcu Tibet <burcutibet@gmail.com>

31 Ekim 2011 15:53

Hello:

The scale is in the public domain so no permission is needed.

Sincerely,

Tim Judge

**TIMOTHY A. JUDGE, Ph.D.**
Franklin D. Schurz Chair
Management

.....

MENDOZA COLLEGE OF BUSINESS
UNIVERSITY OF NOTRE DAME
360 Mendoza College of Business
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tj d @ d d | htt //b i d d



Burcu Tibet <burcutibet@gmail.com>

Organizational Learning Capability Scale

4 ileti

Burcu Tibet <burcutibet@gmail.com>
Kime: mpjerez@ual.es

15 Kasım 2011 16:46

Dear Dr.Gomez,
I am a Ph. D student at Middle East Technical University (METU), Ankara, Turkey, and I am working on my dissertation, for which I'm trying to identify the predictors of organizational learning capability in Turkish public schools. In this respect, I'm planning to use your Organizational Learning Capability Scale, and would like to ask your approval to be able use Organizational Learning Capability Scale and adapt it to educational organizations.
With my best regards,
B.Tibet

--
Burcu (Arğ) TİBET
Phd Candidate-METU
Educ. Plan. - UfukUniversity
burcutibet@gmail.com

--
Burcu (Arğ) TİBET
Phd Candidate-METU
Educ. Plan. - UfukUniversity
burcutibet@gmail.com

Pilar Jerez Gomez <mpjerez@ual.es>
Kime: Burcu Tibet <burcutibet@gmail.com>

17 Kasım 2011 14:20

Dear Burcu,
you have my approval for using the OLC scale and adapt it to educational organizations.
Can I do something more for you?
Kind regards,

Pilar Jerez Gómez

El 15/11/2011 15:46, Burcu Tibet escribió:
[Alintılanan metin gizlendi]

Burcu Tibet <burcutibet@gmail.com>
Kime: Pilar Jerez Gomez <mpjerez@ual.es>

17 Kasım 2011 16:27

Dear Dr.Gomez
Thanks for your paying attention and sensivity.
With my best regards
Burcu

APPENDIX II

T.C.
ANKARA VALİLİĞİ
Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü

31/08/2012

Sayı : B.08.4.MEM.0.06.20.01-60599/ 64324
Konu : Araştırma İzni
Burcu TIBET

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİNE
(Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı)

İlgi: a) MEB Yenilik ve Eğitim Teknolojileri Genel Müdürlüğünün 2012/13 nolu genelgesi.
b) Üniversitenizin 29/06/2012 tarih ve 7476 sayılı yazısı.

Üniversiteniz doktora öğrencisi Burcu TIBET' in "İlk ve orta dereceli okullarda örgütsel öğrenme, örgüte bağlılık, işe bağlılık ve temel benlik değerlendirmesi değişkenlerinin arasındaki ilişkilere yönelik bir çalışma" konulu tezi ile ilgili çalışma yapma isteği Müdürlüğümüzce uygun görülmüş ve araştırmanın yapılacağı İlçe Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğüne bilgi verilmiştir.

Mühürlü anketler (4 sayfadan oluşan) ekte gönderilmiş olup, uygulama yapılacak sayıda çoğaltılması ve çalışmanın bitiminde iki örneğinin (CD/disket) Müdürlüğümüz Strateji Geliştirme Bölümüne gönderilmesini rica ederim.

İlhan KOÇ
Müdür a.
Şube Müdürü

EKLER :
Anket (4 sayfa)

06.09.12*014811

İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü-Beşevler
Bilgi için:Nermin ÇELENK

Tel : 221 02 17
istatistik06@meb.gov.tr

APPENDIX III

Bu çalışma Yrd.Doç.Dr. Yaşar Kondakçı'nın danışmanlığında Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi doktora öğrencisi Burcu Tibet tarafından yürütülen "İlk ve Orta dereceli Okullarda Örgütsel Öğrenme, Örgüte Bağlılık, İşe Bağlılık ve Temel Benlik Değerlendirmesi Değişkenlerinin Arasındaki İlişkiler" başlıklı tez çalışmasına yöneliktir. Bu anket formu, bu değişkenlere yönelik bilgi toplamayı amaçlayan maddeler içermektedir. Ankette sizden kimlik belirleyici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Elde edilen bilgiler kesinlikle gizli tutulacaktır ve elde edilecek sonuçlar sadece akademik amaçlı kullanılacaktır. Ankete katılım tamamiyle gönüllük esasına dayanmaktadır.

Bu çalışmayla okul yönetiminin ve böylece siz öğretmenlerin çalışma şartlarının gelişmesi, eğitim yönetimi alanına katkıda bulunulması hedeflenmektedir. Dolayısıyla bütün soruları eksiksiz olarak doldurmanız, katkı sağlayacak bir değerlendirme adına oldukça büyük bir önem taşımaktadır. Fakat katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi bir başka nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz cevaplama işini yarıda bırakıp çıkmakta serbestsiniz. Anket formunu doldurmanız yaklaşık 20 dakikanızı alacaktır. Çalışma hakkında daha ayrıntılı bilgi almak için burcutibet@gmail.com adresi ile iletişime kurabilirsiniz.

İlginiz için teşekkürlerimi sunarım.

Saygılarımla

Burcu TİBET

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayınlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum. (Lütfen formu imzalayarak uygulayıcıya teslim ediniz.)

İsim Soyad :

Tarih :

İmza :

APPENDIX IV

TURKISH SUMMARY

Giriş:

Türkiye'de gerçekleşen yeniden yapılandırma ve reformlar açısından düşünüldüğünde okullar performans hedeflerine ulaşabilmek adına yeni süreçlerin uygulanmasına odaklanmaktadır. Hem uygulayıcılar hem de teoristler yeni girişimlerin ve yapıların sonu gelmeyen bir değişime neden olduğu konusunda hemfikirlidir. Bu süreçte örgütsel öğrenme kapasitesinin hayati bir önem taşıdığı Elmore (2002) tarafından vurgulanmıştır. Okul örgütlerinin yüksek düzey performans hedeflerine ulaşabilmesi adına yalnızca etkin müfredat değişiklikleri yapmak yeterli değildir. Okulların değişim sürecini etkin yönetebilmeleri için kendi iç kapasitelerini güçlendirmeleri gerekmektedir. Bir başka deyişle okul örgütleri program değişiklikleri ve uygunluklarının ötesine geçerek örgütsel öğrenme kapasitelerini artırmaya yönelik davranmalıdırlar (Hopkins, Harris ve Jackson, 1997).

İlgili alanyazın ışığı altında hızlı değişen rekabetçi dünya karşısında varlıklarını sürdürebilmek adına örgütlerin öğrenme güçlerini artırmaları bu değişime karşı verebilecekleri en etkin cevaptır. Okullarda özellikle öğretmenler tarafından örgütsel öğrenme teriminin tam olarak kavranmadığı; öğrenen örgütün nasıl iş edileceğinin ve gereken nitelikteki öğrenme aktivitesinin nasıl edileceğinin bilinmemesi açıkça gözlemlenmektedir.

Okulların öğrenen örgütler haline gelerek performans hedeflerine ulaşmalarının nasıl gerçekleştirileceğinin anlaşılması çok zor bir konudur. Örgütsel öğrenmenin bölümlere ayrılarak çalışması aslında kavrama bütüncül yaklaşılması gereğini ortaya koymuştur. Bu noktada gereken kapasitenin elde edilebilmesi için sürecin daha anlaşılmasını sağlayacak ampirik çalışmalara ihtiyaç duyulmaktadır.

Örgüt içerisinde gerçekleşen tüm öğrenme aktivitelerini kapsayan örgütsel öğrenme konsepti örgütlerin karmaşık yapısını daha da karmaşık bir hale getirmektedir. Örgütsel öğrenme kavramı yaklaşık 56 yıl önce ilk kez March ve

Simon (1958) tarafından tartışılan bir konu haline gelmiştir. Kurumların dinamizmi düşünüldüğünde örgütsel öğrenme rekabetçi üstünlüğün yakalanabilmesi adına oldukça önemli bir role sahiptir (March, 1991). Örgütsel öğrenme bir örgütün değişen dünyayı farketmesi, bu değişime ayak uydurabilmesi ve bununla ilgili değişiklikler yapması ile başlayan bir süreçtir.

İlgili literatür incelendiğinde görülmektedir ki örgütsel öğrenmenin tanımlanması ve kavramsallaştırılması ile ilgili çok sayıda tanım bulunmaktadır (Crossan, Lane ve White, 1999). Örneğin Huber (1991) örgütsel öğrenmeyi örgütlerin değişen olaylara esnek bir şekilde cevap verebilmesi olarak tanımlamıştır. Literatürün ışığında; örgütsel öğrenme örgütte olan bireylerin öğrenmesinin ötesinde kolektif bir kapasiteye sahip olmasıdır. Bir çok kaynak örgütsel öğrenmeyi örgütün hedefleri doğrultusunda bireylerin toplu halde hareket ederek yeteneklerini arttırması olarak tanımlamıştır. Bontis ve Crossan (2002) örgütsel performans ve öğrenme varlıklarının arasında anlamlı pozitif bir ilişki bulmuştur.

21.yüzyılın getirdikleri örgütlerin kendilerini teknolojik, sosyal ve yapısal değişimler ile adapte etmesi zorunluluğunu getirmiştir. Bu doğrultuda bu hızlı değişim örgütler için sürekli dikkate alınması gereken bir görev haline gelmiştir. Gelecekteki rekabetçi ortam düşünüldüğünde örgütlerin yeni yollar ve çözümler bulması gerektiği ortaya çıkmaktadır. Ekonomik sistemler ve sistemlerin çalışma prensipleri düşünüldüğünde örgütlerin varlıklarını sürdürebilmeleri çok daha zor ve karmaşık bir yapı haline gelmekte ve gelecek kaygısını arttırmaktadır (Probst ve Buchel, 1997). Örgütler küreselleşme, ekonomik serbestleşme, hızlı gelişmeler, iletişim teknolojisi, paydaşların beklentilerindeki değişim ve sürekli yenilik gibi bir çok kavramdan etkilenmektedirler. İlgili literatür örgütlerin mukayeseli üstünlüğü elde edebilmeleri için bilgiyi tek kaynak olarak göstermektedir. Dolayısıyla örgütler bu oyunda varlıklarını devam ettirebilmek için öğrenmek zorundadırlar. Burada kasıt, örgütlerin değişim ile başa çıkabilmeyi ve iç ve dış çevreden gelen zorluklarla savaşabilmeyi öğrenmesidir.

Bir çok işletme örgütlerin kendilerini değişen dünyaya adapte edebilmesi için örgütsel öğrenme kapasitesini gerekli ve çok önemli bir araç olarak tanımlamıştır. Garvin (1993) öğrenmeyi uzun dönemli bir yatırım olarak görürken Marguardt

(1996) uyum becerileri yüksek olan örgütlerin çok daha hızlı öğrendikelerini ve stratejik bir üstünlük kazandıklarını vurgulamıştır.

Değişen dünyada rekabet edebilmek için örgütsel öğrenmenin önemi gittikçe artan bir şekilde farkedilmektedir. DeGeus (1988) örgütsel öğrenmeyi hayati önem taşıyan mukayeseli üstünlük elde edilmesini sağlayan tek stratejik süreç olarak önermiştir. Öneminin kavranmaya başlaması ile örgütsel öğrenme son yıllarda çok daha fazla tartışılan bir konu haline gelmiştir. Bu doğrultuda da ilgili örgüt literatüründe yerini almata başlamıştır.

Gerek özel sektör olsun gerekse kamu sektörü olsun örgütsel öğrenme tüm örgütler için sonsuz bir öneme sahiptir. Bendell, Boulter ve Kelly (1994) artan önemi ile örgütsel öğrenmeyi dünyanın her yerinde kullanılan bir toplam kalite yönetimi aracı olarak tanımlamıştır. Devam edebilmek ve ötesine geçebilmek adına örgütsel öğrenme kavramı her örgüt için dikkate alınmalı ve geliştirilmelidir.

Örgütsel öğrenme teorileri doğrultusunda örgütsel çevre dinamikleri geniş ölçüde zorluklar getirmektedir. İlerisi açısından düşünüldüğünde örgütsel öğrenmenin örgütsel bağlılık, performans gibi örgütsel sürecin farklı kademelerinde meydana gelen örgütsel çıktılar ile ilişkilendirileceğine inanılmaktadır (Yeo, 2002). Her ne kadar örgütsel öğrenme ve pozitif performans çıktıları arasında pozitif bir ilişki olduğu bilinse de bu bulguyu tamamen netleştirecek ampirik çalışmalar oldukça azdır (Lopez vd., 2005). Egen ve diğerleri (200) örgütsel öğrenmenin bir çok ekol ve uygulayıcı tarafından çalışıldığını vurgulamış fakat hala örgütsel öğrenme kültürü ile ilişkilerin çok daha derin çalışılması gerekliliğini ortaya koymuştur. Buna paralel olarak Spicer ve Sadler (2006) örgütsel öğrenmenin örgütlere olan etkilerinin örneklendirilmesi konusunda çalışmaların yetersiz olduğunu vurgulamıştır. Bunların ötesinde hedefleri, kültürü, iklimi ve süreçleri açısından çok ciddi farklılıklar içeren kamu sektörü adına bu çalışmalar çok daha eksiktir. Kamu sektörü yöneticileri içinde örgütsel öğrenmenin pozitif çıktıları güçlüleştirici bir ölçüt olarak da örgütsel öğrenmeyi güçlendirmek büyük önem taşımaktadır. Bu nedenle devlet kurumları örgütsel öğrenmenin öneminin farkına varmalıdırlar (Kasim, Pak & Uli, 2008).

Dünya'da olan gelişmeler yalnızca şirketleri değil aynı zamanda eğitim örgütlerini de etkilemektedir. Artan rekabet, müşteri beklentileri, iletişimde ve

enformasyon teknolojisinde meydana gelen gelişmeler eğitim örgütlerini değişime zorlayan iticilerdir (Shoham ve Perry, 2008).

Örgütsel öğrenme kavramının günümüz koşulları açısından öneminin anlaşılması yalnızca örgüt üyeleri için değil araştırmacılar için de ilgi çekici bir konu haline gelmiştir. Oldukça kısa bir süredir örgütsel öğrenme ve öğrenen örgüt kavramları araştırılmaktadır. Rekabetçi küresel pazarlar açısından çok önemi olan örgütsel öğrenmeyi etkin bir şekilde yürütemeyen örgütlerin geleceklerinin olmayacağı Bakker ve Leiter (2010) tarafından sıkça vurgulanmıştır.

Örgütsel öğrenmenin bilişsel bir çerçeveden bakılarak karmaşık sorunlara nasıl cevap verildiği olarak anlaşılması yaygın bir görüştür. Bu bilişsel bakış açısının aksine araştırmacılar sosyo-kültürel bir bakış açısı ile örgüt içerisindeki bireylerin sosyal etkileşimi üzerine odaklanmaktadır. Bu çalışmalar sosyo-kültürel öğrenme teorilerine odaklanarak örgütlerde sosyal öğrenme süreçlerine yoğunlaşmışlardır (Cole ve Werstch, 1996; Stein ve Coburn, 2008). Knapp (2008) gelecekte yapılacak araştırmalar için bu iki bakış açısının birleştirilmesi gerektiğini önermiştir. Okul konteksi açısından bakıldığında araştırmacılar örgütsel öğrenmeyi anlayabilmek için öğretmenlerin her türlü davranışı ve uygulaması önem arz etmektedir. Aynı zamanda Boudett, City ve Murnane (2005) okullarda etkin bir örgütsel öğrenme kapasitesinin oluşması için öğretmenler ile ilgili veri ve analizlerin ne denli önemli olduğunu vurgulamıştır.

Hızla değişen dünyada diğer tüm örgütler gibi eğitim örgütleri de bu hızlı değişime ayak uydurmak durumundadırlar. Bunun yanısıra eğitim örgütlerinin gerek yapıları gerekse kültürleri açısından çok farklı oldukları oldukça açıktır.

Bu çalışmanın temel amacı örgütsel öğrenme kavramını derinlemesine incelemek net bir anlayış kazanarak örgütsel bağlılık, işe bağlılık ve temel benlik değerlendirmesi değişkenleri ile herhangi bir ilişkisinin olup olmadığını araştırmaktır. Varolan işletme ve eğitim bilimleri literatürü eğitim örgütlerinde bu değişkenlerin tanımlanması ve aralarındaki ilişki adına oldukça kısıtlı bir bilgi sunmaktadır. Bu doğrultuda bu çalışma ilgili literatüre, eğitim örgütlerinin değişen dünyada rekabet edebilmesini sağlayacak uygulamaları geliştirmeleri adına katkı sağlayacaktır. Buna ek olarak eğitim çalışanlarının performanslarını arttırmaya

yönelik işe ve örgüte bağlılıklarını kuvvetlendirecek stratejiler geliştirmeleri için liderlere yol gösterici olması da çalışmanın amacı içersinde yer almaktadır.

Bakker and Leiter (2010) işe bağlılığı örgütsel gelişme açısından hayati önem taşıyan bir hedef olarak tanımlamıştır. İlgili literatürde işe bağlılık ve örgüte bağlılık kavramlarının eş anlamlı, birbirlerinin yerine kullanıldığı görülmektedir. Oldukça genel bir tanımlama doğrultusunda işe bağlılık bir çalışanın yaptığı işi sevmesi olarak tanımlanırken örgüte bağlılık bir çalışanın çalıştığı kurumu sevmesi olarak tanımlanabilir. Bu iki terim arasındaki fark ve ilişkinin tanımlanması çok önemlidir.

Bu iki değişkene ek olarak Judge temel benlik değerlendirmesini kişinin kendi yargıları doğrultusunda kendini nasıl tanımladığı olarak ifade etmiştir. Yaklaşık 15 yıl önce, Judge ve arkadaşları iş tatmini ve temel benlik değerlendirmesi üzerine çalışmış ve yüksek düzeyde bir kişilik formu ile karşılaşmıştır. Aynı zamanda temel benlik değerlendirmesini kişinin kendini ne kadar değerli ve yetenekli olduğu konusunda değerlendirmesi olarak tanımlamışlardır (Judge, Bono, Erez, ve Locke, 2005). Bu değişken üst düzey bir kişilik yapısını temsil etmektedir ve nörotizm yokluğu, kendine güven, öz yeterlilik ve kontrol odağı gibi dört temel kişilik özelliğini içermektedir. Dikkat edilmesi gereken bir nokta ise temel benlik değerlendirmesinin yalnızca bireyin kendini değil aynı zamanda dünyayı ve diğer bireyleri de değerlendirmesi olarak görülmesinin gereğidir. Bir kişinin kendini ve çevresini nasıl algıladığı temel benlik değerlendirmesi tarafından tanımlanabilir. Yapılan çalışmalar temel benlik değerlendirmesi yüksek çıkan bireylerin çok daha başarılı olduklarını, kendi yeterliliklerine güvenerek daha verimli çalıştıklarını, duygusal olarak dengeli olduklarını ve bunu işte karşılaştıkları sorunları çözmek için olumlu yönde kullandıklarını göstermektedir (Stumpp, Hülshager, Muck ve Maier, 2008).

Bu araştırmanın probleminin çıkış noktası bahsi geçen değişkenler ve bunların aralarındaki ilişki adına eğitim örgütlerinde derinlemesine bir çalışmanın olmayışdır.

Okulların mukayeseli üstünlük elde etmeleri adına örgütsel öğrenmenin önemi çok büyüktür.

Örgüte bağlılık ve işe bağlılık ise örgütün değer ve hedeflerinin tam anlamıyla benimsenmesi avantajını sağlar. Optimum düzeyde bir temel benlik

değerlendirmesi yapmak ise bireylerin tatmin düzeyini arttırarak kişisel hedefler ile örgüt hedeflerinin örtüşmesini sağlar. Tüm bu değişkenler örgüt performansı ile doğrudan ilişkilidirler. Bu değişkenler ve bunların arasındaki ilişki ile ilgili standart tanımlamaların yapılacağı akademik çalışmalara ihtiyaç duyulmaktadır.

Bu amaç doğrultusunda çalışmanın araştırma sorusu kişisel değişkenler ile örgüte bağlılık, işe bağlılık ve temel benlik değerlendirmesi değişkenleri örgütsel Ankara'daki ilk ve orta dereceli okullardaki örgütsel öğrenme kapasitesini ne düzeyde yordamaktadır olarak tanımlanabilir.

İlgili literatür örgütlerin başarılarının sağlanması için öğrenme kapasitelerinin geliştirilmesinin ne denli önemli olduğunu vurgulamaktadır. Örgütsel öğrenme kapasitesi ile ilgili farklı disiplinler tarafından yapılan birçok çalışma bulunmaktadır. Aynı zamanda bir çok sektörden yöneticiler de bu konu üzerine yoğunlaşmışlardır. Bilgi ekonomileri doğrultusunda hızla değişen dünyada örgütlerin varlıklarını sürdürmeleri için örgütsel öğrenme bir ön koşuldur (Akgün vd. 2009). Örgütsel öğrenmenin avantajlarından faydalanmak için bu önemli kavramın çok daha net ve derin bir şekilde anlaşılması gerekmektedir.

Yönetim literatürü bu değişkenler ve bunların ilişkileri açısından çok farklı tanımlara sahiptir. Fakat çalışmaların çoğu göstermektedir ki bu değişkenler birbirleri ile pozitif yönlü ilişkiler sergilemektedirler.

Örgütsel öğrenmenin etkileri üzerine ise oldukça az sayıda çalışma bulunmaktadır. Bu çalışmaların çoğu iş tatmini ve örgüte bağlılığın etkileri üzerine yoğunlaşmıştır. Aynı zamanda kamu örgütlerinde yapılan çalışmalar çok çok azdır. Özellikle de eğitim örgütleri için bu sayı daha da azdır.

Uygulama açısından düşündüğümüzde ise örgütsel öğrenme kapasitesinin alt boyutları etkin bir biçimde uygulandığında Türkiye'deki okullar açısından yeterli bir yönetim biçimi uygulanması söz konusu olabilir.

Yöntem ve Sonuç

İlk olarak demografik değişkenler betimsel istatistik yöntemiyle sunulmuştur. Daha sonra çalışmada kullanılan ölçeklerin betimsel istatistikleri tartışılmıştır. Bunlardan sonra ölçeklerin birbirleriyle olan korelasyonuna bakılmıştır.

Araştırmanın temel amacı doğrultusunda örgütsel öğrenme kapasitesinin, örgütsel bağlılık, işe bağlılık ve tam benlik değerlendirmesi değişkenlerini yordayıp yordayamadığına hiyerarşik regresyon analizi kullanılarak bakılmıştır.

Katılımcıların Demografik Özellikleri ve Betimsel İstatistikler

Bu çalışmanın hedef popülasyonunu Ankara'da ki ilk ve orta dereceli okullarda öğretmenlik yapan bireyler oluşturmaktadır. Örneklem grubu küme örnekleme yöntemiyle seçilmiştir. Örneklem 1050 ilk ve orta dereceli okul öğretmeninden oluşmaktadır. Örneklem 700'ünü kadın öğretmenler, 350'sini ise erkek öğretmenler oluşturmaktadır. En genç öğretmen 23, en yaşlı öğretmen ise 63 yaşındadır; örneklem ortalama yaşı 42'dir. Örneklemdeki öğretmenlerin çoğunluğu lisans derecesine sahiptir ($N=934$). Bunlarla beraber 106 öğretmen yüksek lisans, 8 öğretmen doktora ve 2 öğretmende iki yıllık yüksek okul mezunudur. Örneklem içerisinde 427 öğretmen eğitim fakültesi mezunu iken 623 öğretmen diğer fakültelerin mezunlarıdır. Öğretmenler en az 1 en çok 45 yıllık öğretmenlik tecrübesine sahiptir. Örneklem ortalama öğretmenlik tecrübesi 18 yıldır. Öğretmenlerin buldukları okullardaki çalışma süreleri 1 ila 31 yıl arasında değişmektedir, fakat öğretmenlerin buldukları okullardaki ortalama deneyim süresi ise 7 yıldır. Birçok öğretmen kalıcı kadroya sahiptir ($N= 889$), 146 öğretmen ise uzman olarak çalışmaktadır. Bunların dışındaki öğretmenlerden 5'i sözleşmeli ve kalan 10 öğretmen ise yedek öğretmen kadrosunda yer almaktadır. 587 öğretmen son yıllarda herhangi bir hizmet içi eğitim almadıklarını, bunların aksine 463 öğretmen ise son yıllarda en az bir tane hizmet içi eğitimde yer aldıklarını belirtmiştir. Öğretmenlerin katıldıkları hizmet içi eğitim sayısı 1 ila 7 arasında değişmektedir, öğretmenler genellikle 1 veya 2 eğitime katılmıştır. Yönetimsel açıdan bakıldığında ise 905 öğretmen herhangi bir idare görevde bulunmadıklarını, kalan 145 öğretmen ise daha önce veya halen yönetimsel bir görevde olduklarını belirtmişlerdir.

Ölçeklerin Betimsel İstatistik Sonuçları

Bu çalışmada önceden geliştirilmiş ve yeni geliştirilmiş anketler kullanılarak örgütsel öğrenme kapasitesi, örgütsel bağlılık, işe bağlılık ve tam benlik

değerlendirme değişkenleriyle ilgili bilgi toplanmıştır. Veriler Ankara’da bulunan 1050 devlet okulunda bulunan öğretmenlerden toplanmıştır. Öğretmenlerden bilgiler kapalı sorulardan oluşan 5’li ve 7’li likert ölçekleri kullanılarak toplanmış. ÖÖK ölçeğinden yüksek alınan puanlar örgütsel öğrenme kapasitesinin yüksekliğini işaret etmektedir. Fakat bu çalışmada örgütsel öğrenme kapasitesi ölçülen kurumlar ortalamasının çok az üzerinde puanlara sahip oldukları bulunmuştur. Örgütsel öğrenme kapasitesinin boyutlarına bakıldığında ise gene bir birine çok yakın ortalama değerler bulunmuştur.

ÖB ölçeğinden alınan yüksek puanlar kişinin bulunduğu okula yüksek derecede bağlılığı bulunduğunu göstermektedir. Yani ölçekten yüksek puan alan öğretmenlerin okullarına bağlılıklarının yüksek puan almayanlara göre daha çok olduğu söylenebilir. Bir önceki sonuçlarla bağlantılı olarak örgütsel bağlılık ölçeğinin üç alt boyutunda da ortalama puanları birbirine çok yakındır, en yüksek ortalamaya sahip olan alt boyut ise duygusal bağlanmadır. Bu sonuç öğretmenlerde örgütlerine karşı en çok duygusal bağlılık geliştirdiğini göstermektedir.

İB ölçeğinden alınan puanlar öğretmenlerin öğretmenlik mesleğine bağlılıklarını ölçmektedir. Bu ölçekten alınan ortalama puanlar oldukça yüksektir.

TBD ölçeğinde ise yüksel TBD ortalaması kişinin kendinden memnun olduğunu, kişisel hedeflerine bağlı olduğunu, motivasyonunun yüksek olduğunu ve duygusal olarak dengeli bir birey olduğunu göstermektedir. Bunların yanında TBD ölçeğinden alınan yüksek puanlar kişinin denetim odağının içsel olduğunu belirtir. Bu çalışmada öğretmenler TBD ölçeğinden yüksek puanlar almışlardır.

Yordayıcı ve Yordanan Değişken Arasındaki Pearson Product-Moment Korelasyon Katsayısı

Ölçekler arasındaki bağlantı Pearson Product-Moment Korelasyon Katsayısına kullanılarak, değişkenler arasında herhangi bir doğrusal bağlantı olup olmadığına bakılmıştır. Sonuçlar örgütsel öğrenme değişkenleri arasında güçlü pozitif bir bağ olduğunu göstermiştir. Korelasyon aralığı .79 ve .88 arasında bulunmuştur. Fakat aynı sonuçlar ÖBÖ ölçeğinin 3 ayrı boyutunda görülmemiştir. Duygusal bağlanma ve ahlaki bağlılık alt boyutları arasındaki bağlantı ve devamlılık bağlılığı ve ahlaki bağlılık alt boyutlarının ilişkisi orta derecede olmasına rağmen,

devamlıklı bağıllığı ve ahlaki bağıllık arasındaki ilişki çok zayıf bulunmuştur. Aynı şekilde işe bağıllık ölçeğinde ise işe bağıllığın devamlılık bağıllığı haricinde ve diğer değişkenler arasında negatif düşük bir ilişki olduğu bulunmuştur. İşe bağıllık ve devam eden bağıllık değişkenlerinin arasında ise orta dereceli ilişki görülmüştür ($r=.41$). Bunların dışında temel benlik değerlendirmesi değişkeni ve diğer değişkenler arasındaki bağlantı ise çok zayıf bir bağlantı bulunmuştur.

İşe bağıllık hakkındaki faktör yapısı sonuçlarının yanında işe bağıllık değişkeninin üç boyutlu yapısı da incelenmiştir. Fakat boyutlar arasında. 90 ve. 95 aralığında çok yüksek bir iç korelasyon katsayısı olduğu bulunmuştur. Bu çalışma dışında bu üç boyut arasında yüksek iç korelasyon bulan diğer çalışmalar da vardır. Örneğin, Christian ve Slaughter (2007) işe bağıllığın meta analiz sonuçlarında yüksek iç korelasyon bulmuştur, bununla beraber Balducci ve diğerleri (2010), ve Schaufeli, Bakker ve Salanova (2006)'nin çalışmalarında da benzer sonuçlar vardır. Bu veriler ışında işe bağıllık ölçeğinin boyutlarıyla değil toplan puanıyla yorumlanmasına karar verilmiştir.

Hiyerarşik Regresyon Analizi

Tabachnick ve Fidell (2007) bir grup yordayıcı değişken ve yordanan değişken arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi için hiyerarşik regresyon analizinin kullanılması gerektiğini belirtmiştir. Aynı şekilde Field (2005) hiyerarşik regresyon analizinin yordanan değişkenin birçok değişkenle yordana bildiğini ifade etmiştir. Bu çalışmada örgütsel bağlanma, işe bağıllık ve temel benlik değerlendirmesi değişkenlerinin örgütsel öğrenme kapasitesini ne derece yordayabildiğini bulmak amacıyla 4 ayrı hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yürütülmüştür.

Çalışmada yordayıcı değişkenler; fakülte tipi, akademik derece (lisans seviyesi referans kategori alınarak göstermelik kodlama yapılmıştır), öğretmenlerin deneyim yılları, buldukları okuldaki çalışma süreleri, aldıkları hizmet içi eğitimler, yönetimsel görevler, 3 boyutlu örgütsel öğrenme, işe bağıllık ve temel benlik değerlendirmesi olarak belirlenmiştir.

İlk araştırma sorusu; ‘‘Demografik deęişkenler, örgütsel bağlanma, işe bağlılık ve temel benlik deęerlendirmesinin, Ankara’da ki ilk ve orta dereceli okullardaki örgütsel öğrenme kapasitesinin alt boyutu olan yönetsel baęlılığı yordama deęeri nedir?’’

Hiyerarşik Analiz için Varsayım Analizler

Hiyerarşik analizi yürütebilmek için gerekli olan varsayımlar kontrol edilmiştir İlk olarak Green (1991)’in belirttięi $N > 50 + 8k$ formül üzerinde örneklem sayısı hesaplanmıştır ve örneklem sayısı bu kriteri sağlamıştır. Bu çalışma için en düşük örneklem sayısı 11 bağımsız deęişken ile birlikte 138 olarak hesaplanmıştır, çalışma 1050 kiři ile bu varsayımı sağlamaktadır.

İkinci olarak veride herhangi bir normal dağılım hatası olup olmadığına bakılmıştır. Bunun için histogramlar, P-P plotlar kontrol edilmiş, verideki artık deęerlerin rastgele dağıldı görülmüştür, bir dięer deęişle bu varsayım da sağlanmıştır.

Eş varyanslık ve doğrusallık varsayımlarına kontrol etmek için ise yordanan ve artık deęerlerinin dağılım grafięine bakılmış ve herhangi bir örüntüye rastlanmamıştır. Field (2009) çalışmasında bu varsayımın sağlanabilmesi için noktaların rastgele ve geliři güzel şekilde grafik boyunca dağılması gerektiğini belirtmiştir. Çalışmadaki dağılım grafięi eş varyanslık varsayımlarının sağlandığını göstermiştir.

Tabachnick ve Fidell (2007) doğrusallık varsayımı için noktaların dağılım grafięini kaplamasını, bir dikdörtgen şekilde olması gerektiğini belirtmiştir. Bu çalışmada doğrusallık grafięi tam olarak dikdörtgen bir şekil almamıştır fakat Tabachnick ve Fidell (2007) doğrusallık varsayımının analizi çok zayıf şekilde etkilediğini belirtmiştir.

Regresyon analizini yapabilmek için artık terimler arasında korelasyon olmaması veya herhangi bir gözlemden bağımsız olması gerekmektedir. Bu varsayım Durbin Watson testiyle kontrol edilmiştir. Field (2009), bağımsız hata varsayımının

sağlanması için Durbin Watson değerinin 1'den küçük olmaması ve 3'ten büyük olmaması gerektiğini belirtmiştir. Bu çalışmada Durbin Watson değeri 1.99 olarak bulunmuştur.

Çoklu bağlantı ve tekillik varsayımları incelendiğinde ise Field (2009) 3 farklı yol önermiştir. Bunlardan ilki korelasyon matrisidir. Eğer değişkenler arası güçlü bir bağlantı yoksa ($r > .90$), çoklu bağlantı varsayımını doğrulanmış olur. Bu çalışmanın korelasyon matrisi değişkenler arasında güçlü bir korelasyon olmadığını göstermiştir. İkinci yol olarak varyans enflasyon faktörü (VIF)'nün 4'ten küçük olması gerektiği belirtilmiştir. Sonuçlar bu çalışma için VIF değerinin 1 ve 1.8 arasında olduğunu göstermektedir. Üçüncü yol olarak pay değerinin. 20'den büyük olması gerektiği kriteridir. Çalışmada bu değer .55 ile .98 arasında bulunmuştur. Bu kontrollerden sonra çoklu bağlantı ve tekillik varyansına ilişkin herhangi bir varsayım ihlali söz konusu değildir.

Etkili gözlem varsayımını kontrol etmek için ise çok yönlü aykırı değerlere ve her bir yordayıcı için kısmi regresyon grafiğine bakılmıştır. Regresyon grafiklerinin görsel değerlendirmesi sonucunda grafiklerde çok yönlü aykırı değerlere rastlanmamıştır. Field (2009), Leverage değeri, Cook uzaklığı, DFBeta ve Mahalanobis uzaklıklarının hesaplanmasıyla çok yönlü aykırı değerlerin olup olmadığına bakılabileceğini belirtmiştir. Bu varsayımın sağlanabilmesi için ilk olarak Leverage değerinin .00 ve .07 arasında olması gerekmektedir. Bu çalışmada Leverage değeri .50 olarak bulunmuştur. Cook uzaklığında bakıldığında ise varsayımın sağlanması için Cook uzaklık değerinin 1'i geçmemesi gerektiği bilmektedir (Cook ve Weisberg, 1982), çalışmada en yüksek Cook uzaklık değeri .02'dir. Stevens (2002), DFBeta değeri'ni çok yönlü aykırı değerler varyansını sağlama için en yüksek 2 olması gerektiğini belirtmiştir. Bu çalışmada en yüksek DFBeta değeri .40'a eşittir. Son olarak her bir katılımcı için Mahalanobis uzaklığı, her katılımcının merkezden uzaklığı olarak hesaplanmış. 9 katılımcının .001'le en uzak değere sahip olduğu bulunmuştur. Son olarak 11 bağımsız değişkenin çok yönlü aykırı değerler olup olmadığına bakılmıştır ($\alpha = .001$ 'de kritik değer χ^2). Belirlenen kritik χ^2 değeri 31.264'e eşittir ($\alpha = .001$).) katılımcıdan hiçbirisi 31.264

değerini geçmemiştir. Bahsedilen bütün sonuçları analizlerde çok yönlü aykırı değerler olmadığı varsayımını sağlar niteliktedir.

İlk olarak yönetimsel bağlılık değişkeni üzerinde hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Hiyerarşik regresyonun birinci basamağında fakülte tipi, akademik derece, öğretmenlik deneyimi süresi, öğretmenin bulunduğu okuldaki çalışma süresi analize konulmuştur. Regresyon modeli anlamlı bulunmuştur $R^2 = .016$, $\Delta F(4, 1045) = 4.269$. Eğitim fakültesi mezunu olan öğretmenlerin diğer fakültelere göre yönetimsel bağlılığı yordayan faktörlerden biri olduğu bulunmuştur. Bir diğer anlamlı bulunan faktör ise öğretmenlerin akademik dereceleridir. İkinci basamakta hizmet içi eğitim değişkeni analize katıldıktan sonra regresyon modeli tekrar anlamlı çıkmıştır $R^2 = .023$, $\Delta F(5, 1044) = 4.919$, ve hizmet içi eğitim yönetimsel bağlılığın yordayıcısı olarak bulunmuştur. 3. basamakta ise yönetimsel görev değişkeni analize konmuştur ve regresyon modeli anlamlı bulunmuştur $R^2 = .025$, $\Delta F(6, 1043) = 4.377$. Fakat yönetimsel görevlerin, yönetimsel bağlılık için anlamlı bir yordayıcı olmadığı sonucuna varılmıştır. 4. basamakta regresyon analizi tekrar anlamlı çıkmıştır $R^2 = .188$, $\Delta F(9, 1040) = 26.721$. Bunlara ek olarak örgütsel bağlılık açıklanan varyanstaki değerini yükseltmiştir. Ayrıca duygusal, ahlaki ve devam eden bağlılık boyutlarının da yönetimsel bağlılığı anlamlı şekilde yordadığını ortaya koymuştur. 5'nci regresyon adımında ise model işe bağlılık değişkeni eklenmiş haliyle gene anlamlı bulunmaya devam etmiştir $R^2 = .243$, $\Delta F(10, 1039) = 32.06$. Yani işe bağlılık yönetimsel bağlılığı yordayan bir faktör olarak bulunmuştur. 6'ncı regresyon adımında ise model anlamlı bulunmuş $R^2 = .243$, $\Delta F(11, 1038) = 29.25$, fakat temel benlik değerlendirmesi değişkeni yönetimsel bağlılığı anlamlı şekilde yordamadığı bulunmuştur.

Araştırma sorusu; ‘‘Demografik değişkenler, örgütsel bağlanma, işe bağlılık ve temel benlik değerlendirmesinin, Ankara’da ki ilk ve orta dereceli okullardaki örgütsel öğrenme kapasitesinin alt boyutu olan sistem perspektifini yordama değeri nedir?’’

Regresyon Analizi Sonuçları

İlk olarak sistem perspektifi değişkeni üzerinde hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Hiyerarşik regresyonun birinci basamağında fakülte tipi, akademik derece, öğretmenlik deneyimi süresi, öğretmenin bulunduğu okuldaki çalışma süresi analize konulmuştur. Regresyon modeli anlamlı bulunmamıştır $R^2 = .005$, $\Delta F (4, 1045) = 1.210$. İkinci basamakta hizmet içi eğitim değişkeni analize katıldıktan sonra regresyon modeli anlamlı çıkmıştır $R^2 = .01$, $\Delta F (5, 1044) = 2.482$, ve hizmet içi eğitim sistem perspektifinin yordayıcısı olarak bulunmuştur. 3. basamakta ise yönetimsel görev değişkeni analize konmuştur ve regresyon modeli anlamlı bulunmuştur $R^2 = .013$, $\Delta F (6, 1043) = 2.35$. Fakat yönetimsel görevlerin, sistem perspektifini anlamlı şekilde yordamadığı bulunmuştur. 4. basamakta regresyon analizi tekrar anlamlı çıkmıştır $R^2 = .23$, $\Delta F (9, 1040) = 37.53$. Analize örgütsel bağlanma eklenince varyans değeri yükselmiştir, bununla beraber duygusal, ahlaki ve devam eden bağlılık boyutlarının da sistem perspektifini anlamlı şekilde yordadığını bulunmuştur. 5'nci regresyon adımında ise model işe bağlılık değişkeni eklenmesiyle beraber tekrar anlamlı bulunmaya devam etmiştir $R^2 = .04$, $\Delta F (10, 1039) = 41.16$, işe bağlılık sistem perspektifinin anlamlı bir yordayıcısıdır. 6'ncı ve son regresyon adımında ise model tekrar anlamlı bulunmuş $R^2 = .001$, $\Delta F (11, 1038) = 3.63$, fakat temel benlik değerlendirmesi değişkeni yönetimsel bağlılığı anlamlı şekilde yordamadığı görülmüştür.

Üçüncü araştırma sorusu; “Demografik değişkenler, örgütsel bağlanma, işe bağlılık ve temel benlik değerlendirmesinin, Ankara’da ki ilk ve orta dereceli okullardaki örgütsel öğrenme kapasitesinin alt boyutu olan bilgi transferi ve entegrasyonunu yordama değeri nedir?”

Üçüncü regresyonda bilgi transferi ve entegrasyonu değişkeni üzerinde hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Hiyerarşik regresyonun birinci basamağında fakülte tipi, akademik derece, öğretmenlik deneyimi süresi, öğretmenin bulunduğu okuldaki çalışma süresi analize konulmuştur. Regresyon modeli anlamlı bulunmamıştır $R^2 = .006$, $\Delta F (4, 1045) = 1.455$. İkinci basamakta hizmet içi eğitim değişkeni analize katıldıktan sonra da regresyon modeli anlamlı çıkmamıştır $R^2 =$

.006, $\Delta F (5, 1044) = 1.237$. Üçüncü basamakta ise yönetimsel görev değişkeni analize konmuştur ve regresyon modeli gene anlamlı bulunmamıştır $R^2 = .007$, $\Delta F (6, 1043) = 1.160$. Fakat yönetimsel görevlerin, sistem perspektifini anlamlı şekilde yordamadığı bulunmuştur. 4. basamakta regresyon analizi anlamlı çıkmıştır $R^2 = .171$, $\Delta F (9, 1040) = 26.31$. Analize örgütsel bağlanma eklenince açıklanan varyans değeri yükselmiştir, bununla beraber devam eden bağlılık boyutu hariç duygusal ve ahlaki boyutların bilgi transferi ve entegrasyonunu anlamlı şekilde yordadığını bulunmuştur. 5'nci regresyon adımında ise model işe bağlılık değişkeni eklenmesiyle beraber tekrar anlamlı bulunmaya devam etmiştir $R^2 = .24$, $\Delta F (10, 1039) = 32.49$, işe bağlılık bilgi transferi ve entegrasyonunu anlamlı bir yordayıcısıdır. 6'nci regresyon adımında ise model tekrar anlamlı bulunmuş $R^2 = .24$, $\Delta F (11, 1038) = 29.53$, fakat temel benlik değerlendirmesi değişkeni bilgi transferi ve entegrasyonunu anlamlı şekilde yordamadığı görülmüştür.

Diğer araştırma sorusu; “Demografik değişkenler, örgütsel bağlanma, işe bağlılık ve temel benlik değerlendirmesinin, Ankara’da ki ilk ve orta dereceli okullardaki örgütsel öğrenme kapasitesinin alt boyutu olan açık fikirlilik ve deneyim yordama değeri nedir?”

İlk olarak açık fikirlilik ve deneyim değişkeni üzerinde hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Hiyerarşik regresyonun birinci basamağında fakülte tipi, akademik derece, öğretmenlik deneyimi süresi, öğretmenin bulunduğu okuldaki çalışma süresi analize konulmuştur. Regresyon modeli anlamlı bulunmuştur $R^2 = .013$, $\Delta F (4, 1045) = 3.315$. İlk bloktaki tek anlamlı yordayıcı fakülte tipi olmuştur. İkinci basamakta hizmet içi eğitim değişkeni analize katıldıktan sonra regresyon modeli tekrar anlamlı çıkmıştır $R^2 = .018$, $\Delta F (5, 1044) = 3.824$, ve hizmet içi eğitim açık fikirlilik ve deneyim değişkenininin yordayıcısı olarak bulunmuştur. 3. basamakta ise yönetimsel görev değişkeni analize konmuştur ve regresyon modeli anlamlı bulunmuştur $R^2 = .019$, $\Delta F (6, 1043) = 3.372$. Fakat yönetimsel görevlerin, açık fikirlilik ve deneyim değişkenini anlamlı şekilde yordamadığı bulunmuştur. 4. basamakta regresyon analizi tekrar anlamlı çıkmıştır $R^2 = .211$, $\Delta F (9, 1040) = 30.04$. Analize örgütsel bağlanma eklenince varyans değeri yükselmiştir, bununla beraber duygusal, ahlaki ve devam eden bağlılık boyutlarının da açık fikirlilik ve deneyim değişkenini anlamlı şekilde yordadığını bulunmuştur. 5'nci regresyon adımında ise

model işe bağlılık değişkeni eklenmesiyle beraber tekrar anlamlı bulunmaya devam etmiştir $R^2= .265$, $\Delta F (10, 1039) = 37.48$, işe bağlılık, açık fikirlilik ve deneyim değişkeninin anlamlı bir yordayıcısıdır. 6'ncı ve son regresyon adımında ise model tekrar anlamlı bulunmuş $R^2= .265$, $\Delta F (11, 1038) = 0034.05$, fakat temel benlik değerlendirmesi değişkeninin, açık fikirlilik ve deneyim değişkeninin anlamlı şekilde yordamadığı görülmüştür.

Değerlendirme, Sonuç ve Öneriler:

Bu çalışma bir korelasyon çalışmasıdır. Bu çalışmanın temel amacı eğitim örgütlerinde yönetsel bağlılık, sistem perspektifi, bilgi transferi ve entegrasyonu ve açıklık ve deneyimin geçmiş, meslek içi eğitim, yönetsel görevler, örgütsel bağlılık, işe bağlılık ve tam benlik değerlendirmesini kapsayan yordayıcılarını incelemektir. Bu çalışmaya ankaradaki ilk ve orta dereceli okullarda görev yapmakta olan 1050 öğretmen katılmıştır. Çalışmada kullanılan ilk ölçek Gomez ve diğerlerine (2005) ait olan Örgütsel Öğrenme Kapasitesi ölçeğidir. Pilot çalışmanın betimleyici faktör analizinden elde edilen yapı orijinal ölçekteki yapıyla uyumlu değildi. Faktör yükleri analizi bu uyumsuzluk için bir açıklama getirmiştir. Öğretmenler örgütsel öğrenmeyi yönetimin bir görevi olarak tanımlamaktadırlar. Bu nedenle yönetsel bağlılık önemli bir boyut teşkil etmektedir. Temel çalışmanın betimleyici faktör analizi sonuçları ölçeğin Türkçe uyarlamasının yönetsel bağlılık, sistem perspektifi, bilgi transferi ve entegrasyonu ve açıklık ve deneyim olmak üzere orta dereceli uygunlukla dördü-faktör yapısında olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Bu çalışmada kullanılan diğer ölçeklerin betimleyici faktör analizleri de ölçeklerin yapı geçerliliğini hakkında ek kanıt sağlamıştır.

Örgütsel bağlanmaya bağlı betimleyici istatistikler öğretmenlerin örgütlerine bağlılığının orta derecenin üzerinde olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu bağlamda en yüksek ortalama puanı 4.64 ile duygusal bağlılıkta, en düşük ortalama puanı ise 4.02 ile devamlılık bağlılığında görülmüştür. Örgütsel bağlanma sonuçları değerlendirildiğinde, hatırı sayılır sayıda öğretmenin örgütlerine bağlı olduğu görülmektedir. Aynı zamanda sonuçlar öğretmenlerin ahlaki bağlanmadan önce

örgütlerine duygusal olarak bağlandıklarını göstermektedir. Devamlılık bağlılığı ortalamasının üzerinde olmasına rağmen diğer yordayıcılar kadar yüksek değildi. Bu bulgu önceki çalışmalar ile bağdaşmaktadır. Örneğin, Medallon (2013) duygusal bağlılığın en yüksek ortalama puanına sahip olduğunu; ahlaki bağlılık ve devamlılık bağlılığınsa en düşük ortalama puanına sahip yordayıcılar olduğunu bulmuştur.

Çalışmaya katılan öğretmenlerin hepsi 10 ila 24 yıla varan meslek tecrübesine sahiptiler. Hupia, Devos ve Van Keer (2010) ve Reyes (1992) daha deneyimli öğretmenlerin daha az tecrübeli öğretmenlere kıyasla örgütlerine daha az bağlı oldukları sonucuna varmışlardır. Ortalama puanları katılımcıların bu özelliklerine itafen açıklanabilir.

Duygusal bağlılıktaki yüksek ortalama puanları yüksek derecede iş bağlılığı ile açıklanabilir. Bu bağlamda öğretmenlerin öğretmen olmalarıyla gurur duydukları ve örgütlerinde çalışma zorunluluğu hissetmedikleri söylenebilir. İlgili alanyazında iş bağlılığı ve örgütsel bağlılık arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu yer almaktadır. Bağlılık hisseden çalışanlar örgütlerine psikolojik olarak bağlıdırlar. Hakenen ve diğerleri (2006) de iş bağlılığının örgütsel bağlılığın bir yordayıcısı olduğunu bulmuşlardır.

İşe bağlılığın betimleyici istatistikleri öğretmenlerin işlerine yüksek düzeyde bağlılık gösterdiklerini ortaya koymuştur (işe bağlılık =5.03). Bu sonuç Güner (2006) ve Turhan, Demirli ve Nazik (2012) tarafından Türkiye’de yürütülen çalışma sonuçlarıyla aynıdır. Araştırmalar bir çok insanın öğretmenlik mesleğini hala saygın bir meslek olarak gördüklerini belirtmektedir (Brookhart and Freeman, 1992). Bu kişinin çocuklarla çalışma, bir bireyin geleceğini şekillendirme ve öğrencilerin başarılı olmalarında yardımcı olma gibi özgecil güduları kapsamaktadır.

Çalışmalar işe bağlılık seviyesinin iş statusu (Mauno ve diğerleri, 2007) ve kişisel özelliklerden (Brown, 1992; Kirkpatrick, 2007) etkilendiğini vurgulamaktadır. Öğretmenlerin kişisel özellikleri bağlılıkları üzerinde etkisi olabilir. Benzer şekilde, net bir kişiliğe, yüksek özsaygıya, ve özyeetkinliğe sahip öğretmenlerin işlerine daha bağlı olma olasılıkları daha yüksektir. Buna paralel olarak TBD (McoreSelfEvaluations =3.68) betimsel sonuçları öğretmenlerin yüksek

memnuniyete, duygusal istikrara, motivasyona ve içsel denetim odağına sahip olduklarını göstermiştir.

Örgütsel öğrenme kapasitesine ait betimsel istatistik sonuçları öğretmenlerin örgütlerini ortalamanın üzerinde bir seviyede öğrenme öğrenme kapasiteleri olduğunu düşündüklerini göstermiştir. En üst seviyedeki örgütsel kapasite bilgi transferi ve entegrasyonu integration (*MKnow.Transand Integ.* = 4.80) olup bunu sırasıyla açıklık ve deneyleme (*MOpennessandExp* = 4.69), yönetsel bağlılık (*MManagerialCommitment* = 4.66) ve sistem kapasitesi perspektifi (*MSystemsPerspective* = 4.63) izlemiştir. Bu ortalama değerleri örgütsel öğrenme algısıyla açıklanabilir. Yöneticiler örgütsel öğrenmenin olumlu performans çıktıları bağlamındaki önemi ve etkisi konusunda yeterli algıya sahip değildirler. Buna ek olarak çalışanlar örgüt içi öğrenmenin faydalarının farkında değildirler (Kasim, Pak, Uli; 2008). Okullar doğal öğrenmenin gerçekleştiği ortamlardır. Bu ortamda bilgi oluşumunun, ediniminin ve paylaşımının ortalamadan yüksek olması bu nedenle şaşırtıcı değildir. Öte yandan, çalışmalar çalışanların öğrenmeyi bir eğitim olarak gördüklerini göstermiştir fakat öğrenme aslında örgütsel öğrenme kapasitesini arttıran bir aktivitedir (Vimic, 2007; Niazi, 2011). Bu doğrultuda deneyimli öğretmenler kendilerini yeterince yetkin görebilir ve eğitim aktivitelerine daha az ilgi gösterebilirler.

Kasim, Pak ve Uli bazı yöneticilerin örgütsel öğrenmeyi zaman kaybı ve gereksiz masraf olarak gördüklerini ve birçok kamu servisi yöneticilerinin örgütlerindeki örgütsel öğrenmeye gerekli ilgi, dahiliyeti ve desteği göstermediğinden bahsetmiştir. Bu da yönetsel bağlılık ile ilgili düşük ortalama puanlarını açıklayabilir. Ek olarak, öğretmenler örgütsel öğrenmeyi içselleştirmiyor ve bunun yöneticilerin bir görevi olarak görmektedirler. ,

Korelasyon analizi sonuçları örgütsel bağlanma boyutları ve iş bağlılığı arasında anlamlı bir korelasyon olduğunu göstermiştir. İş bağlılığı ve ahlaki bağlılık dışında bağlanmanın iki boyutu arasında anlamlı orta düzey bir korelasyon vardır. Ahlaki bağlılığın zayıf bir korelasyonu olduğu bulunmuştur. Birkaç durum dışında yordayıcı ve yordanan değişkenler arasında orta düzeyli anlamlı bir korelasyon

vardır. Devamlılık bağıllığı ve yönetimsel bağıllık, devamlılık bağıllığı ve sistem perspektifi, devamlılık bağıllığı ve bilgi transferi ve paylaşımı ve devamlılık bağıllığı ve açıklık ve deneyime arasında ise zayıf ve anlamlı bir korelasyon vardır. Devamlılık bağıllığı ile bağlantılı korelasyonlar zayıf olduğu için ölçeğin ilgili boyutlarında sıkıntı olabilir. Ölçeğin ilgili boyutlarındaki maddeler kötümser tonda olup daha iyi bir seçenek olabilecekkken başka bir seçenek yokmuşcasına bu kurumda çalışma zorunluluğunu ima etmektedirler. Devamlılık bağıllığında olduğu gibi özdeğerlendirmeler ve diier yordayıcı ve yordanan değişkenlerde de zayıf ya da orta dereceli anlamlı korelasyonlar bulunmuştur.

Hiyerarşik regresyon analizi sonuçlarına göre model tüm dört bağımlı değişkeni yordaması açısından uygundur. Kişisel değişkenleri göz önüne alındığı zaman mezun olunan fakültenin eğitim fakültesinden mezun olmamak veya mezun olmak olarak derecelendirildiği değişken yönetimsel bağıllığı açıklık ve deneyime önemli ölçüde yordarken sistem perspektifi ve bilgi transferi ve entegrasyonu değişkenlerine yordamadığı görülmüştür.

İleriye Yönelik Öneriler:

Çalışmanın sınırlılıkları düşünüldüğünde öncelikli olarak karma desenli bir çalışma yapılması önerilebilir. Bu çalışma nicel bir çalışmadır fakat örgütsel öğrenmenin yordayıcıları açısından düşündüğümüzde nitel bir çalışma ile çok faydalı veriler toplanabilme şansı vardır. Çalışmada yalnızca öğretmenlerden veri toplanmıştır. Oysa farklı paydaşlardan veri toplanması çalışmaya ışık tutması açısından çok çok önemlidir. Ayrıca çalışma yalnızca Ankara ilinde gerçekleştirilmiş olduğundan daha geniş coğrafi alanlara yayılmak yine önemli bir veri kaynağı olacaktır.

Buna ek olarak bu çalışma için veri Türkiye'deki okulların 4+4+4 eğitim sistemine geçtiği yıl toplanmıştır. Bu değişimin getirdiği etkileri azaltmak için uzun dönemli çalışmalara ihtiyaç vardır. Aynı zamanda örgütsel öğrenmenin yordayıcıları açısından örgütsel kültür, okul kültürü, liderlik özellikleri, iş zenginleştirme gibi değişkenler de örgütsel öğrenmeyi anlayabilmek adına çok büyük bir önem taşımaktadır.

APPENDIX V

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Tez adı: İlk ve Orta Dereceli Okullarda Örgütsel Öğrenme ve Yordayıcıları (2015)
Tez Danışmanı:(YAŞAR KONDAKÇI)
Tez savunması başarılı ile geçilmiş, 16.03.2015 tarihinde enstitüye teslim edilecektir.

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SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ/EĞİTİMDE İNSAN KAYNAKLARINI GELİŞTİRME
ANABİLİM DALI (YL) (TEZSİZ)

Lisans
1998-2002
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Görevler

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BÖLÜMÜ/İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI

Projelerde Yaptığı Görevler:

1. Kadının Hakları Temelinde Sosyal Engellilik, DİĞER, Danışman, 2015
2. 1st ELT Conference: Linguistics and Literature in ELT, Ufuk Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı Başkanlığı, Düzenleme Kurul Üyeliği 20.04.2010

Ödüller

1. Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Ders Performans Ödülü, ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ, 2010

Asiste Edilen Dersler

Akademik Yıl	Lisans Dersi	Öğretim Dili	Ders Saati
2014-2015	Öğretim Teknolojileri ve Materyal Tasarımı	Türkçe	4
2014-2015	Türk Eğitim Sistemi ve Okul Yönetimi	Türkçe	2
2013-2014	Türk Eğitim Sistemi ve Okul Yönetimi	Türkçe	2

Uluslararası bilimsel toplantılarda sunulan ve bildiri kitaplarında (proceedings) basılan bildiriler:

1. TİBET BURCU (2012). Organizational Learning in Primary and Elementary Schools. Uygulamalı Eğitim Kongresi (Özet bildiri) (Yayın No: 1349738)

Üniversite Dışı Deneyim

Danışman	Adecco, İK Danışmanı_Seçme Yerleştirme, (Diğer)
Danışman	Select KRM, İK Danışmanı_Seçme Yerleştirme, (Diğer)
Finansal Danışman	Commercial Union, İK Danışmanı_Seçme Yerleştirme, (Diğer)
Raporlama Elemanı	Atılım Üniversitesi Mütevelli Heyeti Başkanlığı, (Diğer)

APPENDIX VI

TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

- Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü
- Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü
- Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü
- Enformatik Enstitüsü
- Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü

YAZARIN

Soyadı :
Adı :
Bölümü :

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) :

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans Doktora

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

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ: