TITLE: REAL Volume 6 Issue 4

AUTHORS: Research In Educational Administration And Leadership VOL 6 ISSUE 4

PAGES: 747-747

ORIGINAL PDF URL: https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/download/article-file/2165069

CONTENTS

The Investigation of the Relations Between Paternalistic Leadership, Organizational Creativity and Organizational Dissent[1]

Bünyamin Ağalday

Mardin Artuklu University, Mardin, Turkey

Abidin Dağlı

Dicle University, Diyarbakır, Turkey

Abstract	Article Info
The research aims to determine the relationship between public primary school principals' paternalistic leadership behaviours and teachers' organizational creativity and organizational dissent perception levels according to primary school teachers' perceptions. A quantitative correlational design was utilized in the research. The research sample consists of 1059 public primary schoolteachers selected by stratified sampling method in Mardin city center and eight districts of Mardin during the 2016-2017 academic year. The data of the research were obtained by using the "Headmasters' Paternalistic Leadership Behaviours Scale," "Organizational Creativity Scale," and "Organizational Dissent Scale. "The data analysis revealed the following findings: There was a positive and significant correlation between the paternalistic leadership behaviours of primary school administrators and teachers' perceptions toward organizational creativity and organizational dissent. Also, paternalistic	

leadership behaviours of primary school administrators were found to be a significant predictor of teachers' perceptions toward organizational creativity and organizational dissent. The principals should exhibit benevolent leadership behaviours that enhance the teachers' organizational creativity perceptions, such as endeavouring to create a family milieu in school, being tolerant of teachers, and supporting teachers to take the initiative.

Introduction

Like all organizations, educational organizations also need a leader and leadership to realize organizations' objectives. Various studies have put forward the influence of leadership in the success of educational organizations (Gunter, 2001; Lakomski, 2008; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999; Sillins & Mulford, 2002). When those studies on leadership in schools as educational organizations have been examined, it is seen that school principals are generally the focal points of the studies. On the other hand, it is seen in many studies (Dimmock, 1999; Fullan, 2002; Hallinger, 2003; Harris, 2004; Jones, 1999; Leithwood, Steinbach & Ryan, 1997; Timperley& Robinson, 2001) that the leadership role of the school principals, who are perceived as the pioneers of the innovative practices in schools, is constantly changing. The complexity of the functions of school principals causes the variety of leadership styles they need (Young, 1994: 44). While Western leadership styles such as distributed leadership, charismatic leadership, and transformational leadership are frequently discussed in educational organizations, paternalistic leadership (PL) style of eastern origin, which is considered within the scope of this research,

has started to be discussed in non-educational organizations in recent years. The differences in Eastern and Western cultures show that there is a need to investigate the leadership styles of school principals in a particular cultural context.

PL has been put forward as one of the leadership approaches that followers expect of the leaders (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006), in countries with high collectivism and power distance, such as Turkey (Aycan & Kanungo, 2000; Hofstede, 2006). Being a collectivist country with a high power distance and extensive family orientation has helped PL become a convenient management style for Turkey (Ersoy, Born, Derous & Molen, 2012; Pellegrini and Scandura, 2006). According to the findings of several studies (Aycan, 2001; Aycan & Kanungo, 2000; Paşa et al., 2001), Turkey ranks among the countries with high scores of paternalism, and employees in Turkey expect the leader or the manager to be paternalistic. In various studies, albeit limited, conducted in Turkish schools (Aydıntan, 2016; Cerit, 2012; 2013; Cerit, Özdemir & Akgün, 2011; Dağlı & Ağalday, 2018; Mert & Özgenel, 2020; Mete & Serin, 2015; Özgenel & Dursun, 2020), it can be stated that teachers expect paternalistic leadership behaviours from their principals, such as care, support and protection, constant communication and close personal interaction. Studies in Turkey demonstrate that PL significantly affects employees' commitment (Erben & Güneşer, 2008) and performance (Hatipoğlu, Akduman & Demir, 2019). Studies conducted in Turkish schools have also shown that PL has significant effects on some organizational variables. For instance, it has been reported that paternalistic leadership affects teachers' perceptions positively regarding *organizational happiness* (Özgenel & Canulansı, 2021), *creative leadership* (Taşdemir & Atalmış, 2021), *school culture* (Özgenel & Dursun, 2020), *organizational trust* and *motivation* (Okçu, Ergül & Ekmen, 2020), *teacher performance* (Mert &

750

Özgenel, 2020), *teachers' participation in decision making and teachers' trust in principals* (Cansoy, Polatcan & Parlar, 2020), *organizational citizenship* (Mete & Serin, 2015) and *job satisfaction* (Cerit, 2012; Ekmen & Okçu, 2021). In addition to its positive effects, it is thought that paternalistic leadership, which envisages professional support of those in the organization, may have different positive effects on teachers, such as creativity.

In Turkish schools managed with a central education system, the support of teachers by school principals can improve their creativity because leaders are influential in forming an organizational culture that nurtures creative efforts and facilitates the spread of learning throughout the Organization (Yukl, 2010). Therefore, school principals' paternalistic attitudes may facilitate teachers' creative endeavours. Studies have shown that leadership affects creativity in organizations (Mumford, Ginamaire, Gaddis, & Strange, 2002; Mumford & Connelly, 1999; Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Redmond, Mumford & Teach, 1993; Scott & Bruce, 1994). In this context, how paternalistic school principals will affect teachers' perceptions of creativity is considered as one of the factors that will make this research necessary. However, school principals may exhibit authoritarian behaviours as a result of centralism. Therefore, teachers may feel uncomfortable with the authoritarian approach. Teachers may also display a dissident attitude by expressing their discomfort. On the one hand, teachers whose autonomy level will increase because they are supported (Chou, 2012) will display a creative attitude; on the other hand, they may display dissident behaviour in cases where they need to make independent decisions, since their autonomy may be restricted (Miller & Wertheimer, 2007). However, it can be argued that with the favourable climate created by being supported, teachers will more easily express their contradictory views. Therefore, school

principals' paternalistic leadership behaviours may directly or indirectly cause teachers to display oppositional behaviours. Moreover, whether the paternalistic behaviours of the principal have anything to do with the dissident manner that teachers exhibit is another point that will render this research significant. Determination of the PL behaviours of principals, which may cause teachers to exhibit dissident behaviours and take measures against them, can contribute to the adoption of democratic elements in the school and the development of positive behaviours of teachers towards school.

It might be deemed essential to examine the relationship of the PL approach with organizational creativity and organizational dissent to develop organizational creativity and let the behaviours that are needed to be displayed by the principals' ineffective dissent management be discovered. When considered from this point of view, the relationship between the PL behaviours of the school principals and the organizational creativity and organizational dissent levels of teachers can be examined. Therefore, it can be stated that the specification of the organizational variables related to PL is essential. When the literature is reviewed, a few studies (e.g., Anyanwu & Oad, 2016; Inandı, Tunc, Yucedaglar & Kilic, 2020; Riaza, Junejo & Shar, 2020) have been conducted on the relationship between different leadership styles and organizational creativity and organizational dissent. When the leader-organization relationship is examined, it is thought that paternalistic leadership has a relationship with organizational creativity and organizational dissent. However, no research analyzing the relationship between PL and organizational creativity and organizational dissent has been encountered. In this regard, this research is also essential in filling the relevant gap in the literature. The paternalistic leadership style is one of the leadership styles suitable for the cultural norms of Turkish society, which has a

high power distance and collectivist cultural characteristics. In this context, it is crucial to investigate the effects of the paternalistic leadership style of school principals on teachers in the Turkish education system, which is managed with a centralized approach. This research seeks to examine the connection between the organizational creativity and organizational dissent perceptions of teachers, which are thought to be relevant to the paternalistic leadership behaviours of school principals. This research is expected to benefit the school managers who participate in the practice, teachers, and researchers who will research this topic.

Paternalistic Leadership

PL is a relatively new concept in the leadership and management literature. Rooted in "Confucian Philosophy," with approximately 2000-year-old influence on the Chinese management (Cheng, Chou, Wu, Huang & Farh, 2004; Farh & Cheng, 2000), PL is identified as a style in which strong discipline and authority are merged with a paternalistic benevolence and moral integrity in a personal setting (Farh & Cheng, 2000). Based on intercultural leadership, this leadership style has been put into practice effectively in countries outside of North America, such as *Taiwan* (Farh & Cheng 2000; Cheng et al., 2004), *China* (Farh, Cheng, Chou & Chu, 2006; Sheer, 2012), *Mexico* (Martinez, 2003), *Japan* (Uhl-Bien, Tiemey, Graen& Wakabayashi, 1990), *Korea* (Kim, 1994), *India* (Aycan, Kanungo & Sinha, 1999; Pellegrini, Scandura & Jayaraman, 2010), and *Turkey* (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006).

When studies about the dimensions of PL have been examined in the literature, it is seen that two primary classifications were discussed the most. Those include the study made by Farh and Cheng (2000), analyzing paternalistic leadership in the dimensions of

753

"benevolent leadership," "moral leadership," and "authoritarian leadership," and the study by Kim (1994) analyzing paternalistic leadership in the dimensions of "benevolent" and "exploitative. "In *benevolent leadership*, it is essential that the leader shows individualized, long-term, and holistic concern to followers for their good and well-being. Benevolent actions include behaviours such as the leader taking an interest in the personal and family issues of the followers, protecting and forgiving them for their good and well-being, along with the leader showing individualized, long-term, and holistic concern to the followers (Aycan & Fikret-Paşa, 2003; Erben & Güneşer, 2008). In *moral leadership*, it is, to a large extent, important that the leader has personal integrity, improves himself, and does not only think of himself (Westwood, 1997). Moral actions include not being selfish, honest, and responsible, being a model, and not mixing personal interests with business relations (Cheng, Chou & Farh, 2000). In *authoritarian leadership*, the leader asserts their unquestionable and absolute authority, takes control over subordinates firmly, and demands complete obedience from them. Power and hegemony, underestimation of the talents of subordinates, projection of the 'supreme' image for the leader, and giving instructions to employees in a didactic way exist among the concrete examples of behaviours describing authoritarian leadership (Cheng, 1995). In *exploitative leadership*, the ultimate aim of the leader is to earn the obedience of the employee in exchange for the attention given, and the leader's priority is the organizational assets (Hayek, Novićević, Humphreys & Jones, 2010). In exploitative leadership, subordinates show respect and loyalty to the superior to avoid penalty or receive reward (Kim, 1994; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006). When examined from a general perspective, it can be stated that followers occur at the center of

benevolent and moral leadership. At the same time, the organization takes place at the center of authoritarian and exploitative leadership.

Having developed her model based on the dimensioning made by Kim (1994) regarding the PL, Aycan (2006) has attempted to explain PL behaviours by comparing authoritarian and autocratic leadership approaches concerning the benevolent and exploitative paternalism dimensions. In benevolent paternalism, the superior improves the well-being of the subordinate by taking an interest in the subordinate, and in return, the subordinate shows loyalty to the excellent. In exploitative paternalism, there is an interest given to the subordinate by the superior, as was the case with benevolent paternalism. Yet, this interest envisages the compliance of the subordinate for the fulfilment of organizational objectives. In authoritarian approach, the subordinates are obliged to comply with the exploitative and controlling behaviours of the superior with an expectation of a reward or to avoid penalties. Even though there is control in the autocratic approach, the well-being of the subordinate takes precedence. In this case, the subordinate tends to respect the decisions made by the superior and follow the rules since they know that it is for one's good. According to the model, the key feature distinguishing "exploitative" and "benevolent" dimensions of paternalism lies with the power motivating the behaviours of the subordinate and the superior.

Organizational Creativity

When studies conducted on the concept of creativity (Amabile, Conti, Coon, Lazenby & Herron, 1996), which is described as the production of new and useful ideas in every field, are examined, it is observed that creativity is primarily tackled at an individual level (İraz, 2010) while it is also a concept discussed at an organizational level due to the existence of the human factor (Bharadwaj & Menon,

755

2000). While the notion of creativity falls into management and organizational studies, organizational creativity has been put forward to focus on the analysis of creativity in organizations (Basadur, 1997; Ford, 1996; Woodman, Sawyer & Griffin, 1993). Organizational creativity has been addressed at the organizational level by generally referring to producing new, valuable, practical, or valuable ideas (Amabile, 1988), goods, processes, or services (Scott & Bruce, 1994; Woodman et al., 1993) in an organization.

Organizational creativity as a research field has been developing at a fast pace in recent years. Studies on organizational creativity started actively in the late 1980s, but academic interest in the subject has increased rapidly in the late 2000s (James & Drown, 2012; Shalley & Zhou, 2008). Even though the notion of creativity has been studied under different frameworks in the literature, which include *organizational creativity* (Amabile, 1996; Andriopoulos, 2001; Woodman et al., 1993), *collective creativity* (O'Donnell et al., 2006), *creativity in organizations* (Amabile, 1997; Drazin et al., 1999; Driver, 2008), *creative joint venture* (Hargadon & Bechky, 2006), and *distributed creativity* (Sawyer & DeZutter, 2009), all of those concepts correspond to the notion of organizational creativity.

Organizational creativity is usually defined as producing new and valuable, sound, or good ideas (Amabile, 1988), goods, processes, or services (Scott & Bruce, 1994; Woodman et al., 1993). This definition highlights the societal aspect of creativity, the complexity of the societal processes, and various contextual and situational effects. In addition to this, organizational creativity is affected by formal organizational practices, structural factors, and managerial issues (Andriopoulos, 2001; Bharadwaj & Menon, 2000; Kallio & Kallio, 2011; Styhre & Sundgren, 2005). There are also studies (Agrell & Gustafson,

756

1994; Oldham & Cummings, 1996) operationalizing organizational creativity as the simple aggregation of the individual creativities in the organization.

Organizational Dissent

It is seen that the notion of dissent as a research topic of Political Science has lately started to be studied in the fields of organization and management. Dissent is a concept related to the person feeling incongruous (Kassing, 1997a). In the organizational context, dissent is defined as voicing several conflicts and opposing views by the employees (Kassing, 1997a; 2002). The process of organizational dissent starts with a triggering event. Dissent occurs when a triggering event exceeds the individual's tolerance limits (Redding, 1985). A triggering event is not a sufficient condition for organizational dissent to start. For members of the organization to voice their opposing ideas, first and foremost, they need to comprehend that there is a problem within the organization. They need to find this problem worthy of intervening in (Graham, 1986). Even though a difference of opinion between the members of the organization and their superiors is not deemed sufficient to speak of an organizational dissent, there needs to bean articulation of the relevant difference of opinion.

When members of the organization face several harmful practices, they choose a particular dissent strategy to voice their contradictory ideas. Those strategies consist of *articulated dissent, latent dissent,* and *displaced dissent* strategies (Kassing, 1997a). Articulated dissent happens when members of the organization state their contradictory views to people who can affect the balances in the Organization (Kassing, 1997a; 1998; Kassing & Avtgis, 1999). In this strategy, members of the organization express their contradictory views to their managers directly or indirectly (Kassing, 2002).

According to the *latent dissent* strategy, the organization member shares their contradictory thoughts with generally other members of the organization who do not predict the balances within the Organization (Kassing, 1997a). Latent dissent behaviour essentially emerges when the members of the organization think of themselves perceived as an enemy or a rival within the Organization (Kassing, 1998). In this case, members of the organization do not articulate their contradictory views with the apprehension that their interests might be damaged. This causes members of the organization to be silent or express their contradictory views to their co-workers (Kassing & Avtgis, 1999). Displaced dissent occurs when the members of the organization prefer to convey their contradictory ideas to people outside of the Organization (Kassing, 1997a, p.326; Kassing & Avtgis, 1999). Those people include friends, spouses, partners, and family members of the organization.

Organizational dissent as a research topic has been tackled in the literature, mostly in private or public sector organizations. However, there are very few studies in the literature on the organizational dissent in educational organizations (Ağalday, Özgan & Arslan, 2014; Atmaca, 2021; Dağlı & Ağalday, 2014a; 2014b; Dağlı, 2015; 2017; Dağlı & Ağalday, 2015; Korucuoğlu & Şentürk, 2020; Özdemir, 2010; Yıldız, 2013). The study conducted by Özdemir (2010) with a claim to reconceptualize organizational dissent in the school environment in terms of micro politics stands out as the first study in the literature that addresses teacher dissent at the level of manager-teacher relations. When the studies conducted abroad (Bell-Robinson, 2016; Bouda, 2015; Burns & Wagner, 2013) are examined, it has been considered striking that those studies carried out in the United States of America are predominantly focused on the organizational dissent perceptions of the students.

The Relationship Between Paternalistic Leadership and Organizational Creativity

There has been no research encountered in the literature addressing the relationship between paternalistic leadership and organizational creativity. Therefore, findings of different studies that can be considered relevant and theoretical frameworks of paternalistic leadership and organizational creativity have been considered. At the same time, the correlation between respective variables was analysed. Leadership is one of the most critical factors determining the development of creativity in organizations (Atwater & Carmeli, 2009; Mumford, Ginamaire, Gaddis & Strange, 2002; Volmer, Spurk & Niessen, 2012). In other words, the characteristics of leadership displayed at the organizational level have been identified as one of the critical variables explaining organizational creativity (Einsteine & Hwang, 2007). Organizational creativity has been gradually growing into an exciting field for leaders. They play a significant role in creativity in the context of work. Leaders can affect employees' creativity with their behaviours by influencing employees' perceptions in their working environment (Amabile, Schatzel, Moneta & Kramer, 2004). In the studies made, it is found that leadership affects creativity in the organizations (Mumford et al., 2002; Mumford & Connelly, 1999; Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Redmond, Mumford & Teach, 1993; Scott &Bruce, 1994). Leaders have a meaningful impact on creativity since they identify and shape the job status in organizations in the context of employees interacting with each other (Amabile, 1998). It is found that the perceived support of a leader has a significant influence on the employees' creativity (Amabile et al., 2004). Leaders are influential in forming an organizational culture (Ekvall, 1996; Ekvall & Ryhammar, 1998; Schein, 2004) that fosters creative efforts and facilitates the spread of teaching to the entire organization (Yukl, 2010). Leaders can also

759

develop systems that evaluate and reward creative performance through various channels, increasing the employees' willingness for creative work (Jung, 2001). In other words, leaders can contribute to the development of creativity of their followers by affecting their motivation.

Individual and organizational factors developing or limiting creativity have been examined in some empirical studies (Amabile et al., 2004; Atwater & Carmeli, 2009; Oldham and Cummings, 1996; Redmond, Mumford & Teach, 1993; Scott & Bruce, 1994; Shin and Zhou, 2003; Tierney, Farmer & Graen, 1999). The main finding of these studies is that a supportive and encouraging working environment is usually positively correlated with creativity. From this point of view, it can be said that leaders who are supportive and are not control-driven increase the creative contribution of the employees to their work. It has been put forward that PL anticipates supporting employees vocationally (Aycan & Fikret-Paşa, 2003; Erben & Güneşer, 2008; Gelfand, Erez & Aycan, 2007), will contribute to the increase in the autonomy levels of the employees (Chou, 2012). Therefore, it is expected that there is a relationship between PL behaviours of school principals and organizational creativity levels of teachers.

The Relationship Between Paternalistic Leadership and Organizational Dissent

It can be stated that the followers tend to display independent behaviours (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995; McKnight, Cummings & Chervany, 1998), will react to the paternalistic behaviours, which leaders will exhibit because it is asserted that the paternalistic understanding can limit the autonomy of the followers in cases of the instances of autonomous decision-making (Miller & Wertheimer, 2007). Redding (1990) states that independent and autonomous

employees will reject paternalistic behaviours. Paternalistic leaders ask the employees about their ideas (Kabasakal & Bodur, 1998), yet the leader reserves the right to make the last decision (Aycan et al., 2000). In this case, even though the employees participate in the stages of getting opinions and creating goals, implementation of the ideas of the employees is not required in the paternalistic management style (Aycan & Kanungo, 2000; Erben, 2004). It is suggested that dissent can emerge due to managers not including their employees in the organizational decisions (Kassing, 1998). In such a case, it is likely that the employees whose autonomy is restricted, even partially, and who see their ideas are not implemented display dissident behaviours.

Another behaviour of the paternalistic leader that can lead to dissent of the follower is related to the leader not being fair. While the paternalistic leader distributes his/her "authority" or "benevolence" to his/her employees, s/he may not be fair or neutral (Redding, 1990), or s/he can give priority to family ties and a sense of security, instead of competence and expertise (Develi, 2008). This can turn the style of PL into discrimination (Aycan, 2001; Aycan, 2006; Çalışkan, 2010; Erben, 2004). Hegstrom (1991) states that privileges granted to the employees and the duties and responsibilities in the organization can lead to dissent. Another behaviour of the paternalistic leader that can result in the dissent of the employees is the possibility of the leader ignoring his responsibilities and losing his/her interest in his/her employees. This situation is criticized since it will cause the paternalistic leader to become autocratic (Pellegrini, Scandura & Jayaraman, 2010). It is seen that some paternalistic practices of leaders, as mentioned above, can cause employees to dissent. Hence, there is likely a relationship between PL behaviours of school principals and organizational dissent perception levels of teachers.

The Purpose of the Research

The purpose of the research is to examine the relationship between PL behaviours of the primary school principals and organizational creativity and organizational dissent perception levels of teachers based on the teachers' perceptions. Following this purpose, answers are sought for the research questions below:

1. Are the perceptions of primary school teachers on the PL behaviours of the school principals meaningful predictors of organizational creativity?

2. Are the perceptions of primary school teachers on the PL behaviours of the school principals meaningful predictors of the organizational dissent?

Methodology

Research Design

A quantitative correlational design was employed in this research to examine the relationship between paternalistic leadership, organizational creativity, and organizational dissent.

Sample

The research population consists of the central Artuklu district of the province of Mardin in the 2016-2017 academic year and 2597 public primary schoolteachers in affiliated eight district centers. Considering the difficulty of reaching the whole population, stratified sampling method was used (Fraenkel, Wallen& Hyun, 2012). Accordingly, each of the districts of Mardin was sampled. In the sample selection, the ratio of the number of primary school teachers in the districts to the total number of teachers in the population was taken into consideration. For example, there are 602 teachers in the Artuklu

district. This number constitutes 23.19% of the number of teachers in the population. To determine the number of samples, 23.19% of the 1100 number was calculated, and the number 255 was obtained. For all districts, the ratio represented by the number of teachers in the district in the population was calculated, and scale forms were distributed to the districts by considering this rate. The 92 schools and teachers sampled in the lower levels were determined by the simple random sampling method. We have access to all schools and teachers' names and then randomly select from this list. Incorrect or incomplete returned forms were left, and 1059 scale forms were evaluated. Of the teachers participating in the research, 3.2% were associate degrees, 93.2% were undergraduate degrees, and 3.6% were graduate degrees. Among the participants, 50.9% were female, and 49.1% were male, which closely represents the gender distribution of teachers in Turkey (Çelik, Yurdakul, Bozgeyikli, & Gümüş, 2017). While 64.6% of the teachers were married, 35.4% were single. Among the teachers, 42.8% had less than five years of experience, while only 6.5% had more than 20 years of experience.

Scales of Measurement

Research data were obtained by the use of "*Headmasters' Paternalistic Leadership Behaviours Scale*," which was developed by Dağlı and Ağalday (2017), "*Organizational Creativity Scale*" which was developed by Çavuş (2006) and was adapted to schools by Yılmaz and Sünbül (2008), and *"Organizational Dissent Scale*" which was developed by Kassing (2000) and adapted to Turkish by Dağlı (2015).

Headmasters' Paternalistic Leadership Behaviours Scale (HPLBS)

The scale consists of 22 items and four dimensions (*benevolent leadership*, *moral leadership, authoritarian leadership, exploitative*

leadership). This 5-point Likert-type scale was answered on a rating scale from 1 ("completely disagree") to 5 ("completely agree"). In this study, the first level CFA was done for the scale. Sample items from the scale include "My headmaster approaches teachers like a parent and guards them" and "My headmaster takes care of teachers' private problems." CFA results revealed that the fit indices of the scale were consistent with the original form (χ^2/df = 4.96 [<5], CFI = .94 [>.90], GFI = .92 [>.90], RMSEA = 0.06 [<.08], NFI = 0.93 [>.90], and IFI= 0.93 [>.90]). The Cronbach Alpha coefficient has been found in the study as .95 for *benevolent leadership*, .82 for *moral leadership*, .72 for *authoritarian leadership*, .71 for *exploitative leadership,* and .92 for the whole scale. These findings demonstrate that the scale is a valid and reliable tool.

Organizational Creativity Scale (OCS)

The scale consists of 21 items, of which all of the items fall under one dimension, presented in a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = never disagree, 5 = totally agree). Sample items from the scale include "Learning is encouraged in our school" and "The level of knowledge sharing is high in our school. "In this study, CFA was done for the Organizational Creativity Scale. The fit indices (χ^2 / df = 2.94 [<5], CFI =.95 [>.90], RMSEA = .06 [<.08], NFI = .93 [>.90], and IFI = .95[>.90]) show that the model fits well. In the study, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient has been found as .95. These data demonstrate that the scale is a valid and reliable tool.

Organizational Dissent Scale (ODS)

While Dağlı (2015) adapted the scale to Turkish, he has first addressed the study of Turkish validity and reliability, then the construct validity. A high, positive, and meaningful correlation has been identified between English and Turkish scales in terms of linguistic equivalence (r= .97; *p*= .00). The scale consists of 15 items, of

which eight items constitute *upward dissent* and seven items constitute *latent dissent*. Sample items from the scale include "I hesitate to query school policies" and "I criticize the inadequacies in my school in front of everyone. "This scale was answered on a rating scale from 1 ("never disagree") to 5 ("fully agree"). In the study, CFA was done for the Organizational Dissent Scale. It was found that the fit index values (χ^2 / df = 2.83 [<5], CFI =.94 [>.90], GFI = .90 [>.90], RMSEA = .07 [<0.08], NFI = .91 [>0.90], and IFI = .94 [>0.90]). Considering these criteria, it can be argued that the two-factors structure obtained from CFA is an acceptable model. In this study, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient has been found as .81 for the first factor, .72 for the second, and .82 for the whole scale. These coefficients demonstrate that the scale is a reliable tool.

Data Analysis

The use of SPSS software has analyzed research data. Correlation and multiple linear regression analyses have been applied to examine the relationship between PL, organizational creativity, and organizational dissent. The skewness and kurtosis coefficients of the data set were examined to determine the normality. The skewness coefficients of the HPLBS are between .65 and .06; kurtosis coefficients vary between -.81 and -.24. The skewness coefficients of OCS are between -.73 and -.19; kurtosis coefficients vary between -.75 and -.24. The skewness coefficients of ODS are between -.54 and -.11; kurtosis coefficients vary between -.73 and -.16. These values indicate that the data show a distribution close to normal (Kline, 2011). In this study, the suitability of the factor structure of the data collection tools has been tested by CFA. Multicollinearity issue was not observed between variables (see Table 1).

765

Results

We found positive correlation between the variables studied. The findings showed a strong level of correlation between organizational creativity and paternalistic leadership (r = .70; *p*< .01) and between organizational creativity and organizational dissent (r = .72; p < .01), while between paternalistic leadership and organizational dissent (r = .29); p < .01) showed low levels of correlations. Accordingly, as teachers' perceptions of paternalistic leadership increase, their perceptions of organizational creativity and organizational dissent also increase.

Table 1.

Correlation Among Variables

Variable	BL	ML	AL	EL	PL	OC	UD	LD	OD
BL	-								
ML	.68**	-							
AL	.40**	.40**	-						
EL	.20**	.35**	.54**	-					
PL	.79**	.75**	.65**	.51**	-				
OC	.76**	.57**	.31**	.15**	.70**	-			
UD	.37**	.40**	.28**	.20**	.43**	.41**	-		
LD	.06	.07*	-.05	-.10**	.02	.11**	.41**	-	
OD	.27**	.29**	.15**	.07*	.29**	.32**	.86**	.81**	-

BL: Benevolent Leadership, ML: Moral Leadership, AL: Authoritarian Leadership, EL: Exploitative Leadership, PL: Paternalistic Leadership, OC: Organizational Creativity, UD: Upward Dissent, LD: Latent Dissent

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

In the second part of the analysis, we examined the predictive power between the variables. First, we performed a multiple linear

regression analysis in which the sub-dimensions of paternalistic leadership were independent and organizational creativity was the dependent variable. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2.

Multiple Linear Regression Analysis concerning the Prediction of Organizational Creativity by Paternalistic Leadership Dimensions
(Dependent variable = Organizational creativity)

Variable	B	S.E.	β	t	p
Constant	.85	.90		9.71	.00*
Benevolent Leadership	.60	1.04	.70	25.18	.00*
Moral Leadership	.10	.88	.10	3.76	.00*
Authoritarian Leadership	-.00	1.09	.00	-.14	.89
Exploitative Leadership	-.02	1.04	.02	-.11	.25

$R = .76$; $R^2 = .58$; $F = 380.13$; $p = .00$

*: $p < .01$

Analysis results showed that paternalistic leadership displayed a significant relationship ($R = .76$; $R^2 = .58$) with organizational creativity ($F = 380.13$; $p < .01$). Dimensions of paternalistic leadership explain 58% of the change in organizational creativity. Based on standardized regression coefficients, the order of importance of the predictive variables on teachers' organizational creativity perception levels follows as benevolent leadership ($β = .70$) and moral leadership ($β = .10$). Benevolent leadership had a strong effect, while moral leadership had a weak effect. The analysis results regarding the prediction of upward dissent by the dimensions of paternalistic leadership are presented in Table 3.

767

Table 3.

Multiple Linear Regression Analysis concerning the Prediction of Upward Dissent by Paternalistic Leadership Dimensions

(Dependent variable =Upward dissent)					
Variable	B	S.E.	β	t	p
Constant	2.40	.75		23.51	.00*
Benevolent Leadership	.11	1.04	.15	4.03	.00*
Moral Leadership	.21	.87	.24	6.27	.00*
Authoritarian Leadership	.07	1.09	.11	3.15	.00*
Exploitative Leadership	.01	1.04	.02	.68	.49

R = .44; R^2 = .19; F = 64.78; p = .00

*: p < .01

Results concerning multiple linear regression analysis are shown in Table 3. The results showed that paternalistic leadership displayed a significant relationship ($R = .44$, $R^2 = .19$) with upward dissent ($F = 64.782$, $p < .01$). Dimensions of paternalistic leadership explain 19% of the change in upward dissent. The order of importance of the predictive variables on the upward dissent follows as moral leadership ($β = .24$), benevolent leadership ($β = .15$), and authoritarian leadership ($β = .11$). The dimensions had a weak effect. The analysis results regarding the prediction of latent dissent by the dimensions of paternalistic leadership are presented in Table 4.

Table 4.

Multiple Linear Regression Analysis concerning the Prediction of Latent Dissent by Paternalistic Leadership Dimensions

(Dependent variable = Latent dissent)					
Variable	*B*	*S.E.*	*β*	*t*	*p*
Constant	3.33	.75		23.51	.00*
Benevolent Leadership	.01	1.04	.02	4.03	.58
Moral Leadership	.10	.87	.12	6.27	.00*
Authoritarian Leadership	-.03	1.09	-.05	3.15	.19
Exploitative Leadership	-.08	1.04	.02	.68	.00*

R = .15; R² = .02; F = 6.87; p = .00

*: p < .01

When Table 4 is examined, analysis results showed that paternalistic leadership displayed a significant relationship ($R = .15$, $R^2 = .02$) with latent dissent ($F = 6.87$, $p < .01$). Dimensions of paternalistic leadership explain 2% of the change in latent dissent. The order of importance of the predictive variables on the latent dissent follows as moral leadership ($β = .12$) and exploitative leadership ($β = .02$). The dimensions had a weak effect.

Discussion, Conclusion, and Suggestions

This research examines relationships between paternalistic leadership, organizational creativity, and organizational dissent based on teachers' perceptions. The findings obtained are researched within the scope of the relevant literature and discussed within their context. Suggestions towards practitioners and researchers are generated regarding the results obtained in the wake of the discussion.

When the findings related to the first research question of the study are examined, only *benevolent leadership* and *moral leadership* sub-dimensions of PL are meaningful predictors of organizational creativity. It can be expressed that the principals' PL behaviours have essential and profound effects on the teachers' organizational creativity perception levels. Also, the importance of the predictive variables on the teacher's organizational creativity perception levels follows as benevolent leadership and moral leadership. Among the sub-dimensions of primary school principals' PL behaviours, the benevolent leadership dimension can be said to constitute the most critical effect on the teachers' organizational creativity perception levels. While there has been no study encountered in the literature addressing the relationship between PL and organizational creativity, studies are managing the relationship between the sub-dimensions of PL and the creativity of employees in the organizations (Gu, Tang & Jinag, 2015; Kurt, 2013; Sheer, 2010; Wang & Cheng, 2010; Wang, Kuo, Cheng & Tsai, 2009). When the findings obtained from those studies are examined in general terms, it is seen that only benevolent leadership and moral leadership dimensions among the sub-dimensions of PL are positively correlated with creativity and have an association with creativity. From this aspect, it can be expressed that the findings obtained from the present study bear a resemblance to the results obtained from mentioned studies. The benevolent leader can cause an increase in the employees' creativity levels since the leader contributes to the formation of an environment of trust in the organization psychologically by providing social support through assisting the employees in any kind of problem (Tierney et al., 1999). It is seen in research conducted that the school managers' PL behaviours have a significant impact on the teachers' organizational trust perceptions (Karasel, Altınay, Altınay & Dağlı, 2017). The benevolent

leader acknowledges the role of his follower as both a model subordinate and a valuable person (Farh & Cheng, 2000). The subordinates who perceive these acknowledgments then experience a sense of gratitude (Cheng et al., 2004) that facilitates interpersonal trust and the level of comfort required for creativity (Mumford & Gustafson, 1988). In addition to this, it is suggested that the subordinates with high benevolent leadership perception are transferred more funds by their leaders and appreciated more (Farh & Cheng, 2000). From this point of view, it can be suggested that the benevolent leader is more sensitive to creativity and supports creativity. Besides that, it is also probable that the moral leadership which anticipates keeping the employees vocationally (Gelfand et al., 2007) affects their creativity. Tolerance of the moral leader affects the behaviours of the followers and contributes to the increase in their morale and motivation (Niu, Wang & Cheng, 2009). Given that motivation is a factor influencing creativity, it is thought that the obtainment of the findings in the present research can be explained with this situation as well. If there is trust in the relationship between the leader and the follower, and if it is not spoiled, the relationship, by nature, turns into a social transaction by the leader adopting benevolent and moral leadership (Chen, Eberly, Chiang, Farh & Cheng,2011). This mentioned social transaction is considered to contribute to the increase in the employees' creativity.

When the findings related to the second research question of the study are examined, it is seen that only the *benevolent leadership*, *moral leadership,* and *authoritarian leadership* sub-dimensions of PL are meaningful predictors of *upward dissent*. Also, the order of importance of the predictive variables on the teachers' upward dissent perception levels follows as moral leadership, benevolent leadership, and authoritarian leadership. Among the sub-dimensions of primary school principals' PL behaviours, the moral leadership dimension can

771

most critically affect teachers' upward dissent perception levels. In addition to this, it is seen that only the *moral leadership* and *exploitative leadership* sub-dimensions of PL are meaningful predictors of *latent dissent*. Also, the order of importance of the predictive variables on the teachers' latent dissent perception levels follows as moral leadership and exploitative leadership. Among the sub-dimensions of primary school principals' PL behaviours, the moral leadership dimension can constitute the most critical effect on the teachers' latent dissent perception levels, as is the case with upward dissent.

In the present study, it is identified that within the scope of benevolence, the primary school principals assist teachers in any problems within or outside of the school domain by creating a family milieu. They also work with the teachers in harmony; they tolerate teachers and support them in taking the initiative. These kinds of behaviours displayed by the principals are considered to positively influence thought to be reflecting simply on the communication between the principal and teachers as they affect the democratic environment in the school. This way, it can be suggested that teachers can articulate their opinions in a more accessible and more comfortable setting. Research conducted by Karasel et al. (2017) identified that teachers working with paternalistic school principals establish positive communication with the school managers and other teachers and maintain their relationship within the scope of common courtesy. Employees who can develop good communication with their managers have higher organizational commitment and job satisfaction levels (Anderson & Martin, 1995). Besides, the employees identify more with their organizations (Kassing, 2000a), have a higher organizational commitment (Haskins, 1996), and as a result of this, they articulate their dissident views to their managers directly (Kassing, 2000a) in organizations where there is high freedom of

speech. In another study (Sadykova &Tutar, 2014), it is reported that the level of employees' upward dissent will increase with an increase in the managers' democratization level. In another study conducted by Oral-Ataç (2015), a positive relationship exists between employees' organizational dissent and organizational democracy perceptions. Employees with a high organizational democracy perception prefer an upward dissent strategy. An employee who thinks that one can express oneself freely in the organization commits to work more and becomes more productive. Employees are in an expectation of environments created where they can dissent (Kassing, 1997b). Hence, they prefer organizational settings where they can express themselves freely. Mentioned organizational environments are asserted to contribute to the increase in employees' job satisfaction and organization commitment (Gorden & Infante, 1987). It is reported that there is a high-level relationship between organizational communication and job satisfaction (De Nobile & McCormik, 2008), and managers promoting the employees to express their views in organizational matters increase employees' job satisfaction (Gorden, Infante & Graham, 1988). Therefore, paternalistic management can increase employees' job satisfaction levels, and thus employees can prefer a relatively more upward dissent strategy. Findings of the research made by Kassing (1988) support this claim. In the relevant study, high job satisfaction levels positively correlate with upward dissent and latent dissent. It is also possible to run into other research findings that support this claim (Pienaar, Sieberhagen & Mostert, 2007; Uhl-Bien et al., 1990; Yetim & Yetim, 2006). In the mentioned studies, it is identified that the PL behaviours exhibited by managers increase employees' job satisfaction levels and decrease the intentions to leave the job. It is also possible to reach the result in the mentioned studies. With the understanding of paternalistic management, employees do

773

not leave the organization they work for and articulate their dissident views by staying within the organization.

Another finding concerning the second question in this research is that the moral leadership dimension of PL, along with the benevolent leadership dimension, predicts upward dissent. The moral leader has a sense of justice predominantly, tries to keep his promises, does not misuse his authority, and does not take advantage of the weaknesses of his followers for his benefit. It is stated that the followers appreciate and internalize this behaviour of the leader and take this virtuous manner of the leader as an example (Farh et al., 2006), respect the leader more, and identify themselves more with the leader (Farh & Cheng, 2000). Given that the members of the organization who have high organizational identification levels are in a tendency to articulate their dissident views directly to their managers (Kassing, 2000a), it can be said that the moral leadership behaviours exhibited by primary school principals made a positive contribution on the organizational identification levels of teachers and this may influence the obtainment of the result in the present study that the moral leadership dimension predicts upward dissent. On the other hand, it has been put forward by various studies (Çalışkan, 2010; Köksal, 2011) that PL is positively correlated with the sense of justice, which can be considered as an essential component of moral leadership, and that PL predicts organizational justice. When dissent is regarded as having a prediction that enhances organizational justice (Özdemir, 2010), moral leadership likely predicts upward dissent. Therefore, this mentioned situation can be said to affect the obtainment of the finding in the present study, as well.

One of the findings concerning the second question in this research is that the authoritarian leadership dimension predicts

upward dissent, as was the case with benevolent leadership and moral leadership dimensions. However, according to the order of importance in this prediction, it is striking that the authoritarian leadership dimension comes after morality and benevolence dimensions. Accordingly, it can be said that the leader's display of moral and benevolent behaviours can cause more dissident behaviours by the employees, according to the authority. In the present study, it is seen within the scope of authoritativeness that the primary school principals demand unconditional obedience from teachers towards the decisions principals make; therefore, they hold themselves at a distance in their relationships with the teachers, and they want every matter related to school under their control. These kinds of behaviours principals exhibit are likely to hinder the teachers' freedom of speech. In research conducted on this subject by Zhang, Huai and Xie (2015), it is identified that authoritarian leadership affects the employees' freedom of speech negatively. The teachers likely deterred from the freedom of speech exhibit dissident behaviours. In addition to this, it is understood that authoritarian leaders do not assume democratic behaviours in decision-makings. Primary school principals not considering teachers' views when deciding may have caused teachers to exhibit dissident behaviours. This seems by the "decision-making" claim taking place in the "typology of the events triggering organizational dissent" by Kassing (1997b). Kassing (1997b) asserts that organizational dissent starts when followers challenge their leaders' decision-making logic. On the other hand, given that the authoritarian leadership negatively affects the employees' job satisfaction (Anwar, 2013; Chou, 2012), organizational citizenship, and organizational commitment levels (Rehman & Afsar, 2012), authoritarian leadership behaviours displayed are likely to cause teachers to display dissident behaviours. It can be said that by primary

775

school principals, the abovementioned situations predict the obtainment of the finding in the present study.

Another finding concerning the second question in this research is that only the moral leadership and exploitative leadership sub-dimensions of PL predict the latent dissent, a sub-dimension of organizational dissent. It had been stated before that the teachers might prefer upward dissent strategy over latent dissent since the moral leadership behaviours displayed by the primary school principals affect their organizational identification levels. In other respects, it is identified that exploitative leadership predicts latent dissent. In the present study, it is seen within the scope of exploitation that the primary school principals use particular strategies to subdue the dissent towards themselves; that way they expect commitment from teachers as a result of the close relationship they establish with them, and they expect support from the teachers they trust (Even though the exploitative leadership dimension is thought to be the opposite of the moral leadership dimension, when the behaviours at the level of exploitative leadership are examined, it will be seen that exploitative leadership is mostly related with political leadership. Therefore, it is thought that it will not be ethically correct to evaluate the behaviours at the level of exploitative leadership dimension. In other words, it can be stated that the leader behaves politically in the exploitative leadership.). In the present study, when the exploitative leadership behaviours displayed by primary school principals are examined, it can be asserted that the principals expect teachers to be loyal to themselves. In research conducted by Leck and Saunders (1992), it is identified that employees with a high loyalty level do not contemplate leaving their work despite the low job satisfaction that they can experience. Instead, they prefer to articulate their contradictory views in the organizational environment while they

continue working, and they do so to their managers openly. From this point onwards, it can be stated that teachers may prefer latent dissent strategy less as primary school principals keep exhibiting exploitative leadership behaviours. Therefore, this situation can be said to predict the obtainment of the finding in the present study.

This research emphasizes the importance of paternalistic leadership in increasing teachers' perceptions of organizational creativity. Our research is the first research about the potential effects of paternalistic leadership on organizational creativity. In Turkey, where the educational system is managed centrally, teachers may feel under pressure as they are stuck between central administration policies and local dynamics. In this context, it is considered that the supportive approach of school principals towards teachers will be necessary for Turkish primary schools to reduce the pressure. It is understood that the said supportive environment effectively creates an environment where teachers can better express their contradictory views. It has been reported in our research that paternalistic leadership positively affects teachers' perceptions of organizational dissent. We can interpret this result in two ways. The first is that paternalistic leadership, with its authoritarian dimension, can cause teachers to act in dissent. The second is related to the fact that teachers can feel freer with the supportive approach of school principals. A research result (Croucher, Parrott, Zeng & Gomez, 2014) shows a positive relationship between freedom of speech in the workplace and the dissent expressed to managers. Therefore, the fact that paternalistic leadership increases teachers' perceptions of organizational dissent can be evaluated positively. The fact that the dissent can be made will contribute to the understanding of democratic management in schools.

In this study, several limitations exist. This research is limited to the teachers' perceptions in official primary schools in the central district of Mardin province and eight district centers in the 2016-2017 academic year. Also, research findings are limited to data collected from scales of measurement. It was assumed that the teachers participating in the study were volunteers and sincerely reflected their views while answering the questions in the scales. Future research could investigate the relationships between paternalistic leadership and other organizational variables. Future research can be done at different school levels and by expanding the population. The study is based on teacher perceptions. Future research could be done according to the school principals' perceptions.

Following recommendations can be put forward towards practitioners based on the obtained conclusion. School principals should exhibit a high level of benevolent leadership behaviours that can increase the teachers' organizational creativity levels, such as creating a family environment at school, being tolerant to teachers promoting teachers to take initiatives. Principals should exhibit a high level of moral leadership behaviours that can increase the teachers' organizational creativity levels, such as treating fairly, paying attention to the professional development of teachers, and maintaining harmonious relations with teacher groups of different views. It is contemplated that a strong interaction between teachers and the principal who displays benevolent leadership behaviours will positively reflect on the teachers articulating their dissident opinions openly. For that, though, it is thought that removing the obstacles which block the way to the teachers' freedom of speech is a must. Thus, teachers' organizational identification and dedication levels will increase, the communication between the principals and teachers will

reach a healthy level, and most importantly, teachers' organizational commitment and job satisfaction levels will rise.

School principals should treat fairly when distributing awards to teachers, protect their teachers against the unfair criticisms coming from out of the school, use their authority to profit from it, and not attribute the successes of the teachers to themselves. Principals should include teachers in the decision-making process in matters concerning them; give an opportunity, when necessary, to teachers to question these decisions; and brief all teachers, when necessary, concurrently on judgments concerning them. In addition to those, principals should not expect teachers to obey the decisions they made unconditionally and every matter related to school to be under their control. Principals should clearly state the criteria that will be used when considering teachers' opinions by evaluating the applicability of the views suggested together with the teachers through the brainstorming sessions aimed at producing ideas by the teachers. Principals should not take the dissent towards themselves as a threat and struggle to subdue it and should stay away from the kind of behaviours that can lead to discrimination among teachers, such as expecting teachers they trust to support them.

References

Agrell, A., & Gustafson, R. (1994). The team climate inventory (TCI) and group innovation: A psychometric test on a Swedish sample of work groups. *J Occup Organ Psychol,67*(2), 143-151.

Ağalday, B., Özgan, H., & Arslan, M.C. (2014). The perceptions of the administrators working in primary and secondary schools related to the organizational dissent. *Pegem Journal of Education and Instruction*, *4*(3), 35-50.

Amabile, T. M. (1988). A model of creativity and innovation in organizations. In B. Staw and R. Sutton (Eds.), R*esearch in organizational behavior* (pp.123-167.). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Amabile, T. M. (1997). Motivating creativity in organizations: On doing what you love and loving what you do. *California Management Review, 40*(1), 39-58.

Amabile, T. M. (1998). How to kill creativity. *Harvard Business Review, 76*(5), 76-87.

Amabile, T.M., Conti, R., Coon, H., Lazenby, J., & Herron, M. (1996). Assessing the work environment for creativity. *Academy of Management Journal, 39*, 1154-1184.

Amabile, T. M., Schatzel, E., Moneta, G., & Kramer, S. (2004). Leader behaviors and the work environment for creativity: Perceived leader support. *Leadership Quarterly, 15*(1), 5-32.

Anderson, C. M., & Martin, M. M. (1995). Why employees speak to co-workers and bosses: Motives, gender, and organizational satisfaction. *Journal of Business Communication, 32*(3), 249-265.

Andriopoulos, C. (2001). Determinants of organizational creativity: A literature review. *Management Decision, 39*(10), 834-840.

Anwar, H. (2013). Impact of paternalistic leadership on employees' outcome- A study on the banking sector of Pakistan. *IOSR Journal of Business and Management,7*(6), 109-115.

Anyanwu, C., & Oad, S. (2016). Entrepreneurial leadership and organizational creativity in the collectivist context: The moderating role of emotional intelligence. *International Journal of Management and Administrative Sciences, 4*(2), 1-12.

Aycan, Z. (2001). Human resource management in Turkey: Current issues and future challenges. *International Journal of Manpower, 22*(3),252-260.

Aycan, Z. (2006). Paternalism: Towards conceptual refinement and operationalization. In K. S. Yang, K. K. Hwang and Kim (Eds.), *Scientific advances in indigenous psychologies: Empirical,*

philosophical, and cultural contributions (pp. 445-466). London: Sage Ltd.

Aycan, Z., & Fikret-Paşa, S. (2003). Career choices, job selection criteria, and leadership preferences in a transitional nation: The case of Turkey. *Journal of Career Development, 30*(2), 29-144.

Aycan, Z., & Kanungo, R.N. (2000). Toplumsal kültürün kurumsal kültür ve insan kaynakları uygulamaları üzerine etkileri (in Turkish). Aycan, Z. (ed.). *Akademisyenler ve profesyoneller bakış açısıyla Türkiye'de yönetim, liderlik ve insan kaynakları uygulamaları* (ss: 25-57). Ankara: Türk Psikologlar Derneği Yayınları.

Aycan, Z., Kanungo, R. N., & Sinha, J.B.P. (1999). Organizational culture and human resource management practices: The model of culture fit. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 30*(4), 501-516.

Aycan, Z., Kanungo, R.N., Mendonca, M. Yu, K., Deller, J. Stahl, G., & Kurshid, A. (2000). Impact of culture on human resource management practices: A ten country comparison. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 49*(1),192-220.

Aydıntan, B. (2016). Relationship between emotional intelligence and paternalistic leadership: A field study on the Turkish university students. *International Journal of Business and Management Invention, 5*(12), 98-102.

Atwater, L., & Carmeli, A. (2009). Leader-member exchange, feelings of energy and involvement in creative work. *The Leadership Quarterly, 20*(3), 264-275.

Basadur, M. (1997). Organizational development interventions for enhancing creativity in the workplace. *Journal of Creative Behavior, 31*(1), 52-97.

Bell-Robinson, V.D. (2016). *Exploring the relationship between self-efficacy and dissent among college student organizational members: A mixed-methods study* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). Department of Educational Leadership, Miami University.

Bharadwaj, S., & Menon, A. (2000). Making innovation happen in organizations: Individual creativity mechanism, organizational creativity mechanism or both? *Journal of Product Innovation Management, 17*, 424-434.

Bouda, D. (2015). *The expression of organizational dissent among sub-saharan African student migrants in the United States* (Unpublished master's thesis). Minnesota State University.

Burns, T., & Wagner, C. (2013). *Organizational dissent: A form of feedback. NASSP Principal Leadership, 14*(4) 28-32.

Cansoy, R., Polatcan, M., & Parlar, H. (2020). Paternalistic school principal behaviours and teachers' participation in decision making: The intermediary role of teachers' trust in principals. *Research in Educational Administration & Leadership*, *5*(2), 553-584. doi: 10.30828/real/2020.2.8

Cheng, B.S. (1995). The relationship between parent's authority and leadership behaviors: A case study of president of a Taiwanese enterprise.*Report on Special Topics*, National Science Committee.

Cheng, B.S., Chou, L.F., & Farh, J. L. (2000). Paternalistic leadership scale: Construction, and measure of a triple model. *Indigenous Psychology Journal, 14*, 3-64.

Cheng, B. S., Chou, L. F., Wu, T. Y., Huang, M. P., & Farh, J. L. (2004). Paternalistic leadership and subordinate responses: Establishing a leadership model in Chinese organizations. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology, 7*, 89-117.

Chou, H.J. (2012). Effects of paternalistic leadership on job satisfaction: Regulatory focus as the mediator. *The International Journal of Organizational Innovation, 4*(4), 62-85.

Cerit, Y. (2012). The relationship between paternalistic leadership and satisfaction from administrator and work. *Ondokuz Mayıs University Journal of Education Faculty*, *31*(2), 35-56.

Cerit, Y. (2013). The relationship between paternalistic leadership and bullying behaviours towards classroom teachers. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice,13*(2), 839-851.

Cerit, Y., Özdemir, T., & Akgün, N. (2011). Classroom teachers' opinions toward primary school principal fulfilment of paternalistic leadership behaviors in terms of some demographic variables. *AIBU Journal of the Faculty of Education, 11*(1), 87-99.

Chen, X.P., Eberly, M.B., Chiang, T.J., Farh, J.L., & Cheng, B.S. (2011). Affective trust in Chinese leader: Linking paternalistic leadership to employee performance. *Journal of Management, 40*(3), 796-819.

Chou, H.J. (2012). Effects of paternalistic leadership on job satisfaction: Regulatory focus as the mediator. *The International Journal of Organizational Innovation*, 4(4), 62-85.

Croucher, S. M., Parrott, K., Zeng, C., & Gomez, O. (2014) A cross-cultural analysis of organizational dissent and workplace freedom in five European economies. *Communication Studies, 65*(3), 298-313, doi: 10.1080/10510974.2013.811430

Çalışkan, S.C. (2010). The interaction between paternalistic leadership style, organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior: A study from Turkey. *China-USA Business Review, 9*(10), 67-80.

Çavuş, M.F. (2006). *An application in manufacturing industry on the effects of organizational creativity andinnovativeness of employee empowerment applications in companies* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). Selçuk University Social Science Institute, Konya.

Çelik, Z., Yurdakul, S., Bozgeyikli, H., & Gümüş, S. (2017). *Eğitime bakış 2017: İzleme ve değerlendirme raporu (in Turkish)*. Ankara: Eğitim-Bir-Sen Stratejik Araştırmalar Merkezi.

Dağlı, A. (2015). Adaptation of organizational dissent scale into Turkish language: The study of validity and reliability. *Electronic Journal of Social Sciences, 14*(53), 198-218.

Dağlı, A. (2017). Investigating the relationship between organizational dissent and life satisfaction. *Universal Journal of Educational Research, 5*(4), 600-607.

Dağlı, A., & Ağalday, B. (2014a). The opinions of the teachers related to the types of organizational dissident behaviours. *Electronic Journal of Social Sciences*, *13*(50),112-128.

Dağlı, A., & Ağalday, B. (2014b). The opinions of the teachers related to the effects of organizational dissent. *The Journal of Academic Social Sciences, 2*(1), 170-182.

Dağlı, A., & Ağalday, B. (2015). The opinions of the teachers related to the causes of organizational dissent. *Elementary Education Online*, *14*(3), 885-898.

Dağlı, A., & Ağalday, B. (2017). *Developing a headmasters' paternalistic leadership behaviours scale in Turkey. Journal of Education and Practice, 8(30), 190-200.*

De Nobile, J.J., &McCormick, N. (2008). Organizational communication and job satisfaction in Australian Catholic primary schools. *Educational Management and Leadership*, *36*(1), 101-122.

Develi, N. (2008). Family enterprises, management and organization problems encountered in family enterprises: Mersin case. *Pamukkale University School of Social Sciences*, *3*(45), 23-45.

Dimmock, C. (1999). The management of dilemmas in school restructuring: A case analysis. *School Leadership and Management, 19*, 97-113.

Einsteine, P., & Hwang, K. P. (2007). An appraisal for determinants of organizational creativity and impacts on innovative behavior. *Proceedings of the 13th Asia Pacific Management Conference,* Melbourne, Australia, 1041-1055.

Ekmen, F., & Okçu, V. (2021). The relationship between paternalistic leadership behaviors of school administrators and pre-school teachers' job satisfaction, *8*(6), 142-164. doi:10.46827/ejes.v8i6.3776

Ekvall, G. (1996). Organizational climate for creativity and innovation. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 5*(1), 105-123.

Ekvall, G., & Ryhammar, L. (1998). Leadership style, social climate and organizationaloutcomes: A study of a Swedish University College. *Creativity and Innovation Management, 7*(3), 126-130.

Erben, G. S. (2004). Toplumsal kültür aile kültürü etkileşimi bağlamında paternalizm boyutuyla işletme kültürü: Türkiye örneği (in Turkish). 1. *Aile İşletmeleri Kongresi,* (17-18 Nisan), (Ed.: Koçel, T.), İstanbul: İstanbul Kültür Üniversitesi Yayınları: 345-356.

Erben, G. S., & Güneşer, A.B. (2008). The relationship between paternalistic leadership and organizational commitment: Investigating the role of climate regarding ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *82*, 955-968.

Ersoy, N.C., Born, M., Derous, E., &Molen, H.T. (2012). The effect of cultural orientation and leadership style on self-versus other-oriented organizational citizenship behaviour in Turkey and the Netherlands. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology, 15,* 249-260.

Farh, J. L., & Cheng, B.S. (2000). *A cultural analysis of paternalistic leadership in Chinese organizations.* London: Macmillan.

Farh, J.L., Cheng, B.S., Chou, L.F., & Chu, X.P. (2006). Authority and benevolence: Employees' responses to paternalistic leadership in China. In A.S. Tsui, Y. Bian andL. Cheng (Eds.), *China's domestic private firms: Multidisciplinary perspectives on management and performance* (pp.230-260). New York: Sharpe.

Ford, C. R. (1996). A theory of individual creative action in multiple social domain. *Academy of Management Review, 21*(4), 1112-1142.

Fraenkel, W., Wallen, N., & Hyun, E. (2012). *How to design and evaluate research in education.* McGraw-Hill.

Fullan, M. (2002). The change leader. *Educational Leadership, 8,* 16-22.

Gelfand, M.J., Erez, M., & Aycan, Z. (2007). Cross-cultural organizational behavior. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *58*, 479-514.

Gorden, W. I., & Infante, D. A. (1987). Employee rights: Content, argumentativeness verbal aggressiveness and career satisfaction. In C.A.B. Osigweh (Ed.). *Communicating employee*

responsibilities and rights: A modern management mandate (pp. 149-163). Westport, CT: Greenwood.

Gorden, W.I., Infante, D.A., & Graham, E.E. (1988). Corporate conditions conducive to employee voice: A subordinate perspective. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, *1*, 101-111.

Graham, J.W. (1986). Principled organizational dissent: A theoretical essay. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *8*, 1-52.

Gu, Q., Tang, T.L., & Jiang, W. (2015). Does moral leadership enhance employee creativity? Employee identification with leader and leader-member exchange (lmx) in the Chinese context. *J Bus Ethics*, *126*, 513-529.

Gunter, H. M. (2001). *Leaders and leadership in education*. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Hallinger, P. (2003). Leading educational change: Reflections on the practice of instructional and transformational leadership. *Cambridge Journal of Education, 33*, 329-351.

Harris, A. (2004). Editorial: School leadership and school improvement: A simple and a complex relationship. *School Leadership and Management, 24*, 3-5.

Hatipoğlu, Z., Akduman, G., &Demir, B. (2019). The effect of paternalistic leadership style on employee task performance and emotional commitment. *Journal of Business Research*, *11*(1), 279-292. https://doi.org/10.20491/isarder.2019.599

Hayek, M., Novicevic, M. M., Humphreys, J., & Jones, N. (2010). Ending the denial of slavery in management history: Paternalistic leadership of Joseph Emory Davis. *Journal of Management History*, *16*(3), 367-379.

Hegstrom, T.G. (1991). Mimetic and dissent conditions in organizational rhetoric. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, *18*, 141-152.

Hofstede, G. H. (2006). What did Globe really measure? Researchers' minds versus respondents' minds. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *37*(6), 882-896.

Jones, N. (1999). The changing role of the primary school head. *Educational Management and Administration, 27*, 441-451.

Jung, D. I. (2001). Transformational and transactional leadership and their effects on creativity in groups. *Creativity Research Journal, 13*(2), 185-195.

Inandı, Y., & Tunc, B., Yucedaglar, A., & Kilic, S. (2020). The relationship of school administrators' leadership styles with organizational dissent and resistance to change according to perceptions of teachers, *International Online Journal of Educational Sciences, 12*(5), 287-302.

İraz, R. (2010). *Yaratıcılık ve yenilik bağlaminda girişimcilik ve kobiler* (in Turkish). Konya: Çizgi Kitabevi.

Kabasakal, H., &Bodur, M. (1998). Leadership, values, and institutions: The case of Turkey. *Paper presented at Western Academy of Management Conference,* Istanbul, Turkey, June.

Kallio, T. J., & Kallio, K.M. (2011). Organisatornenluovuus: Hypestäkohtiluovuuden mahdollistaviaorganisaatiorakenteita. *LiiketaloustieteellinenAikakauskirja, 11*(1), 33-64.

Karasel, N., Altınay, Z. Altınay, F., & Dağlı, G. (2017).Paternalist leadership style of the organizational trust. *Quality & Quantity International Journal of Methodology,* 1-20. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-017-0580-x.

Kassing, J. W. (1997a). Articulating, antagonizing, and displacing: A model of employee dissent. *CommunicationStudies,48*(4), 311-332.

Kassing, J. W. (1997b). *Development and validation of the organizational dissent scale* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Kent State University.

Kassing, J. W. (1998). Development and validation of the organizational dissent scale. *Management Communication Quarterly, 12*(2), 183-229.

Kassing, J. W. (2000a). Exploring the relationship between workplace freedom of speech, organizational identification, and

employee dissent. *Communication Research Reports*, *17*, 387-396.

Kassing, J. W. (2000b). Investigating the relationship between superior-subordinate relationship quality and employee dissent. *Communication Research Reports, 17*, 58-70.

Kassing, J. W. (2002). Speaking up: Identifying employees' upward dissent strategies. *Management Communication Quarterly, 16*(2), 187-209.

Kim, U. M. (1994). Significance of paternalism and communalism in the occupational welfare system of Korean firms: A national survey. In U. Kim, H.C. Triandis, C. Kagitcibasi, S. Choi, & G. Yoon (Eds.), *Individualism and collectivism: Theory, method and applications* (pp. 251-266). London, England: SAGE.

Kline, R.B. (2011). *Methodology in the social sciences: Principles and practice of structural equation modelling (3rd ed.).* Guilford Press.

Korucuoğlu, T., & Şentürk, İ. (2020). The relationship between organizational political games and organizational dissent. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education, 35*(2), 428-447. doi: 10.16986/HUJE.2018045306

Köksal, O. (2011). An empirical study towards determination of the relationship between paternalism and perceived organizational justice. *Cumhuriyet University Journal of Economics and Administrative Sciences*, *12*(2), 159-170.

Kurt, İ. (2013). A research study on the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee creative work involvement perceptions. *Journal of Social and Human Sciences, 5*(1), 321-330.

Lakomski, G. (2008). Functionally adequate but casually idle: w(h)ither distributed leadership. *Journal of Educational Administration, 46*(2), 159-171.

Leck, J.D., & Saunders, D.M. (1992). Hirschman's loyalty: Attitude or behavior?. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, *5*, 219-230.

Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D. (1999). The relative effects of principal and teacher sources on student engagement with school. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 35*, 679-706.

Leithwood, K., Steinbach, R., & Ryan, S. (1997). Leadership and team learning in secondary schools. *School Leadership and Management, 17*, 303-325.

Martinez, P.G. (2003). Paternalism as a positive form of leader-subordinate exchange: Evidence from Mexico. *Journal of Iberoamerican Academy of Management, 1*, 227-242.

Mayer, R.C., Davis, J.H., & Schoorman, F.D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review, 20*, 709-734.

Mert, P., & Ozgenel, M. (2020). A relational research on paternalist leadership behaviors perceived by teachers and teachers' performance. *Educational Policy Analysis and Strategic Research, 15*(2), 41-60. doi: 10.29329/epasr.2020.251.

Mete, Y. A., & Serin, H. (2015). Relationship between school administrators' paternalist leadership behaviours and teachers' organizational citizenship and organizational cynicism behaviours. *HAYEF Journal of Education, 12*(2), 147.

McKnight, D. H., Cummings, L. L., & Chervany, N. L. (1998). Initial trust formation in new organizational relationships. *Academy of Management Review, 23*, 473-490.

Miller, F.G., & Wertheimer, A. (2007). Facing up to paternalism in research ethics. *Hasting Center Report, 37*(3), 24-34.

Mumford, M. D., & Connelly, M. S. (1999). Leadership. In M. A. Runcove S. R. Pritzker (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of creativity* (pp. 139-146). San Diego: Academic Press.

Mumford, M. D., Ginamaire, M. S., Gaddis, B., & Strange, J. M. (2002). Leading creative people: Orchestrating expertise and relationships. *Leadership Quarterly,13*, 705-750.

Mumford, M.D., & Gustafson, S.B. (1988). Creativity syndrome: Integration, application and innovation. *Psychological Bulletin, 103*, 27-43.

Niu, C.P., Wang, A.C., & Cheng, B.S. (2009). Effectiveness of a moral and benevolent leader: Probing the interactions of the dimensions of paternalistic leadership. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology, 12,* 32-39.

Okçu, V., Ergül, H., & Ekmen, F. (2020). Examining the relationship between the paternalist leadership behaviour of school principals and the levels of organizational trust and motivation, according to the perceptions of teachers (path analysis study). *The Journal of International Social Research, 13*(73), 755-770.

Oldham, G. R., & Cummings, A. (1996). Employee creativity: Personal and contextual factors at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, *39*(3), 607-634.

Oral-Ataç, L. (2015*). The relationship between organizational democracy and organizational dissent: A research on white collars* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). Manisa Celal Bayar University Social Science Institute, Manisa.

Özdemir, M. (2010). *The opinions of administrators and teachers working in public high schools in Ankara province on organizational dissent* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). Ankara University Educational Sciences Institute, Ankara.

Özgenel, M., & Canulansı, R. (2021).The effect of paternalist leadership behaviors of school principals on organizational happiness. *Education & Technology*, *3*(1) 14-31.

Özgenel, M., & Dursun, İ. E. (2020). The effects of school principals' paternalistic leadership behaviours on school culture. *Journal of Social, Human and Administrative Sciences, 3*(4), 284-302.

Paşa, S. F., Kabasakal, H., & Bodur, M. (2001). Society, organizations, and leadership in Turkey. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 50*(4), 559-589.

Pellegrini, E. K., & Scandura, T. A. (2006). Leader-member exchange (LMX), paternalism and delegation in the Turkish business culture: An empirical investigation. *Journal of   International Business Studies*, *37*(2), 264-279.

Pellegrini, E. K., Scandura, T. A., & Jayaraman, V. (2010). Cross-Cultural generalizability of paternalistic leadership: an expansion of leader-member exchange theory (LMX). *Group and Organization Management*, *35*, 391-420.

Pienaar, J., Sieberhagen, C. F., & Mostert, K. (2007). Investigating turnover intentions by role overload, job satisfaction, and social support moderation. *Journal of Industrial Psychology, 33*(2), 62-67.

Redding, S. G. (1990). *The spirit of Chinese capitalism*. New York: Walter de Gruyter & Co.

Redding, W. C. (1985). Rocking boats, blowing whistles, and teaching speech communication. *Communication Education, 34*, 245-258.

Redmond, M. R., Mumford, M. D., & Teach, R. (1993). Putting creativity to work: Effects of leader behavior on subordinate creativity. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *55*, 120-151.

Rehman, M., & Afsar, B. (2012). The impact of paternalistic leadership on organization commitment and organization citizenship behaviour. *Journal of Business Management and Applied Economics, 5*,1-12.

Riaza, M., Junejo, M. A., & Shar, A. H. (2020). Leadership styles: Relationship with organizational dissent and conflict management mediation analysis via Cb-Sem approach. *International Transaction Journal of Engineering, Management, & Applied Sciences & Technologies, 11*(11), 1-12.

Sadykova, G., & Tutar, H. (2014). A study on the relationship between organizationaldemocracy and organizational dissent. *The Journal of Business Science, 2*(1), 1-16.

Sheer, V. C. (2010). Transformational and paternalistic leaderships in Chinese organizations: Construct, predictive, and ecological validities compared in a Hong Kong sample. *Intercultural Communication Studies, 19*(1), 121-140.

Sheer, V. C. (2012). In search of Chinese paternalistic leadership: Conflicting evidence from samples of Mainland China and

Hong Kong's small family businesses. *Management Communication Quarterly*, *27*(1), 34-60.

Schein, E. H. (2004). *Organizational culture and leadership*. C.A., USA: Josey Bass.

Schermelleh-Engel, K., Moosbrugger, H., & Müller, H. (2003). Evaluating the fit of structural equation models: Tests of significance and descriptive goodness-of-fit measures. *Methods of Psychological Research Online, 8(2)*, 23-74.

Scott, S. G., & Bruce, R. A. (1994). Determinants of innovative behavior: A path model of individual innovation in the workplace. *Academy of Management Journal*, *37*(3), 580-607.

Shin, S. J., & Zhou, J. (2003). Transformational leadership, conservation, and creativity: Evidence from Korea. *Academy of Management Journal*, *46,* 703-714.

Sillins, H., & Mulford, B. (2002). Leadership and school results.In K. Leithwood & P. Hallinger (Eds.), *Second International handbook of educational leadership and administration*. (pp. 561-612). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic.

Sternberg, R. J. (2005). A model of educational leadership: Wisdom, intelligence, and creativity synthesized. *International Journal of Leadership in Education: Theory & Practice, 8*, 347-364.

Styhre, A., & Sundgren, M. (2005). *Managing Creativity in Organizations: Critique and Practices*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Taşdemir, İ., & Atalmış, E. H. (2021). Examination of the relationship between paternalistic leadership behaviors and creative leadership traits. *Sakarya University Journal of Education Faculty, 21*(1), 84-103.

Tierney, P., Farmer, S. M., & Graen, G. B. (1999). An examination of leadership and employee creativity: The relevance of traits and relationships. *Personnel Psychology, 52*, 591-620.

Timperley, H. S., & Robinson, V. M. J. (2001). Achieving school improvement through challenging and changing teachers' schema. *Journal of Educational Change, 6*, 227-215.

Uhl-Bien, M., Tiemey, P. S., Graen, G.B., & Wakabayashi, M. (1990). Company paternalism and the hidden investment process: Identification of the "right type" for line managers in leading Japanese organizations. *Group and organization Studies*, *15*, 414-430.

Volmer, J., Spurk, D., & Niessen, C. (2012). Leader-member exchange (LMX), job autonomy, and creative work involvement. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *23*(3), 456-465.

Wang, A. C., & Cheng, B. S. (2010). When does benevolent leadership lead to creativity? The moderating role of creative role identity and job autonomy. *Journal of Organizational Behavior.*

Wang, A. C., Kuo, S. Y., Cheng, B. S., & Tsai, C.Y. (2009). Paternalistic leadership and creativity: The moderating role of leader's gender. *Academy of Management Conference.*

Westwood, R. I. (1997). Harmony and patriarchy: The cultural basis for paternalistic headship among the overseas Chinese. *Organization Studies*, *18*(3), 445-480.

Woodman, R. W., Sawyer, J. E., & Griffin, R. W. (1993). Toward a theory of organizational creativity. *Academy of Management Review*, *18*(2), 293-321.

Yetim, N., & Yetim, Ü. (2006). The cultural orientations of entrepreneurs and employees' job satisfaction: The Turkish small and medium sized enterprises (smes) case. *Social Indicators Research*, *77*(2), 257-286.

Yıldız, K. (2013). The relationship between organizational commitment and organizational cynicism and organizational dissent. *Turkish Studies, 8*(6), 853-879.

Yılmaz, E., & Sünbül, A. M. (2008). Analysing the organizational creativity from the point of employees' alienation levels. *2. International Congress on Entrepreneurship*, Manas University.

Yukl, G. A. (2010). *Leadership in organizations* (7th ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc.

Zhang, Y., Huai, M. Y., & Xie Y. H. (2015). Paternalistic leadership and employee voice in China: A dual process model. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *26*, 25-36.

About the authors:

Bünyamin Ağalday is an assistant professor in the Department of Educational Sciences at Mardin Artuklu University, Turkey. His research interests include educational leadership, educational management, and organizational behavior. He has recently focused on virtuous leadership behaviors and conflict management skills of school principals.

Authorship credit details: Conceptualization- formulation or evolution of overarching research goals and aims. Methodology-development of methodology. Formal analysis- application of statistical techniques to analyze study data. Investigation- conducting a research and investigation process. Resources- provision of study materials. Writing-original draft preparation. Writing- review and editing. **E-mail:** bunyaminagalday@artuklu.edu.tr

Abidin Dağlı is an associate professor of Educational Administration at Dicle University, Turkey. His research interests include educational leadership, organizational behavior. He has recently focused on servant leadership behaviors and favouritism behaviours of school administrators.

Authorship credit details: Conceptualization- formulation or evolution of overarching research goals and aims Methodology-development methodology. Supervision- oversight and leadership responsibility for the research activity planning and execution, Investigation- conducting a research and investigation process, Writing- review and editing. **E-mail:** dagli@dicle.edu.tr

Good School Governance: An Approach to Principal's Decision-Making Quality in Indonesian Vocational School

Didi Supriadi

Universitas Sarjanawiyata Tamansiswa, Yogyakarta, Indonesia

Husaini Usman

Yogyakarta State University, Yogyakarta, Indonesia

Abdul Jabar

Yogyakarta State University, Yogyakarta, Indonesia

Ima Widyastuti

Universitas Sarjanawiyata Tamansiswa, Yogyakarta, Indonesia

Abstract	Article Info
Good school governance is basically about effective principal leadership used to create appropriate processes, systems, and management for ensuring the sustainability and continuity of schools. This research aims to examine the model of good school governance and to establish the correlation between good school governance and the principal's decision-making in Indonesian vocational school contexts. The samples of the present quantitative descriptive study were the vocational school principals, vice-principals, and teachers by considering the representation of all provinces in Indonesia. The data were gathered from a structured questionnaire survey of 838 respondents. The factor analysis was applied to bring out the latent variables representing the attributes, and	

later, the causality between these variables was established using structural equation modeling (SEM). The confirmatory factor analysis has shown that good school governance was constructed by six principles namely transparency, accountability, responsibility, autonomy, fairness, and participation. Empirically, the good school governance has impacted positively on the quality of the principal's decision-making. The research has affirmed that good school governance facilitates the participation of teachers and educational staff in the decision-making process. Furthermore, the good school governance improves the decision-making quality through the empowerment of teachers, the delegation of authority, and the encouragement of shared decision-making.

Introduction

Ideally, vocational high schools are designed to prepare students becoming entrepreneurs or working in a particular field (Altan & Altıntas, 2017). Consequently, the schools are required to collaborate with industrial stakeholders as well as community. Unfortunately, the development of expertise area in vocational education and training institutions is not in line with the market needs. In 2019, the number of unemployed vocational high school graduates reached 8.63% (BPS, 2020). This indicated ineffectiveness of vocational school management in producing qualified graduates. One of the ideas is through decentralization of the school authority.

The shifting authority from the central government to the school level empowers the school stakeholders in school decision-

making. School governance is the autonomy of schools in managing their schools, both human, financial, and material resources in schools (De Grauwe, 2005).The school stakeholders are expected to take appropriate decision based on the factual school conditions (Hopkins, 2012). Consequently, the school principal should support good governance at schools.

Good governance is a process in managing schools for increasing the schools' development and accountability. This is also essential legitimizing schools as institutions (Balarin et al., 2008). School governance exists to enhance the quality of producing the effective school governance performance (Lingard et al., 2002). This is a set of responsibilities, practices, policies, and procedures carried out by an institution in providing strategic direction for ensuring of goals achievement and responsible, accountable and transparent use of resources (Risteska et al., 2010). This means that implementing the good school governance will increase the level of participation, accountability, and transparency of a vocational school as well as the level of effectiveness of school management.

Some research show that improving the quality of teaching and learning highly depends on the quality of leadership. The leader's level of positivity and transparency impacted followers' perceived trust (Norman et al., 2010). This means that the leadership practices are related to the perspectives of various school stakeholders. Principles of decentralization afford principals autonomy and discretion in determining school practices and innovative leadership (Lukas & Jankovic, 2014). Some delegate to the subordinates, however, others restrict the authority delegation on decision-making and tend to follow the logic of a quick-fix approach (Freitas & Freitas, 2020). In private schools, for example, leadership

exhibits more autonomy in influencing school-level policies (Shakeel & DeAngelis, 2017). In addition, the principals mobilize diverse essential resources for school efficacy and develop partnerships with external agencies that can contribute to school efficiency. Consequently, principals can be perceived as having the responsibility to realize the school's interests (Garud et al., 2007). School autonomy is essential but must be accompanied by good governance principles such as strong accountability, clear roles, and responsibilities, clear rules, monitoring and self-evaluation mechanisms that are aimed at school improvement.

Furthermore, decentralization leads to the significant changes at school level. The principals need to change their role and reformulate their way of thinking and acting. As the effect of school governance, teachers must present a set of skills, knowledge, and activities associated with business than traditional education system taking the role of skillful manager on the competitive education market (Kowalczyk & Jakubczak, 2014). Principals are expected to be educational visionaries, instructional and curriculum leaders, assessment experts, disciplinarians, community builders, public relations and communications experts, budget analysts, managers, and program administrators (Kasprzhak & Bysik, 2014). In other words, the principal leadership strategies must be interpreted as the ability to influence and manage others efficiently, effectively, and economically in achieving the goals. Therefore, the objective of the current study is to contribute the knowledge-based effect of good school governance on principals. This is related to the decision-making at the school level. The present study provides knowledge on school good governance which is essential for the school principals in making decision, and reaching transparency, fairness, and accountability of the school management.

Literature Review

School Governance

Governance describes the mechanisms used by an organization to ensure that its constituents follow the established processes and policies (Kefela, 2011). This is the primary determinant for growth, development, and poverty reduction of the organization (Dayanandan, 2013) including school. Governance changes will lead to improved educational outcomes and experiences for students. However, the unclarity strategic reformation of school governance structures will divert focus, energy, and resource away from the overarching attainment priorities (RSE, 2017). School governance refers to process of determining policy and rules at schools by considering the law and the school's budget (Maile, 2002). This encompasses vision, strategy, accountability, trust, capacity, and stakeholder relationships (Leechman et al., 2019).

Good governance means competent management of the resources which are open, transparent, accountable, fair, and responsive to the needs of society (Kefela, 2011: 3995). This can also be considered a new paradigm in public management (Vyas-Doorgapersad & Aktan, 2017). Good governance in education should possess the traits of responsiveness, accountability, transparency, and engagement to design and implement policies (Risteska et al., 2010). Consequently, good school governance requires strong leadership from both school council and principal. The school council and principal must enable to work together. The influential school leaders set direction, develop people, lead change, improve teaching and learning, solve problems, are values-based, build trust, and are visible in the school (Gurr, 2015).

The good governance indicators are applicable in education
and can be adapted to assess the public services governance. The
principles of good school governance generally refer to The United
Nations Development Program (UNDP "Governance and Sustainable
Human Development, 1997"). The present research adopts a set of
principles namely transparency, accountability, responsibility,
autonomy, fairness, and participation (Risteska et al., 2010).

Transparency

Transparency is built to serve easy access on processes,
institutions, and information (Risteska et al., 2010). Basically, the
educational provision can be improved through better management
practices, transparency in resource use, and accountability to all
stakeholders (Abebe, 2012).

Accountability

Accountability is linked to management and concepts of
participation, decentralization, empowerment, and transparency. The
demands of both democracy and efficiency require some form of
accountability at schools in which the political power of the leaders
covers three ways namely enforcement, monitoring, and
answerability (Maile, 2002). The accountability differs depending on
the organization and whether the decision is internal or external
(Risteska et al., 2010). However, the principals should monitor and
provide information to control teachers and hold them accountable
(Hanberger, 2016). Thus, the decision-makers at schools, either
private schools or public schools should be accountable to the public
and institutional stakeholders.

Responsibility

Responsibility refers to the organization's ability to control the running of rules or procedures (Larasati et al., 2018). The schools must make sure that the policy made is responded well by those in charge of.

Autonomy

The shifting authority system to the decentralization system affects the decision-making processes and increases the school autonomy. Consequently, some changes create a new environment at schools (Kowalczyk & Jakubczak, 2014). However, schools autonomy and participatory governance would be significant for schools improvement (Gorgodze, 2016). The schools turn into independence in which the schools are managed professionally according to their respective functions and roles without any pressure (Larasati et al., 2018).

Fairness

Fairness is promoted through equity principle. The rule of law where laws should be fair and enforced impartially to all (Risteska et al., 2010). Fairness points to equal treatment in fulfilling stakeholder rights based on the agreements and regulations. In daily interaction, for instance, school policies do not discriminate among schools members at school (Sitepu, 2016).

Participation

Participation is proved to improve the quality of education and the governance of educational institutions. A research demonstrates the positive relationship among participation, education quality and governance (Oxfam, 2017). All stakeholders

have roles in making decisions, either directly or through representation. Moreover, participation is also closely related to the interaction of educational stakeholders, the community, the business world, and the government.

Principal's Decision Making

The school principals have a prominent responsibility in ensuring all school programs run effectively (Fullan, 2007; Verger et al., 2013). They are mostly elected from either the administrator or the instructional leader. The principals work collaboratively with the other school stakeholders to develop and implement the school plans in finances, teaching and services, internal processes, and development of the organization (Anderson et al., 2019; Mokoena, 2011). This means that they should enable to interpret messages, approaches, and contexts within their school environments (Ingle et al., 2011) and make decisions (Al-Tarawneh, 2011). In other words, the school principals become the prominent school stakeholder in achieving the success of the school performance which is mainly determined by the student academic outcomes and teacher career satisfaction (Kasprzhak & Bysik, 2014; González-Falcón et al., 2019).

Some methods are offered in supporting the school's outstanding performance. Rationally, the school success lays on the school principals since the principal's attitude significantly influences effective and efficient management in educational institutions (Eyal et al., 2011; Mokoena, 2011; Zwijze-Koning & de Jong, 2009). This means that the school principals become the dominant stakeholder who are responsible in ensuring the school performance.

The expert opinion might help in solving poorly structured problems in the management of educational institutions (Meczynska

803

et al., 2014). Furthermore, a tool simulation is set to recognize and reproduce decision-making experiences in a problem-based learning approach (Volante et al., 2020). The decision-making process forces the principals to find various solutions. Those are often highly significant in addressing the needs and demands of the stakeholders such as the teaching and learning materials, time allocation, and assessment, schedule, and budgeting (Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2016; Goldring et al., 2008; Shen & Xia, 2012). Often, the decisions are about the appropriateness of educational programs adopted to the school (Fraser et al., 2018). Thus, the successful principals are those who respond most appropriately towards the problems and situations occurred through decision-making process.

Besides, data-informed decision-making system is also noteworthy for increasing the role of principals in school effectiveness (Shen et al., 2012). The decision support system significantly affects the quality of the principal's decision-making (Supriadi, Usman, & Jabar, 2021). The information system allows the school principals to recognize powers, fears, limitation, and strategies in decision-making process for implementing good governance policies for schools (Tamir et al., 2020). The easy information accessibility is now crucial as in the process of decision-making, it is required active involvement of all stakeholders, namely parents, teachers, students and educational staff. However, practically, the participative decision-making among school principals, teachers, and parents has been challenging to achieve due to the very limited proportion (Mokoena & Machaisa, 2018; Bagarette, 2011). The process of the decision-making is started from identifying a problem, setting a solution approach, testing the idea, and sometimes recognizing a new problem during the testing (Chitpin, 2014).

Good School Governance and Decision Making

The influential factors in the decision makers' behavior and decision-making processes is support processes in fostering the organizational processes to provide the means for and reduce the barriers (OECD, 2013). It is recognized that several school reforms have made the schools difficult to manage. The central government requires the school management to create the conditions needed to achieve national (Smith & Abbott, 2014). The school districts which are under the central government have responsibilities in ensuring both public and private schools are in line with the central school policy. In other words, the relation of the central governance and the division of responsibility among the central, district, schools, and teachers can be regarded as complicated and unclear (Holmgren et al., 2012). Whereas, the comprehensive educational changes should be on the decentralization of structures for broader participation and decision making and the replacement of bureaucratic regulation with professional responsibility and accountability (Walker, 2000).

The decision quality requires a conducive climate of self-governing schools to support the participative decision making, and transparency in school leadership in setting the school policies (Dahawy & Elmelegy, 2010; Naidoo, 2005). As the central government has decentralized the educational system, the more decision-making power in various areas has been distributed to the local school level. The implementation is focused on increasing the responsibility distribution in ensuring the school's effectiveness (Hickey-Gramke & Whaley, 2007). Consequently, the principals have more rights and responsibilities to the school stakeholders.

The good school governance leads in improving the quality of decisions and effectiveness. The quality of decision refers to a

805

decision taken consistently to the school goals. This means that the implementation of the decision is influenced by the degree to which group members understand and support the decision (Vroom, 2003). School supervisor, principals, and other leaders engage in strategic decision-making when they set the broad goals (Brazer et al., 2010) and should consider the impacts on the students' lives (Bäckman & Trafford, 2007). The school principals' power is reflected on how much power the principals have in various decision-making areas for the school improvement. The school improvement should be based on flexibility, persistent optimism, motivating attitudes and dispositions, and commitment through teacher empowerment (Leithwood et al., 2008).

The principal's decision-making power could be constrained by the teachers, school board, and central government. If the principals increasingly reach accountable performance for the educational quality improvement, principals will gain more responsibilities, influence, and power within schools (Shen & Xia, 2012). The principals' roles has been expanded for increasing the accountability and decentralization and dominated in the decision-making process (Mokoena & Machaisa, 2018). However, the shared decision-making of the central government to schools improves the problem-solving capabilities of teachers, and decisions become conscious and well-reasoned choices (Wildy et al., 2004).

The teachers and parents are allowed to make decisions on some issues at school, for example on the school funding. In other words, the participative decision-making may increase human capital (Widanto & Satrya, 2019). The participative decision making is commonly set through goal setting, locus of knowledge, involvement in generating alternatives, planning and evaluating results, task

strategy formulation, and co-operative problem solving for reaching positive results (Vroom, 2003). The participative decision-making practices are chosen due to the decrease of ambiguity role and conflict as well as the school performance improvement (Elmelegy, 2015). Frequently, the school principals also request assistances from the school supervisors and the local educational authorities depending on their influence at schools. Accordingly, the school principals enable to control the external agencies involvement at schools and strengthen the power of the central educational authority (Addi-Raccah, 2015).

Theoretical Framework

The present study employs the theory of management system which is emphasized on the effective management of vocational schools. The governance perspective draws upon systems theory, theories of inter-organizational networks, and public management (Ris, 1994). This means that the good governance practices are based on the participation, accountability, transparency, responsiveness, effectiveness and efficiency, justice, and strategic vision. The implementation of good governance at schools is a collaboration among the stakeholders namely school, community, and government to improve the education quality.

The good governance praxis should be applied in school-based management. This provides greater autonomy to schools and encourages participatory decision-making from all school members specifically teachers, students, principals, employees, parents of students, and community. In other words, the effective governance is one of the keys in achieving the educational objectives because it comprises the responsibilities of all stakeholders (Nimota & Kadir,

807

2019). In this regard, the school principals play significant roles in allocating the resources and implementing the programs required to achieve the educational objectives.

The principles of good school governance improve decision-making quality through empowerment of teachers, delegation of authority, and encouragement of shared decision-making. This means that the stronger the implementation of good school governance, the stronger the relationship of rationalization with the principal's decision-making. The current research has the following hypothesis.

H1: Good school governance is positively related to the principal's decision making.

Figure 1.

Modeling of the Good School Governance Effects on Principal's Decision Making
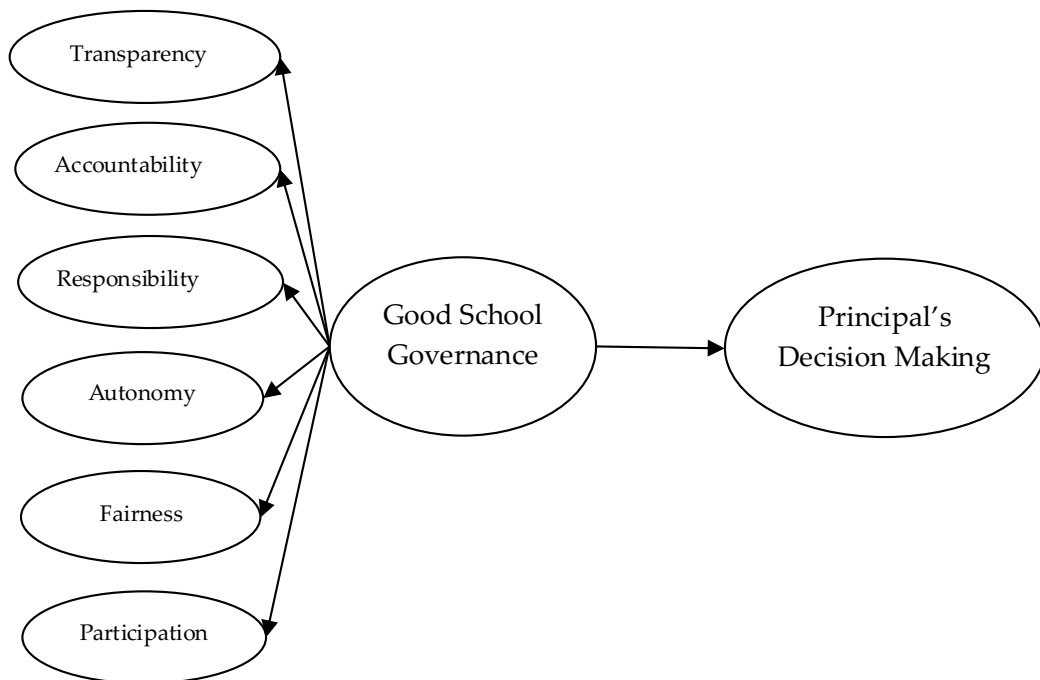
Method

The current study employed a quantitative method approach. This provides data for generalization (Creswell, 2008). In addition, the study applied a correlational design on the influence of good school governance implementation in principals' decision-making in vocational schools.

Sample Size

The study sample is 838 of the principal, vice-principal, and teacher of vocational education in Indonesia. The sampling technique used was a purposive sampling by taking the representation of all provinces in Indonesia.

Data Collection Procedures

This present research area directly observed the objects under review to obtain the relevant data. The data was collected by sending a series of questions to the respondents in both online and offline. The online version was distributed through online media to the respondents. Meanwhile, the offline survey was done by visiting some vocational schools in seven provinces of Indonesia, namely; Sumatera Island, Java Island, Kalimantan Island, Sulawesi Island, Nusa Tenggara, Maluku, and Papua Island.

Data Collection Instruments

The principal decision making was a latent endogenous variable. It is measured by three sub dimensions (Gao et al., 2018; Nimota & Kadir, 2019) since the focus of the present study is the principals decision-making. The measurement indicates the stakeholder involvement in decision making, policy making, and agreement results with stakeholders in decision making (Kasprzhak

et al., 2015; Shen et al., 2012; Goldring et al., 2008). Therefore, the concept of principal leadership in decision making is defined by considering the empirical literature and the principal reviews on the stakeholder involvement.

The school governance is an exogenous latent variable and measured by six aspects namely; transparency, accountability, responsibility, autonomy, fairness, and participation (Risteska et al., 2010); OECD, 2013). All items were measured using a 4-point scale, ranging from 1 = Very Bad. 2 = Not Good, 3 = Good, and 4 = Very Good.

The instrument used must be appraising, valid, and reliable. The decision-making instrument's reliability index from Nimota & Kadir (2019) study was 0.76. The good governance instrument's reliability index from Pomeranz & Stedman (2020) study was 0.88. The instrument used in the study was tested for validity and reliability using Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Cronbach's Alpha (Davcik, 2014). Here is the validity and reliability test results of the two current research variables: the principal's decision making and the school governance.

Table 1.

Validity and Reliability Testing

Items	Factor Loadings						
	Transparency	Accountability	Responsibility	Autonomy	Fairness	Participation	Principals Decision Making
A.1	0.659						
A.2	0.627						
A.3	0.520						
B.1		0.723					
B.2		0.695					
B.3		0.712					
C.1			0.675				
C.2			0.673				
C.3			0.724				
D.1				0.509			
D.2				0.534			
D.3				0.610			
E.1					0.638		
E.2					0.578		
E.3					0.666		
F.1						0.668	
F.2						0.505	
F.3						0.518	
G.3							0.822
G.2							0.960
G.1							0.919
Cronbach's Alpha	*0.716*	*0.828*	*0.880*	*0.854*	*0.770*	*0.775*	*0.926*

A variable item passes a validity test if its factor loadings are above 0.70 (Hair et al., 2014). Table 1 shows that the factor loadings values of the two variables ranged from 0.626 to 0.902. This identifies that the variable items of the present study are valid. Besides, Cronbach's Alpha was also applied to test the reliability of the current research variables. The minimum requirement values of the reliability of the research variables are more than 0.70 (Ariola, 2007).

Statistical Tools for Data Analysis

The researcher operated the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) using AMOS software for analyzing the data. Structural equation models with unobservable variables are a dominant research paradigm in the management community, even though it originates from the psychometric (Davcik, 2014). SEM is a statistical methodology that undertakes a multivariate analysis of multi-causal relationships. This technique enables the researcher to assess and interpret complex, interrelated dependence relationships and includes the measurement error on the structural coefficients (Henseler et al., 2009).

Findings

The current research consists of 21 items on the principal's decision making and 18 items on the school governance. The responses result of the 838 respondents is displayed below.

Table 2.

Statistic Descriptive of Items Questionnaire

Item	Statement	Number of Respondents				Mean	Std. Dev
		1	2	3	4		
A.1	Reports on work programs and school performance achievements	6	39	645	139	3.11	0.48
A.2	Teacher and education personnel recruitment system	5	40	619	174	3.15	0.51
A.3	New student recruitment system	1	10	435	392	3.45	0.53
B.1	The function of elements in the school organizational structure	7	42	686	103	3.06	0.45
B.2	Management of funds from the community	7	40	624	167	3.13	0.51
B.3	Implementation of vocational work programs	4	32	675	127	3.10	0.45
C.1	Compliance with applicable laws and regulations	3	8	562	265	3.30	0.50
C.2	Compliance in carrying out responsibilities to society and the environment	2	11	607	218	3.24	0.47
C.3	Compliance in accounting for all activities carried out to all stakeholders	3	13	595	227	3.25	0.49
D.1	Formulate school budget and expenditure	4	64	631	139	3.08	0.51
D.2	Determine the allocation of school budget allocations	6	67	643	122	3.05	0.5
D.3	Determine student assessment policy	2	50	629	157	3.13	0.49
E.1	Opportunities for recruitment of teachers and staff	4	44	661	129	3.09	0.47
E.2	Opportunities for admission of new students	3	14	570	251	3.28	0.50
E.3	Implementation of rewards	7	45	667	119	3.07	0.47
F.1	Teacher participation in making decisions about school management	5	77	661	95	3.01	0.48
F.2	Parental participation in monitoring student progress	6	183	569	80	2.86	0.57
F.3	Business and industry participation in improving the quality of graduates	15	178	549	96	2.87	0.62
G.1	Stakeholder's involvement in decision making	9	133	601	95	2.93	0.56
G.2	Stakeholder involvement in policy making	11	139	597	91	2.92	0.57
G.3	Agreement results with stakeholders in decision making	13	112	626	87	2.94	0.54

Generally, Table 2 shows that the respondents were assessed pretty good toward the given variable items. The mean values among the two variables were between 2.86 and 3.29. The school governance, which was comprised of 18 items, had the mean values from 2.86 and 3.29. While, the three principals decision-making items supported the mean values ranged from 2.91 to 2.94.

Structural equation modeling (SEM) is defined as the impact of good school governance on the decision-making of the principal. It describes the direct effects of latent variables and the sum of defined variance for each variable (Bayram et al., 2016).

Figure 2.

The Result Analysis of the Structural Equation Modeling
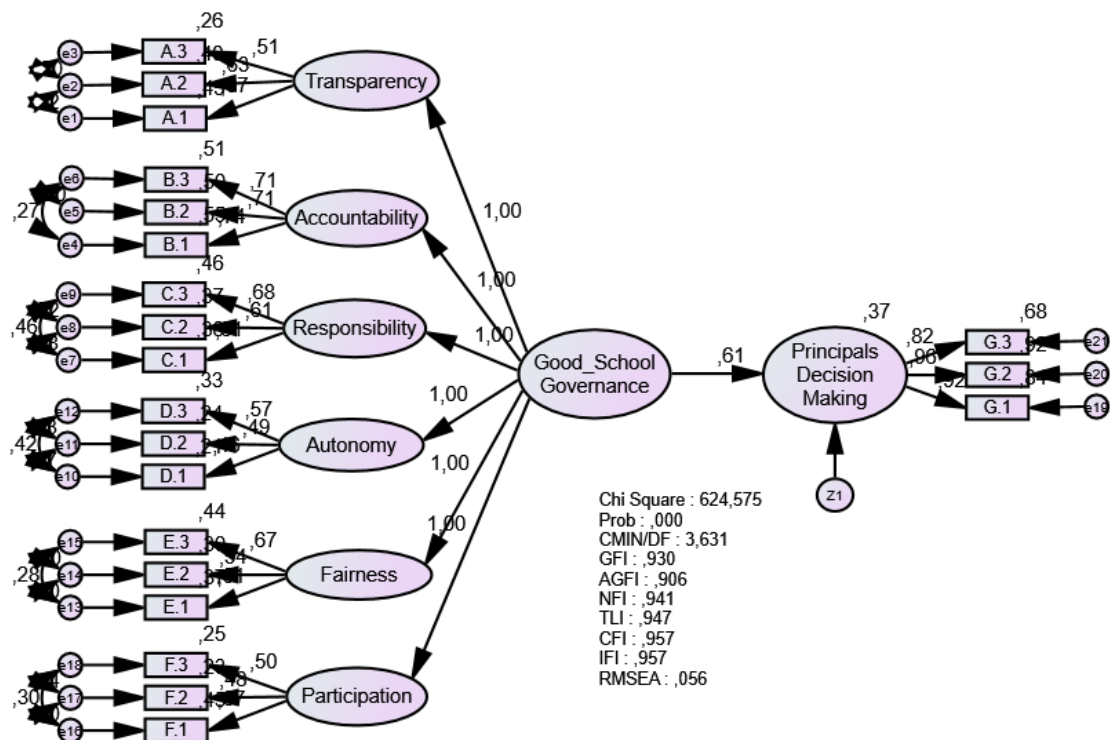
The measurement of the model fit was assessed through well-accepted GOF measures such as the ratio of chi-square to the degrees of freedom (CMIN/df), CFI, GFI, NFI, TLI AGFI, and RMSEA. If the values of CMIN/df below 5 (Byrne, 2016), the model is indicated as a good fit. If the values of GFI, CFI, NFI, TLI, AGFI are above 0.90 and RMSEA is below 0.08, the model are indicated a good fit (Blunch, 2013); Hair et al., 2014). Table 3 shows the results of the good model fit in the current study. It can be seen clearly that values of the measurement models met the standard values.

Table 3.

Goodness-of-Fit Result Modification

Index	Cut Off Value	Analysis Result	Information
Chi Square	Expected to be low	624.575	moderate
Probability	≥ 0.05	0.000	moderate
CMIN/df	≤ 5	3.631	good
CFI	≥ 0.90	0.957	good
NFI	≥ 0.90	0.941	good
GFI	≥ 0.90	0.930	good
AGFI	≥ 0.90	0.906	good
TLI	≥ 0.90	0.947	good
IFI	≥ 0.90	0.957	good
RMSEA	≤ 0.08	0.056	good

Table 3 shows the good fit indices for the simultaneous contribution of each observed and latent variable to the entire model for the theoretical models developed of the causal relationship. The model showed a good overall fit on almost all indices, CMIN/df= 3.631, CFI= 0.957, NFI= 0.941, and GFI= 0.930, RMSEA= 0.056. The root means square error of approximation (RMSEA) is a measure to

815

estimate on how well the population non-centrality index is. The purpose of the RMSEA on an SEM study is to adjust the complexity of the model and sample size. The theory is not for a generally accepted threshold value, but in practice, the RMSEA≤0.08 is established (Davcik, 2014).

Table 4.

Path Coefficients and p Values

Relationship			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Transparency	<---	Good School Governance	1 .000			
Accountability	<---	Good School Governance	1 .031	0 .055	18 .797	0.000
Responsibility	<---	Good School Governance	0 .949	0 .060	15 .772	0.000
Autonomy	<---	Good School Governance	0 .716	0 .059	12 .110	0.000
Fairness	<---	Good School Governance	0 .881	0 .057	15 .585	0.000
Participation	<---	Good School Governance	0 .996	0 .057	17 .375	0.000
Principals Decision Making	<---	Good School Governance	0 .839	0.058	14 .354	0.000

Squared Multiple Correlations: 0.367

As presented in Table 4, the hypothesis test results determined the relationship between each variable in the model. The results verify that the good school governance support positively influences the principals' decision making (H$_1$: estimate= 0.839, S.E = 0.058, C.R = 14.354, and p<0.01). Table 4 shows the square multiple correlation analysis results conducted to determine the extent to which good school governance predicted the principal's decision-making. It was seen that the variable of good school governance

representing the factors of transparency, accountability, responsibility, autonomy, fairness, and participation predicted the principals' decision-making positively. The factors of good school governance noted 36.7% of the change in the principal's decision-making.

Discussion

The findings indicate that the good school governance has a significant relationship with the principals decision-making, which is supported by past research (Elmelegy, 2015). The research has affirmed that the good school governance facilitates the participation of teachers and employees in the decision-making process. In addition, the good school governance increases the quality of decision-making through the participation of teachers, a delegation of authority, and support for shared decision-making.

The study also spotted that the principals welcome to all school stakeholders in participatory decision-making as espoused on the good school governance philosophy. Parents, students, and teachers are involved in the decision making (Claude & Starr, 2014). In this study, there is systematic evidence about the principle of transparency to assist the principal's decision making in improving the quality of the school aspects. Although the central government has granted power and authority to the school level through orders from school boards, it is largely dependent on school principals to encourage and initiate participatory decision-making. The autonomy principle in good school governance help principals address the issues faster. Principal autonomy is more robust in private schools than in public schools (Hanberger, 2016). Due to the fewer political and bureaucratic constraints, the private school principals are likely

817

to have more influence in decision making and enjoy more autonomy in the selection of students and daily administration than the public school (Wilkins, 2015). Since private school principals get less political pressures, they significantly influence the school-level activities. The school principals who have implemented effective school governance, have invited teachers, parents, and community representatives as partners in the decision-making process for the school improvement and student achievement (Bandur & Gamage, 2014).

In this study, the principals are still the dominant decision-maker. This is indicated by the low level of school stakeholders participation at school, for example, the involvement of parents only once at the end of the year (Lingard et al., 2002). The principals decision-making will be better under a good school governance approach in which all school stakeholders contribute relatively in decision-making processes (Mokoena & Machaisa, 2018). In the context of school organizations in Indonesia, this stakeholder participation is accommodated in the school committee. The existence of school committees is legalized on a Decree of the Minister of National Education. This is an advisory role of good school governance, representing cooperation with the school board and the community (Gorgodze, 2016). In Indonesia, there is a support system needed to achieve and implement a good school governance model, namely the Regional Government, in this case, the District Education Office, District Education Council, School Supervisors, Higher Education Institutions for Educators and Education, Business and Industry, and Institutions Education Quality Assurance.

The fundamental principles of the good school governance practices have begun to help schools make the right decisions on the

resources management. It is believed that the good school governance supports the participation of all teachers and staff in the decision-making processes that directly affect their works. In many cases, this means the participation in budgeting, teacher selection, scheduling, curriculum, and other programs (Ismara et al., 2020).

Most previous study had focused on measuring instruments for good governance (Pomeranz & Stedman, 2020), examining good governance issues in secondary schools (Nimota & Kadir, 2019) and describing different systems of school governance and school management examined (Kowalczyk & Jakubczak, 2014). The novelty of the current study is to find a model that describes the implementation of good school governance in improving the decisions quality of the vocational school principals.

Based on the present findings, the implications are:

1) Implementing good school governance as measured by the dimensions of transparency, accountability, responsibility, autonomy, fairness, and participation is quite good, however, the dimensions of participation are not good enough. The low participation implies a lack of stakeholder in supporting the implementation of school governance.

2) Implementing good school governance has a positive and significant effect on the quality of principal decision-making. It means that the higher application of school governance principles will have implications on the decision quality for improving the vocational school performance.

However, limitations in human and financial resources affect on the good school governance implementation in the vocational schools. The challenge in managing educational institutions today is the availability of human resources quality. If the school principals do

not have human relations skills, technical skills, and conceptual skills, the good school government practices will be ineffective. The leadership skill is one of the essential factors in implementing the principles of good school governance. Another is the availability of a budget. It is a crucial indicator for realizing the degree of education quality. The financial limitations in good governance, of course, affect on some areas such as compensation, training, salaries, allowances, facilities, and infrastructure.

The present study recommends the policymakers to distinct the different mechanisms and measures of good school governance for vocational schools and corporates. The vocational schools have to improve good school governance by increasing the participation level.

Conclusion

This study concludes that good school governance was constructed on the principles of transparency, accountability, responsibility, autonomy, fairness, and participation. It is supported by empirical evidence that good school governance has positively impacted the quality of the principal's decision-making. In addition, the research has affirmed that the good school governance facilitates the participation of teachers and educational staff in the decision-making process. Furthermore, the good school governance improves decision-making quality through the empowerment of teachers, the delegation of authority, and the encouragement of shared decision-making.

State University, which have facilitated the researcher during the research process. The researcher's gratitude expression also goes to the research team who were participating during the data collection and the journal article writing processes.

References

Abebe, W. (2012). *School Management and Decision-making in Ethiopian Government Schools* (Issue November).

Addi-Raccah, A. (2015). School principals' role in the interplay between the superintendents and local education authorities: The case of Israel. *Journal of Educational Administration*, *53*(2), 287–306. https://doi.org/10.1108/JEA-10-2012-0107

Al-Tarawneh, H. A. (2011). The Main Factors beyond Decision Making. *Journal of Management Research*, *4*(1). https://doi.org/10.5296/jmr.v4i1.1184

Altan, B. A., & Altıntas, H. O. (2017). Professional Identities of Vocational High School Students and Extracurricular Activities. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, *5*(7), 46. https://doi.org/10.11114/jets.v5i7.2446

Anderson, G., Drone, D., Drouin, C., Kobus, K., Martin, N., Molgat, E., & Pinet, L. (2019). *Good Governance: A Guide for Trustees, School Boards, Directors of Education and Communities*. Ontario Education Services Corporation.

Ariola, M. . (2007). *Principles and Methods of Research*. Rex Book Store.

Bäckman, E., & Trafford, B. (2007). *Democratic Governance of Schools*. Council of Europe Publishing.

Bagarette, N. (2011). Power Relations in School Governing Bodies: Implications for Effective School Governance. *Journal of Social Sciences*, *29*(3), 223–236. https://doi.org/10.1080/09718923.2011.11892973

Balarin, M., Brammer, S., James, C., & McCormack, M. (2008). *The school governance study*. London: Business in the Community.

Bandur, A., & Gamage, D. (2014). How did school councils in Indonesia improve teaching/learning environments and student achievements? *Journal of Applied Research in Education, 18*, 15–28.

Bayram, N., Aydemir, M., & Aral, N. (2016). *A Structural Equation Modeling among Stress, Fear of Negative Evaluation and Decision Making Styles. 5*(10), 41–44.

Blunch, N. (2013). *Introduction to structural equation modeling using IBM SPSS statistics and AMOS.* SAGE Publications Ltd.

BPS. (2020). *Laporan Bulanan Data Sosial Ekonomi 9th ed.*

Brazer, S. D., Rich, W., & Ross, S. A. (2010). Collaborative strategic decision making in school districts. *Journal of Educational Administration, 48*(2), 196–217. https://doi.org/10.1108/09578231011027851

Byrne, B. M. (2016). *Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming* (3rd ed). Routledge.

Chitpin, S. (2014). Principals and the professional learning community: Learning to mobilize knowledge. *International Journal of Educational Management, 28*(2), 215–229. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-04-2013-0044

Claude, J., & Starr, A. K. E. (2014). Systems school leadership: exploring an emerging construct. *Journal of Educational Administration, 52*(6).

Creswell, J. W. (2008). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (3rd ed.). Pearson Education, Inc.

Dahawy, B., & Elmelegy, R. (2010). *Trends of Effective Educational Administration in the Knowledge Society*. Dar Elfekr El-Araby.

Davcik, N. S. (2014). The use and misuse of structural equation modeling in management research: A review and critique. *Journal of Advances in Management Research*, *11*(1), 47–81. https://doi.org/10.1108/JAMR-07-2013-0043

Dayanandan, R. (2013). Good governance practice for better performance of community organizations - myths and realities !! *Journal of Power, Politics & Governance, 1*(1), 10–26.

De Grauwe, A. (2005). Improving the quality of education through schoolbased management: Learning from international experiences. *International Review of Education*, 51(4), 269–287.

Elmelegy, R. I. (2015). School-based management: An approach to decision-making quality in Egyptian general secondary schools. *School Leadership and Management*, *35*(1), 79–96. https://doi.org/10.1080/13632434.2014.962499

Eyal, O., Berkovich, I., & Schwartz, T. (2011). Making the right choices: Ethical judgments among educational leaders. *Journal of Educational Administration*, *49*(4), 396–413. https://doi.org/10.1108/09578231111146470

Fraser, C., Herman, J., Elgie, S., & Childs, R. A. (2018). How school leaders search for and use evidence. *Educational Research*, *60*(4), 390–409. https://doi.org/10.1080/00131881.2018.1533791

Freitas, R. de C., & Freitas, M. do C. D. (2020). Information management in lean office deployment contexts. *International Journal of Lean Six Sigma*. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJLSS-10-2019-0105

Fullan, M. (2007). *The New Meaning of Educational Change*. New Teachers College Press.

Gao, X., Xia, J., Shen, J., & Ma, X. (2018). A Comparison Between U.S. and Chinese Principal Decision-Making Power: A Measurement Perspective Based on PISA 2015. *Chinese Education and Society*, *51*(5), 410–425. https://doi.org/10.1080/10611932.2018.1510691

Garud, R., Hardy, C., & Maguire, S. (2007). Institutional entrepreneurship as embedded agency: An introduction to the special issue. *Organization Studies*, *28*(7), 957–969. https://doi.org/10.1177/0170840607078958

Goldring, E., Huff, J., May, H., & Camburn, E. (2008). School context and individual characteristics: what influences principal practice? *Journal of Educational Administration*, *46*(3), 332–352. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09578230810869275

González-Falcón, I., García-Rodríguez, M. P., Gómez-Hurtado, I., & Carrasco-Macías, M. J. (2019). The importance of principal leadership and context for school success: insights from '(in)visible school.' *School Leadership and Management*. https://doi.org/10.1080/13632434.2019.1612355

Gorgodze, S. (2016). Rise and Fall of Decentralized School Governance--Decision-Making Practices in Georgia. *International Education Studies*, *9*(11), 25–39. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ies.v9n11p25

Gurr, D. (2015). A model of successful school leadership from the international successful school principal project. *Societies*, *5*(1), 136–150.

Hair, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2014). *Primer on Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)*. SAGE Publications.

Hanberger, A. (2016). Evaluation in Local School Governance: A Framework for Analysis. *Education Inquiry*, *7*(3). https://doi.org/10.3402/edui.v7.29914

Henseler, J., Ringle, C., & Sinkovics, R. (2009). The use of partial least squares path modeling in international marketing. *Advances in International Marketing*, *20*, 277–319.

Hickey-Gramke, M. M., & Whaley, D. C. (2007). Essential Elements and Emergent Issues for Alternative Principal Licensing:

Recommendations for Policy Design and Implementation. *AASA Journal of Scholarship & Practice*, *4*(3), 20–25.

Holmgren, M., Johansson, O., Nihlfors, E., & Skott, P. (2012). Local School Governance in Sweden: Boards, Parents, and Democracy. *Journal of School Public Relations*, *33*(1), 8–28. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.3138/jspr.33.1.8

Hopkins, D. (2012). What we have learnt from school improvement about taking educational reform to scale. *School Effectiveness and Improvement Research, Policy and Practice*, *4*(3).

Ingle, K., Rutledge, S., & Bishop, J. (2011). Context matters: Principals' sensemaking of teacher hiring and on-the-job performance. *Journal of Educational Administration*, *49*(5), 579–610. https://doi.org/10.1108/09578231111159557

Ismara, K. I., Khurniawan, A. W., Soeharto, S., Andayani, S., Supriadi, D., & Prianto, E. (2020). Improving the Vocational School Performance Through the Good School Governance. *International Education Studies*, *13*(5), 57. https://doi.org/10.5539/ies.v13n5p57

Kasprzhak, A., & Bysik, N. (2014). Decision-making styles of Russian school principals. *Voprosy Obrazovaniya*, *1*(4), 96–118. https://doi.org/10.17323/1814-9545-2014-4-96-118

Kasprzhak, A. G., Filinov, N. B., Bayburin, R. F., Isaeva, N. V., & Bysik, N. V. (2015). School Principals as Agents of Reform of the Russian Education System. *Russian Education and Society*, *57*(11), 954–978. https://doi.org/10.1080/10609393.2015.1187007

Kefela, G. (2011). Good governance enhance the efficiency and effectiveness public spending -Sub Saharan countries. *African Journal of Business Management*, *5*(11), 3995–3999. https://doi.org/10.5897/AJBM09.111

Kowalczyk, P., & Jakubczak, J. (2014). New Public Management in Education - From School Governance To School Management.

Human Capital without Borders: Knowledge and Learning for Quality of Life, 1281–1288.

Larasati, R., Asnawi, M., & Hafizrianda, Y. (2018). (2018). Analisis penerapan Good University Governance Pada Perguruan Tinggi di Kota Jayapura. *Journal Of Applied Managerial Accounting*, *2*(2), 176–197.

Leechman, G., McCulla, N., & Field, L. (2019). Local school governance and school leadership: practices, processes and pillars. *International Journal of Educational Management*, *33*(7), 1641–1652. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-12-2018-0401

Leithwood, K., Harris, A., & Hopkins, D. (2008). Seven strong claims about successful school leadership. *Leadership and Management*, *28*(1), 27–42. https://doi.org/10.1080/13632434.2019.1596077

Lingard, B., Hayes, D., & Mills, M. (2002). Developments in school-based management: The specific case of Queensland, Australia. *Journal of Educational Administration*, *40*(1), 6–30. https://doi.org/10.1108/09578230210415625

Lukas, M., & Jankovic, B. (2014). Predictive Ability Of Variables Related To The Aspects Of School Principals Management. *SGEM 2014 Scientific SubConference on Psychology And Psychiatry, Sociology And Healthcare, Education*, 657–666. https://doi.org/10.5593/sgemsocial2014/b13/s3.087

Maile, S. (2002). Accountability: an essential aspect of school governance. *South African Journal of Education*, *22*(4), 326–331.

Meczynska, A., Kmieciak, R., Michna, A., & Flajszok, I. (2014). A decision support method for poorly structured problems in school management. *Baltic Journal of Management*, *9*(1), 91–112. https://doi.org/10.1108/BJM-04-2013-0058

Mokoena, S. . (2011). Participative Decision Making: Perceptions of School Stakeholders in South Africa. *Journal of Social Sciences*, *29*(2), 119–131.

Mokoena, S., & Machaisa, R. (2018). More Heads are Better than One: School-Based Decision-Making in Varied School Environments. *Africa Education Review*, *15*(1), 138–156. https://doi.org/10.1080/18146627.2016.1257917

Naidoo, J. P. (2005). *Educational decentralization and school governance in South Africa: From policy to practice*. International Institute for Educational Planning.

Nimota, A. & Kadir, J. (2019). Good Governance Issues in Education System and Management of Secondary Schools inKwara State, Nigeria. *eJEP: eJournal of Education Policy*, Spring(1), 1-14.

Norman, S. M., Avolio, B. J., & Luthans, F. (2010). The impact of positivity and transparency on trust in leaders and their perceived effectiveness. *Leadership Quarterly*, *21*(3), 350–364. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.03.002

OECD. (2013). Strategic Education Governance. *Centre for Educational Research and Innovation*, *53*(9), 1689-1699. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004

Oxfam. (2017). Promoting the participation of stakeholder in educational decision making processes. In *OXfam* (Vol. 15, Issue 3). https://doi.org/10.14704/nq.2017.15.3.1053

Pomeranz, E. F., & Stedman, R. C. (2020). Measuring good governance: piloting an instrument for evaluating good governance principles. *Journal of Environmental Policy & Planning*, *22*(3), 428–440. https://doi.org/10.1080/1523908X.2020.1753181

Risteska, M., Mickovskall, A., & Kraja, M. (2010). *Good governance in education Case studies: Municipalities of Kisela Voda, Kriva Palanka, Vrapchishte, Bitola, Strumica, Shtip, Kicevo and Veles*. Shqipe Gerguri - SEEU.

RSE. (2017). Review of school governance: royal society of edinburgh response to the scottish government's consultation. *Advise Paper*, *17*(1), 1–18.

827

Shakeel, M. D., & DeAngelis, C. A. (2017). Who is More Free? A Comparison of the Decision-Making of Private and Public School Principals. *Journal of School Choice*, *11*(3), 442–457. https://doi.org/10.1080/15582159.2017.1345235

Shapiro, J. P., & Stefkovich, J. A. (2016). Ethical leadership and decision making in education: Applying theoretical perspectives to complex dilemmas: Fourth edition. In *Ethical Leadership and Decision Making in Education: Applying Theoretical Perspectives to Complex Dilemmas: Fourth Edition*. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315773339

Shen, J., Cooley, V. E., Ma, X., Reeves, P. L., Burt, W. L., Rainey, J. M., & Yuan, W. (2012). Data-informed decision making on high-impact strategies: Developing and validating an instrument for principals. *Journal of Experimental Education*, *80*(1), 1–25. https://doi.org/10.1080/00220973.2010.550338

Shen, J., & Xia, J. (2012). The relationship between teachers and principals decision-making power: Is it a win-win situation or a zero-sum game? In *International Journal of Leadership in Education*. https://doi.org/10.1080/13603124.2011.624643

Sitepu, J. A. M. (2016). Penerapan Prinsip-Prinsip Good Corporate Governance Pada PT. Bulan Terang Utama. *Agora*, *4*(1), 192–198.

Smith, P., & Abbott, I. (2014). Local responses to national policy: The contrasting experiences of two Midlands cities to the Academies Act 2010. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, *42*(3), 341–354. https://doi.org/10.1177/1741143214521593

Supriadi, D., Usman, H., & Jabar, C.S.A. (2021). The moderation effect of information systems on vocational high school principal decision-making model. *Cakrawala Pendidikan*, *40*(1), 43–55. https://doi.org/10.21831/cp.v40i1.31268

Tamir, E., Etgar, R., & Peled, D. (2020). Decision-Making Processes Using WhatsApp. *Research in Educational Administration & Leadership*, *5*(1), 100–137. https://doi.org/10.30828/real/2020.1.4

Verger, A., Altinyelken, H., & De Koning, M. (2013). *Global managerial education reforms and teachers: Emerging Policies, Conteroversies and Issues in Developing Contexts*. *November 2015*, 157. https://doi.org/http://hdl.handle.net/11245/1.400271

Volante, P., Jeldres, R., Spero, K., Llorente, C., & Johanek, M. (2020). Simulations for the Learning of Decision Making in Educational Leadership in the Context of the Chilean School System. *Research in Educational Administration & Leadership*, *5*(1), 1–41. https://doi.org/10.30828/real/2020.1.1

Vroom, V. H. (2003). Educating managers for decision making and leadership. *Management Decision*, *41*(10), 968–978. https://doi.org/10.1108/00251740310509490

Walker, M. (2000). Decentralization and Participatory Decision-making: Implementing School- based Management in the Abbott District. *Research Brief*, *1*(1), 11–12.

Widanto, A., & Satrya, A. (2019). The Role of Participative Decision Making and Psychological Ownership in Enhancing Organizational Commitment and Knowledge Sharing Behavior. *The 1st Workshop on Multimedia Education, Learning, Assessment and Its Implementation in Game and Gamification in Conjunction with COMDEV 2018;* https://doi.org/10.4108/eai.26-1-2019.2283200

Wildy, H., Forster, P., Louden, W., & Wallace, J. (2004). The international study of leadership in education: Monitoring decision making by school leaders. *Journal of Educational Administration*, *42*(4), 416–430. https://doi.org/10.1108/09578230410544044

Wilkins, A. (2015). Professionalizing School Governance: The Disciplinary Effects of School Autonomy and Inspection on

the Changing Role of School Governors. *Journal of Education Policy*, *30*(2), 182–200.

Zwijze-Koning, K. H., & de Jong, M. D. T. (2009). Auditing management practices in schools. *International Journal of Educational Management*, *23*(3), 227–236. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540910941739

About the authors:

Didi Supriadi is a lecture in the department of Educational Management at the Sarjanawiyata Tamansiswa University. His research is mostly in the area of school leadership and vocational school development.

Authorship credit details: Conceptualization, formal analysis, writing – draft preparation, writing – review and editing the article.

Email: didi.supriadi@ustjogja.ac.id

Husaini Usman is a Professor in the department of Vocational Education at the Yogyakarta State University. He is an expert and consultant in educational management and school leadership. He also a book author especially educational leadership.

Authorship credit details: Conceptualization, methodology, writing – review and editing the article, supervision.

Email: husaini_usman@uny.ac.id

Cepi Safruddin Abdul Jabar is an Associate Professor in the department of Educational Management at the Yogyakarta State University. He has served as a lecturer educational planning, evaluation of education program, education consultant, and vice dean.

Authorship credit details: Conceptualization, methodology, writing – review and editing the article, supervision.

Email: cepi_safruddin@uny.ac.id

Ima Widyastuti is a lecturer at Universitas Sarjanawiyata Tamansiswa. Her expertise is on education, and second language acquisition

Authorship credit details: writing – review and editing the article.

Email: ima@ustjogja.ac.id

The Role of School Administrators in Organizational Learning Processes

Fatih Şahin

Gazi University, Ankara, Turkey

Abstract	Article Info
This study aims to explore school administrators' perceptions of their roles in organizational learning processes. In this phenomenological study, interviews were conducted with 30 school administrators in Ankara, Turkey. The data obtained through semi-structured interviews were analyzed descriptively and evaluated within organizational learning processes. School administrators' roles in organizational learning processes were examined in three categories: information acquisition, information distribution, and information integration. The results show that school administrators support teachers in acquiring information and focusing on activities that will increase new learnings. Besides, school administrators facilitate disseminating information by engaging in activities that will bring teachers together at school. Moreover, school administrators focus on the school culture to institutionalize new and shared learning and make them permanent by ensuring that shared learnings were repeated frequently with various activities at school. This study contributes to the relevant literature by examining the phenomenon of organizational learning, which is frequently studied as a subject in educational organizations but lacking in organizational learning processes within the scope of the managerial role.	

Introduction

The concept of organizational learning has generated interest in organizations for more than five decades (Cangelosi & Dill, 1965), and it has become a research subject, especially in the 1970s and 1980s (Argyris, 1976; Argyris & Schön, 1978; Fiol & Lyles, 1985; Levitt & March, 1988). However, its principles have influenced organizations in pre-conceptualization times (Wang & Ahmed, 2003). Therefore, with the initial conceptualizations that started especially with Argyris and Schön's (1978, 1996) single-loop and double-loop models, Senge's (1990) Fifth Discipline work, and some other pioneering studies (Fiol & Lyles, 1985; Levitt & March, 1988), organizational learning has been widely accepted. This trend has been continued recently (Oh & Han, 2020; Starbuck, 2017). Furthermore, in recent years, as the positive effects of organizational learning on organizations and group dynamics were seen, interest in this issue increased in many academic fields. This issue has also been studied frequently in educational organizations (Louis & Murphy, 2017).

Organizational learning is a tool that leads the organization to achieve its goals, achieve high performance, and strategic renewal (Crossan, Lane & White, 1999; Park, Lee & Cook, 2019; Silins, Mulford & Zarins, 2002; Vera & Crossan, 2004). In organizations with a high organizational learning culture, job satisfaction is found high, and conversely, staff turnover is determined less experienced (Egan, Yang & Barlett, 2004). Besides, organizational learning makes individuals more confident and competent, thus increasing the organization's

learning capacity, especially educational ones (Collinson & Cook, 2013). Therefore, organizational learning is indispensable if organizations are to produce desired outcomes.

The concept of organizational learning has been widely discussed by educators (Collinson, Cook & Conley, 2006; Fullan, 1995; Kurland, Peretz & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 2010; Leithwood, Leonard & Sharratt, 1998). Schools that care about organizational learning ensure that all school members learn in cooperation and continuously meet organizational needs or expectations through this structure (Silins et al., 2002). Some of these studies suggest that learning schools improve their effectiveness (Demiroglu & Alantas, 2016; Leithwood et al., 1998; Schechter & Qadach, 2012).

Many studies have been conducted in educational organizations, especially on the outputs of organizational learning (Kurland et al., 2010; Silins et al., 2002). However, the specific processes and actions that make up this form of learning have attracted relatively little research interest (Boreham & Morgan, 2004; Imants, 2003). It has been observed that this deficiency, expressed for the study of organizational learning processes in schools, has not been adequately addressed in recent studies (Louis & Murphy, 2017; Qadach, Schechter & Da'as, 2020; Schechter & Qadach, 2012). Especially in Turkey, the small number of studies (Şahin, 2000; Ünal, 2014) addressing organizational learning processes in schools motivated the researcher to work on this issue. In many studies examining organizational learning in schools in Turkey, quantitative studies have usually been conducted to determine the characteristics of the learning organization or the mechanism of organizational learning (Aydemir & Koşar, 2019; Omur & Argon, 2016; Ünal, 2014). Since organizational learning processes (obtaining, interpreting, disseminating, and

835

institutionalizing information) have significant effects on organizational life (Crossan et al., 1999; Huber, 1991), a detailed study of this phenomenon with a process approach can enrich our understanding.

It is not easy to fully understand the dialectical interactive processes of organizational learning in educational organizations and implement these processes in schools (Fullan, 1995; Schechter & Qadach, 2012). Fullan (1995) stated that learning organization was a distant dream in the context of teacher roles. In the school context, the current study focused on school administrators' role in organizational learning processes. Educational leadership influences school culture and climate, teaching and learning, trust and caring, which in turn affects student outcomes (Gurr & Drysdale, 2018; Louis & Murphy, 2017). The opinions of the school administrators were used in the study, as they play an essential role in transforming individual learning into collective learning (Silins et al., 2002; Swart & Harcup, 2013). The following research question was posed to explore this issue further:

> What role do school administrators play in transforming information from acquisition to institutionalization in their schools?

Literature Review

In this section, firstly, the theoretical and conceptual framework of organizational learning was presented. Afterward, organizational learning processes were explained. Finally, organizational learning in schools and the importance of leadership in organizational learning were discussed.

Organizational Learning

We are involved in a learning activity at every moment of our lives. The rapid changes around us force us to learn (Schein, 1993). Some of these learnings occur at the individual level, some at the group level, and some at the organizational level (Collinson & Cook, 2007; Collinson et al., 2006; Crossan et al., 1999; Schilling & Kluge, 2009).

While cognitive structures are helpful in individual learning, sociocultural structures (Boreham & Morgan, 2004; Cook & Yanow, 1993) or social processes are more effective in group or organizational level learning (Schechter & Feldman, 2010). However, the idea that all learnings are provided as a result of individual thinking or questioning and transferred to group or organization level (Argyris, 1995; Collinson & Cook, 2013; Fauske & Raybould, 2005) makes individual learning an essential part of collective learning (Leithwood et al., 1998). Furthermore, Wang and Ahmed (2003) claim that individual learning significantly impacts organizational learning practices.

Organizational learning occurs by transferring personal knowledge or learning to group or organizational levels (Argote, 2013; Collinson & Cook, 2007). Cook and Yanow (1993) stated that individual action capacity should be transformed into group action to provide organizational learning. For this, it is crucial to have a shared culture (Cook & Yanow, 1993) that holds the group together, develop a shared understanding, and has leadership that supports organizational learning (Vera & Crossan, 2004). Furthermore, for an organization to learn, its collective activity must have a common goal; without this, it is challenging to create a unitary entity defined as organizational learning (Boreham & Morgan, 2004). It can also be stated that the process of dialogue that increases the interaction among members is also essential in organizational learning (Schein, 1993).

Moreover, Fiol and Lyles (1985) addressed four contextual factors that made organizational learning possible: a culture of collaborative learning, organizational strategies that allow flexibility, organizational structures and environments that allow innovation, and new ideas.

Organizational learning is a collective activity. Collective learning is that individuals learn something from others and develop a shared meaning in the learning process. Collective learning is a dynamic and cumulative process and emphasizes social interaction (Garavan & McCarthy, 2008). Although it is clear that organizational learning is a collective learning activity, due to a well-developed literature structure on organizational learning, the term has multiple definitions (Collinson et al., 2006).

Fiol and Lyles (1985) define organizational learning as developing organizational action where better knowledge and understanding occur. According to Argyris (1995), organizational learning occurs when incompatibilities identified and corrected in an organization, or when a match is achieved for the first time between the purpose and results. Popova-Nowak and Cseh (2015) define organizational learning as a social process in which individuals in the organization participate in collective practices and discourses where organizational information is reproduced. This information is simultaneously expanded. Collinson and Cook (2007) define organizational learning to use individual, group, and systemic learning to place new ideas and practices that will continuously renew and transform the organization to achieve common goals. Louis (2006) defines organizational learning as obtaining and sharing information through social processes to change its understanding and practices. According to Schilling and Kluge (2009), organizational learning reflects individual or group learning experiences on organizational

routines, processes, and organizational structure. Argote (2013) defines organizational learning as a change in organizational knowledge due to organizational actions.

Organizational Learning Processes

Although there are similar aspects, different classifications have been made in the literature regarding organizational learning processes. It is seen that data, information or knowledge is expressed as an essential component in all these processes. According to Marks and Louis (1999), learning cannot occur without a knowledge base and access to new ideas. Huber (1991) categorized these processes as acquiring, disseminating and interpreting information, and organizational memory. Crossan et al. (1999) classified the processes as intuition, interpretation, integration, and institutionalization. Firstly, there must be pre-existing or produced information; secondly, this information should be shared among the group members. Thirdly, this information should be evaluated among the group members, and finally, this information should be integrated into the organization. Schilling and Kluge (2009) discussed organizational learning in three processes: obtaining, interpreting, and storing information. Schechter and Qadach (2012) stated that organizational learning consists of five interactive cyclic processes: obtaining, sharing, interpreting, storing, and recalling them for organizational processes. In this study, organizational learning processes are considered in three dimensions as (1) information acquisition process, (2) information distribution process, and (3) information integration (or institutionalization) process by taking advantage of relevant literature and participant opinions.

Information Acquisition (or Production) Process

At the individual level, the information acquisition process is a cognitive process that initiates organizational learning (Schechter & Qadach, 2012). In this process, information can exist from the organization's establishment, or it can be created through experience or representative (social) learning. Information can also be gained through organizational environmental awareness or research into the environment (Huber, 1991; Schechter & Qadach, 2013). It is expected that the source of information will be reliable and that there will be a social trust in the environment in which information is created for organizational learning to occur through information transferred from outside to the organization. It is a complicated process for an individual or an organization to come out of the personal zone and interact with an individual or environment outside the organization and request information, which requires social trust (Andrews & Delahaye, 2000). The organization can also gain new information through the recruitment of individuals who will benefit the organization and have the capacity to carry new information (Huber, 1991). Besides, it can be argued that conflicts of ideas among individuals in the organization can facilitate new information formation (Argote, 2013).

Information Distribution (or Sharing) Process

In this process, existing or produced information is shared and clarified between the members (Crossan et al., 1999). Through sharing information, individual learning becomes collective learning (Collinson & Cook, 2013). When information is not shared within the organization, what is known is unknown (Huber, 1991). Therefore, sharing information and the dialogues that initiate this process are essential in the organization (Schein, 1993). In this process, the

organization shares information in its subsystems and among its members in different ways such as letters, notes, informal interviews, reports, telephone calls, fax, e-mail, computerized conference systems, electronic meetings, document management systems. In interpreting information, meaning is given to the shared information (Schechter & Qadach, 2012). Language plays a vital role in making sense of information. In organizations, this process is a social activity that creates and organizes a common language, clarifies cognitive maps, and develops shared meaning and understanding (Crossan et al., 1999). Through information sharing, the organization has the opportunity to evaluate its learning. That may also provide new learning to contribute to information production (Huber, 1991).

Information Integration (or Institutionalization) Process

It can be argued that in the information integration process, information is stored in the memory of the organization so that it can be used in the future. Institutionalized information becomes independent from individual or group level learning (Crossan et al., 1999). In this process, information is placed in the organization's routines, and even if people leave the organization or despite all this time spent, this information continues to exist (Crossan et al., 1999; Levitt & March, 1988). Schechter and Qadach (2012) explained this process with organizational memory and mentioned organic and structured memory types. Organic memory is formed by individuals in the organization and represents the memory that originates from organizational culture. It is possible to consider the expected roles and behaviors in the organization and environmental factors affecting the organization within the scope of organic memory. Structured memory represents corporate memory and consists of consciously designed,

841

carefully protected, and stored information. Organization records, electronic databases, and archives can be evaluated within this scope.

Organizational Learning in Schools

While educational organizations need to be more frequently associated with learning because of their nature, and while pioneering work on organizational learning should be carried out in these organizations, unexpectedly pioneering studies have been carried out in other organizations (Argote, 2013; Argyris, 1995; Cook & Yanow, 1993; Crossan et al., 1999; Fiol & Lyles, 1985; Huber, 1991; Levitt & March, 1988; Schilling & Kluge, 2009). Later, with the expansion of organizational learning literature, this issue has been studied in educational organizations. Leithwood et al. (1998) tried to create a framework for educational organizations using concepts related to organizational learning produced in non-educational organizations. Pedder and McBeath (2008) stated that Argyris and Schön's (1978, 1996) concept of double-loop learning is based on a social learning process that allows teachers and students to explore and challenge the beliefs or information that shape their practices and the practices of their schools.

School is a system with social-cognitive features and structural-technical features, and one of the theoretical models reflecting this structure of the school is organizational learning (Fauske & Raybould, 2005). Educational organizations were seen as social communities specializing in speed and efficiency in producing and transferring knowledge (Garcia-Morales, Lopez-Martin & Llamas-Sánchez, 2006). Organizational learning has been conceptualized as a critical component of school effectiveness, especially in the light of growing knowledge in today's societies (Schechter & Qadach, 2012).

Organizational learning provides a sustainable path for change in schools and the opportunity for continuous renewal from within (Collinson et al., 2006). According to Schechter and Atarchi (2014), schools should develop collective learning activities and processes that can nurture new and diverse knowledge bases of teachers and foster their shared belief in their abilities to keep up with dynamic and uncertain environments.

To effectively carry out educational reforms, it is necessary to improve teachers' collective capacities alongside their capacities. In particular, it is necessary to develop a collective capacity to encourage student success. These happen quickly through professional learning communities. All school members, especially teachers, actively participate in school initiatives, and the organizational learning literature offers deep insights into these connections (Stoll, Bolam, McMahon, Wallace & Thomas, 2006).

School Leadership and Organizational Learning

School leadership is an essential criterion in understanding school dynamics. It is claimed that the success of schools depends mainly on school leaders (Kurland et al., 2010). Recent studies have revealed that a leadership approach focused on learning directly or indirectly affects the teachers' instructional quality and students' achievements (Bellibaş, Gümüş & Liu, 2020; Qadach et al., 2020; Park et al., 2019). School leadership is effective in creating a learning culture at school (Louis, 2006). School leadership is an essential component in creating a learning school (Kurland et al., 2010; Leithwood et al., 1998). Supportive school leadership positively affects professional learning communities and collective responsibility and affects students' academic achievement by affecting teacher behavior at the group level (Park et al., 2019). Hsiao and Chang's (2011) study found that if school

843

administrators adhered to transformational leadership and did not use an organizational learning strategy, this would have little impact on organizational innovation. On the other hand, the strong instructional leadership of school administrators is effective in establishing learning schools (Qadach et al., 2020). So, the role of school leadership in organizational learning is undeniable. In their study, Collinson et al. (2006, p.110) suggested that school leaders should adhere to the following principles to increase organizational learning in their schools.

- prioritizing learning for all members,

- facilitating the dissemination (sharing) of knowledge, skills, and insights,

- attending to human relationships,

- fostering inquiry,

- enhancing democratic governance, and

- providing for members' self-fulfillment.

Research Context

An element that can impact organizational learning in Turkey is the frequent changes in educational practices. Organizational learning requires going through many processes and allocating sufficient time. However, the production of too much information in educational organizations and their rapid consumption (Fullan, 1995; Silins et al., 2002) and the prevalence of fashionable concepts in educational research (Oplatka, 2009) indicate that organizational learning processes in schools generally do not take place effectively. Much information produced in these organizations cannot be institutionalized. When this issue is evaluated in terms of education

policies and practices, it is believed that Turkey's frequent policy changes prevent permanent educational structures and complicate organizational learning. Rapid changes in education can lead to losses in the organization's memory.

Another element that can impact organizational learning in Turkey is the structure of the education system. The education system in Turkey is highly centralized, and the Ministry of Education has the authority to decide and implement any education policy (Kondakci & Beycioglu, 2019), especially in public schools. Education policies and structural reforms are created by policymakers and senior managers and transmitted to schools as directives. In Turkey, private schools are more autonomous than public schools, so organizational learning processes work more effectively in these schools (Şahin, 2000). It can be argued that this reality limits organizational learning in public schools and reduces innovative initiatives (see Leithwood et al., 1998). Despite all these conditions, it is essential to determine how public school administrators play a role in the organizational learning process in the current political and bureaucratic context.

Methodology

Learning and transferring these learnings to social organizations are human phenomena that create the conditions of human existence (Mengüşoğlu, 2017). Therefore, the phenomenological approach was used in this study to examine organizational learning phenomena in depth. In the study, the researcher examined organizational learning as a feature of social organizations and aimed to reveal the role of school administrators in the emergence of this social phenomenon. Phenomenology investigates the meaning of people's living experiences in existential

or internal concepts. Phenomenological inquiry tries to understand the phenomenon's unique aspects under investigation (van Manen, 2020). According to Patton (2001), the phenomenology approach explores how the individual makes sense of experience and transforms the personal or collective experience into consciousness.

Participants

In pursuit of answers to the research questions, 30 interviews were conducted with one female and 29 male school administrators who participated in a school administrator training program in the Keçiören district of Ankara, Turkey. In this respect, the convenience sampling method has been adopted in the research (Marshall, 1996). Informed consent was obtained from the participants before the interviews. It was stated that any information that could reveal the identity of school administrators would not be shared, and their confidentiality was ensured. Almost all of the participants were male school administrators. It is possible to claim that this low rate reflects the general situation in Turkey. Because this low rate is also seen in the TALİS 2018 report (OECD, 2019). Participants were between the ages of 34 and 60 years (M = 51), and their approximate averages of total service and total service periods in school administration were 27 years and 17 years, respectively.

Data Collection and Analysis

In this study, a semi-structured interview form developed by the researcher was used. Semi-structured interviews are used to reconstruct the subjective theory of the interviewee about the subject under the study (Flick, 2009). In preparing the interview questions, expert opinion was taken, and a language expert provided support to ensure the clarity of the questions. Although there were questions

846

about personal information in the interview form, the researcher did not insist that the participants share their demographic information because it was not intended to make an assessment based on the demographic characteristics of the school administrators. One participant did not specify age information in personal information, 2 participants did not specify total service time, and 1 participant did not specify the total service time in administration, so the average value was assigned for these missing values. There were five main questions about learning processes supported by the literature (Crossan et al., 1999; Huber, 1991; Schechter & Qadach, 2012; Schilling & Kluge, 2009) in the interview form (The last question was not evaluated because it did not define the roles of school administrators in organizational learning processes):

1. What do you do to increase the school members' individual learning at your school?

2. How do you encourage school members to share their individual learnings with others?

3. What do you do to turn the new learnings shared between school members into organizational learnings and sustain these learnings in the school even when the member/s who produced these learnings leave the school?

4. As a school administrator, what do you do to have new learnings, share them with school members and turn them into organizational learnings?

5. What opportunities or barriers do you think are present in your school for obtaining, sharing, and transforming individual learning into organizational learning?

The data were collected in face-to-face interviews with the participants. One of the most effective ways of collecting data about a

phenomenon is the interview technique since it enables interpersonal interaction. This technique has been used throughout history to obtain information (Brinkmann, 2014). Expert opinion, participant confirmation, long-term interaction, and participant's reflections were applied to ensure the credibility of the research (Tracy, 2013). Three field experts were asked to mark 'Appropriate' or 'Not Appropriate' for each code generated by the researcher. The compliance between the scores given by the three experts was examined. Kappa coefficient was calculated using the address http://justusrandolph.net/kappa/. As a result of the calculation, the reliability of the study was calculated as 89%. Landis and Koch (1977) stated that if the strength of agreement in the kappa reliability calculation is over 0.80, the compliance is almost perfect. Therefore, it can be claimed that the credibility of the research data is high.

The phenomenology approach considers the research data to determine themes and draws out the essence and essentials of participant meanings (Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, 2014). Therefore, a categorical/ thematic approach was adopted in the research. While analyzing the data in the research, firstly, the data were scrutinized. Then the data were coded, and meaningful themes were created from the specified codes. Finally, while analyzing the codes related to each theme, a detailed understanding of the organizational learning phenomenon was aimed by directly including the participants' opinions.

Results

In this section, the opinions of the school administrators were reported under three themes: information acquisition, information distribution, and institutionalizing information. The codes that

emerged regarding the roles of school administrators under these themes were given in Table 1.

Table 1.

Roles of School Administrators in Organizational Learning Processes

Themes	Codes (Roles)	N
Information Acquisition	Activities such as in-service training, seminars, courses	24
	Appropriate and flexible time	4
	Collaboration with universities	3
	Meetings	3
	Reading books, magazines, etc.	3
	Participation in scientific activities	2
	Graduate education	2
	New developments in education and technology	2
	Cooperation with non-governmental organizations active in the field of education	1
	Professional knowledge and experience	1
Information Distribution	Committees, meetings, seminars	23
	Sharing knowledge and experiences with teachers	8
	Personal conversations, one-on-one interviews	8
	Providing opportunities for sharing information and creating an environment for this	8
	Collaboration and teamwork	4
	A democratic school climate	3
	Individual attention, sensitivity	1
	A peaceful, safe, happy school	1
	Events organized on special days	1
Information Integration	Keeping new or old information on the agenda with various activities	8
	Extensive participation in the learning process, shared decision, shared understanding	6
	A strong organizational culture	6
	Apply new learning at school and disseminate it throughout the school	5
	Networking between teachers	4
	Generating projects, creating working groups or project groups through these projects, supporting these groups	4
	Following and rewarding good or successful practices	3
	Being planned	3
	Competitions	2
	Reading activities	2

To be connected with the former employees of the school, to maintain communication	2
Knowledge of new teachers, experience of old teachers	2
Sustainable structure and education	1
School policy to make learning permanent	1
Open-mindedness	1

Information Acquisition

Information acquisition is the first stage of organizational learning, and school administrators talked about different experiences in this context. School administrators often try to ensure that their teachers acquire new information by organizing teacher training through in-service training, seminars, courses, and so on, within the scope of information acquisition which is the first stage of organizational learning. In this context, K3 stated that he tried to ensure the participation of teachers in in-service training. K8 likewise said, "*I ensure that teachers participate in in-service training. I organize seminars for them*". K13 emphasized the importance of the same topic: "*I held one-on-one and group meetings with teachers at my school and asked my teachers what issues they felt lacking. We planned in-service training on issues they see themselves insufficient*". K26 stated that they encourage and support teachers to participate in in-school or out-of-school training activities related to their branches and general education to increase their knowledge capacity. Moreover, school administrators stated that they consider the appropriateness of time and make flexible time arrangements when organizing the school program for teachers, thus supporting them in learning new information. In this context, K12 used the expression "*We make appropriate time arrangements for each teacher when preparing teachers' course schedules.*" School administrators also mentioned the importance of cooperation with universities to increase the knowledge capacity of the school. K1 said, "*We provide*

academics from universities to give seminars in our school" K20 likewise said, "*We organize seminars for teachers in consultation with universities.*" K25 said, "*We get help from our universities… Also, when our teachers wish to study for a master's degree or attend some courses, we support them and organize their programs flexibly*". K14 stated that they help teachers participate in master's and doctorate programs and support their postgraduate education. Besides, school administrators also claimed that new learning was provided through meetings held at the school. In the research, it was stated that reading is essential for new information acquisition. It has been suggested that this acquisition is achieved by encouraging teachers to read publications. K24 stated that he bought educational books for his teachers to read. It was also stated that following new developments in education and technology, cooperating with non-governmental organizations operating in the field of education, and sharing professional knowledge or experience at the school provide new learning in the school.

Information Distribution

Information distribution is the second stage of organizational learning, and again, school administrators talked about the different roles they played in this context. They stated that information distribution was provided in their schools through teachers' boards, branch teachers' boards, group meetings, consultation meetings, individual meetings, seminars, etc. School administrators stated that evaluations about new learning were done in such activities and care and support. K3 said, "*I would like to ask the teachers participating in the in-service training or seminar to make a presentation about what they have learned.*" K24 said, "*Teachers attending the seminars share their information with colleagues and school administration,*" and K30 said, "*I encourage our teachers to present their opinions and suggestions in the seminars and the*

teachers' board." Furthermore, school administrators stated that they shared their new information acquired through in-service training or professional experience with the teachers. K25 stated that he shared the information he thought was especially important for the teachers during the routine meetings in his school or the teachers' room. Besides, they stated that especially breaks or resting hours were an opportunity for information sharing. It was claimed that individual conversations or face-to-face meetings during these hours contributed to information sharing. K24 said that we often meet with teachers in the form of short conversations. Besides, they were trying to create an appropriate environment in the school to enable teachers to share information with their colleagues, create a democratic school environment, show individual attention to the teacher, and be sensitive to their problems. K7 stated that "*I am trying to create a democratic school environment*"; K12 said that "*We allow the teacher to share their learning with us*"; K16 used the expression "*I am preparing environments for teachers to express themselves*." It was also stated that supporting cooperation and teamwork, creating a peaceful and safe school environment for teachers, organizing events on certain special days increased information sharing in the school. In this context, K26 puts the following view:

> *We are trying to ensure that they (teachers) are comfortable in the school. We endeavor to create an educational environment that they love. We strive to create an environment of mutual trust by dealing closely with all kinds of problems.*

K1 stated that "*Organizing activities on special days such as teachers' day ensures teachers' unity, and these activities are important for sharing information*."

Information Integration

Institutionalizing information is the last and indispensable stage of organizational learning. Within the scope of this stage, school administrators frequently stated that they keep the new or existing information on the agenda by organizing meetings and similar activities, thus contributing to integrating the information into the school. K14 stated that "*School knowledge is improved at certain times. The new teachers are informed with this knowledge. Thus, the continuity of the information is provided*". School administrators claimed that joint decisions were made and common understanding was developed through extensive participation activities involving teachers, students and parents, and that information was institutionalized. School administrators also stated that they are trying to make learning permanent for the school by creating an influential corporate culture. In this context, K7 said, "*I work to establish corporate culture*"; K13 said, "*A school culture needs to be created. I think things will go easier when new teachers adapt to this culture*". K 28 said, "*We work to create and reinforce school culture.*" They claimed that applying new learning in the school and spreading it throughout the school, establishing connections or networks for effective communication with teachers, designing acceptable practices by forming project groups or collaboration teams, following up successful practices, and rewarding them provided organizational persistence information. K1 put forward the idea that "*We try to share good examples by all teachers and apply them in the institution.*" K22 claimed, "*When working groups are formed, the work continues even if a teacher leaves the group.*" K30 stated that "*I allow implementing the work as a team and turn it into a project to cover the whole school if positive feedback is received.*" K30 also put forward the following view that can be evaluated in this context:

853

I follow up with the good practices implemented at the school level and present the works that I believe to be applicable in our school boards and meetings. Finally, I start the planning process for the works supported by a joint decision.

Besides, school administrators explained persistence in learning through planned practices, school policies and sustainable structures to support this, and open-minded. They also stated that they tried to play a facilitating role in these issues. According to K22, "*Learning becomes permanent if necessary planning and school policy are established, a road map is drawn up with stakeholders, and this plan is implemented.*" K27 put forward the idea that "*I am making arrangements to make the structure and content of education sustainable in the school.*" The study also stated that organizing competitions throughout the school, organizing regular reading activities, maintaining communication with teachers who left school, and sharing information and experience between the new and old teachers of the school contribute to integrating the school's information. In this context, K26 put forward the following opinion:

We are constantly trying to improve ourselves. For example, we read books about management. To put this information into practice, we do the necessary practices at the school. For example, we organize reading competitions to encourage reading and give books as prizes.

Discussion

The present study explored the role of school administrators in organizational learning processes. In the study, school administrators' role in organizational learning processes was determined in three main processes: information acquisition, information distribution, and information integration. In educational organizations, these learning

processes must function healthily because the continuous capacity development in schools is seen as possible through the effective functioning of these processes (Fullan, 1995).

Roles of the School Administrator on Information Acquisition

When the roles played by school administrators in organizational learning processes are examined separately within each category, it is seen that the information acquisition process is primarily experienced in the schools through activities such as in-service training, seminars, and courses. It can be claimed that such activities strengthen the teacher professionally. Both education and school improvement are related to the development of human capacity (Hallinger, 2011). Marks and Louis's (1999) study reveals a consistent relationship between teacher empowerment and organizational learning. Also, considering that the initial process of organizational learning is carried out on an individual level (Schechter & Qadach, 2012), it can be claimed that such activities targeting cognitive development are essential.

School administrators also stated that they were flexible when scheduling time at school so that teachers could take time off for their personal development. It can be argued that such flexible planning facilitates teachers' access to graduate education and their participation in scientific activities. As can be understood from the research findings, the school administrator's supportive leadership behaviors were valuable in organizational learning. In the related literature, it is seen that supportive leadership increases the level of professional learning, and this is related to student achievement (Park et al., 2019).

855

It can be argued that cooperation with universities and non-governmental organizations in education also contributes to the information acquisition process in organizational learning. For example, Fullan (1995) stated that teachers in learning schools could conduct collaborative studies inside and outside the school.

According to the research results, reading is one of the critical concepts related to acquiring new information. Some school administrators stated that they play a supporting role in this matter.

According to the research results, it can be claimed that a school staff following the change in education and technology will increase the information capacity. Besides, it is seen that organizations' learning processes are interrelated interactive processes (Schechter & Qadach, 2012), and new learning will be provided by sharing information.

When the school administrators' opinions about the roles they play in the information acquisition process are evaluated in general, it is seen that learning is generally associated with in-school processes, and individual learning is emphasized. However, the participants did not address issues such as learning from their own mistakes, learning from the surrounding educational organizations, and learning by observing the environment reveals an incomplete understanding of obtaining information. However, it is seen that these issues are significant in terms of organizational learning in the relevant literature (Andrews & Delahaye, 2000; Argyris, 1999; Huber, 1991; Levitt & March, 1988).

Roles of the School Administrator on Information Distribution

The school administrators mentioned the importance of the boards, meetings, seminars, and similar activities organized in the school within the information distribution scope. According to the

results, the school administrators' interviews with the teachers, the teachers among themselves, or the administrators in formal or informal environments facilitate the sharing process of information.

School administrators stated that they are making an effort to create a democratic, peaceful and safe environment in information distribution. The results show that having a culture supporting cooperation or teamwork in school is also essential for information sharing. Similar to the research findings, Collinson and Cook (2007) stated that effective relationships and collaborations in schools depend on concepts such as empathy, communication, and trust. Therefore, organizational learning will be realized more through democratic principles to be implemented in schools. Similarly, in other studies, the climate of trust-based cooperation has been considered an essential component for organizational learning (Mulford & Silins, 2003; Silins et al., 2002). Collaboration is vital for sharing information because individuals, especially in organizations with the competition, may not share information because they see it as a valuable product and power source (Andrews & Delahaye, 2000). In a culture that supports organizational learning, some sub-units know how to make learning and perform their learning in harmony, and together they form a learning ecology (Levitt & March, 1988). Therefore, it may be helpful to reduce the organization's emphasis on competition to ensure the necessary cooperation for organizational learning (Argyris, 1999; Garcia-Morales et al., 2006).

When the opinions of school administrators about the roles they play in the information distribution process are evaluated in general, it is seen that as in the production process of information, the activities that are frequently held in the school and in which teachers come together are emphasized, trying to create a suitable environment

857

for this unity. There are many ways to share information. Face-to-face interviews or meetings in the same physical environment emphasize only a limited aspect of this sharing (see Schechter & Qadach, 2012). With the widespread use of technology and information systems in schools (for example, management information systems such as e-schools), school administrators were expected to address this changing context. However, they did not provide any opinion in this context. For example, no school administrator talked about sending e-, using information management systems, or organizing electronic meetings when discussing their role in sharing information. These tools can be related to traditional culture. If teachers do not maintain their connections with the school after completing the school's course load, it may be reasonable to share information commonly through physical interactions.

Roles of the School Administrator on Information Integration

School administrators emphasized the importance of keeping the learning in school always on the agenda and repeating these activities in various ways. They stated that they play a supporting role in this issue within the scope of information integration. According to the results, it is seen that broad participation in the learning process, influential learning culture in the school, a school structure that will ensure the continuity of learning and school policy to support it, and the close ties between the employees contribute to the permanence of knowledge in the school. Schechter and Feldman's (2010) study shows that organizational learning is unlikely to be effective without schools' influential learning culture. Because organizational learning involves social learning processes and has a close relationship with cultural structures (Cook & Yanow, 1993), it would be appropriate to define this culture that supports organizational learning as a school culture

with cooperation and colleague solidarity (Leithwood et al., 1998). The fact that development in learning organizations is never completed requires teachers to be in continuous learning activities throughout their professional lives (Fullan, 1995). A structure that will ensure the continuity of learning in schools can contribute to this process. This structure enables teachers to participate in decision-making processes in the school is considered necessary in terms of organizational learning (Leithwood et al., 1998).

According to the results, to institutionalize learning, it should be generalized throughout the school and applied continuously. For this purpose, it may be functional to form project groups or working groups, make learning within a specific plan, and organize activities that will make learning enjoyable. Similarly, Silins et al. (2002) stated that organizational learning is encouraged in schools where employees communicate openly and supportively. In addition, they actively seek information to improve their work, and that there is an administrator effort to establish structures or systems to support experience and entrepreneurship in these schools.

Considering the roles played by school administrators in the information integration process, it is seen that subjects such as school structure, school culture, and school policies are mentioned. When compared with other learning processes, it is seen that there are more opinions in scope. However, to integrate information with the organization, it is not considered sufficient to carry the past information to the present day, and it is also necessary to have robust predictions. For organizational learning, organization memory must also cover the future (Huber, 1991). Therefore, it may be considered a deficiency that the school administrators do not mention the predictions or scenarios about the future when expressing their roles.

859

Conclusion

Information acquisition is the first process of organizational learning, and it is necessary to concentrate on individual learning at this stage. In this study, it was seen that school administrators support teachers in this direction and focus on activities that will increase their learning. Information distribution is the following process of organizational learning, and in this process, it is necessary to transfer individual learning to the group or school level. In this study, it was found that school administrators carried out activities to bring together teachers in the school at this stage, thus facilitating the dissemination of information. Information integration is the final process of organizational learning, and in this process, it is necessary to transform shared information into a school-owned acquisition and institutionalize it.

It can be claimed that school administrators' activities in the organizational learning process do not differ from their organizational learning literature. On the contrary, the results show that they play simple roles in organizational learning. As can be predicted, this is possibly related to concepts such as autonomy, taking the initiative, organizational structure, and professional support (Arar, Beycioglu & Oplatka, 2017; Bellibaş & Gümüş, 2019; Şahin, 2000). In this respect, it is clear that the schools need improvement and the school administrators need professional development more.

The current qualitative study advances existing research literature by focusing on organizational learning processes in education. However, the research also has some limitations. Clarifying organizational learning through school administrators' self-evaluations is the most critical limitation of this research. Since our

perceptions of facts may not accurately reflect reality, different ways can be tried to overcome this limitation, such as observing schools or interviewing different school members (e.g., teachers) (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002). Thus, we can have a more detailed understanding of how the organizational learning process works in schools. Research also has limitations in the sampling aspect. However, choosing a large sample and considering school characteristics as a sampling unit can produce effective results. Although this study is one of the few studies dealing with the role of school administrators on organizational learning processes in Turkey, considering the idea that organizational learning is a collective activity and that all the school members should be included in these processes, teachers, school administrative staff and other school members can also be interviewed or observed on this issue and the knowledge on this issue can be further developed.

References

Alanoglu, M., & Demirtas, Z. (2016). The relationships between organizational learning level, school effectiveness and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Education and Training Studies, 4*(4), 35-44.

Andrews, K. M., & Delahaye, B. L. (2000). Influences on knowledge processes in organisational learning: The psychosocial filter. *Journal of Management Studies* 37(6), 797-810. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-6486.00204

Arar, K., Beycioglu, K., & Oplatka, I. (2017). A cross-cultural analysis of educational leadership for social justice in Israel and Turkey: Meanings, actions and contexts. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education, 47*(2), 192-206. https://doi.org/10.1080/03057925.2016.1168283

Argote, L. (2013) *Organisational learning: Creating, retaining and transferring knowledge*. New York: Springer.

Argyris, C. (1995). Action science and organisational learning. *Journal of Managerial Psychology,* 10(6), 20-26. https://doi.org/10.1108/02683949510093849

Argyris, C. (1999). *On organisational learning*. Oxford, UK: Blackwell.

Argyris, C., & Schön, D. (1978). *Organisational learning: A theory of action perspective*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Argyris, C., & Schön, D. (1996). *Organisational learning II: Theory, method, and practice*. New York: Addison-Wesley.

Aydemir, Y., & Koşar, S. (2019). Ortaokul öğretmenlerinin öğrenen örgüt algılarının çeşitli değişkenler açısından incelenmesi (Ankara ili örneği). *Başkent University Journal of Education, 6*(2), 250-264.

Bennett, J. V., Ylimaki, R. M., Dugan, T. M., & Brunderman, L. A. (2014). Developing the potential for sustainable improvement in underperforming schools: Capacity building in the sociocultural dimension. *Journal of Educational Change, 15*(4), 377-409. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10833-013-9217-6

Bellibaş, M. Ş., & Gümüş, S. (2019). A systematic review of educational leadership and management research in Turkey. *Journal of Educational Administration, 57*(6), 731-747. https://doi.org/10.1108/JEA-01-2019-0004

Bellibaş, M. Ş., Gümüş, S., & Liu, Y. (2020). Does school leadership matter for teachers' classroom practice? The influence of instructional leadership and distributed leadership on instructional quality. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 1-26. https://doi.org/10.1080/09243453.2020.1858119

Boreham, N., & Morgan, C. (2004). *A sociocultural analysis of organisational learning. Oxford Review of Education, 30*(3), 307-325. https://doi.org/10.1080/0305498042000260467

Brinkmann, S. (2014). Unstructured and semi-structured interviewing. In P. Leavy (Ed.) *The Oxford Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Cangelosi, V. E., & Dill, W. R. (1965). Organisational learning: Observations toward a theory. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 10*(2), 175-203. https://www.jstor.org/stable/pdf/2391412.pdf

Collinson, V., & Cook, T. F. (2007). *Organisational learning: Improving learning, teaching, and leading in school systems*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Collinson, V., & Cook, T. F. (2013). Organisational learning: Leading innovations. *International Journal of Educational Leadership and Management,* 1(1), 69-98. http://dx.doi.org/10.4471/ijelm.2013.03

Collinson, V., Cook, T. F., & Conley, S. (2006). Organisational learning in schools and school systems: Improving learning, teaching, and leading. *Theory into Practice* 45(2), 107-116. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4502_2

Cook, S. D. N., & Yanow, D. (1993). Culture and organisational learning. *Journal of Management Inquiry,* 2(4), 373-390. https://doi.org/10.1177/105649269324010

Crossan, M. M., Lane, H. W., & White, R. E. (1999) An organisational learning framework: From intuition to institution. *The Academy of Management Review,* 24(3), 522-537. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1999.2202135

Donaldson, S. I., & Grant-Vallone, E. J. (2002). Understanding self-report bias in organisational behavior research. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 17*(2), 245-260. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1019637632584

Egan, T. M., Yang, B., & Bartlett, K. R. (2004). The effects of organisational learning culture and job satisfaction on motivation to transfer learning and turnover intention. *Human Resource Development Quarterly,* 15(3), 279-301. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.1104

Fauske, J. R., & Raybould, R. (2005). Organisational learning theory in schools. *Journal of Educational Administration,* 43(1), 22-40. https://doi.org/10.1108/09578230510577272

Fiol, C. M., & Lyles, M. A. (1985). Organisational learning. *The Academy of Management Review,* 10(4), 803-813. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1985.4279103

Flick, U. (2009). *An introduction to qualitative research* (4th ed.). London: Sage.

Fullan, M. (1995). The school as a learning organisation: Distant dreams. *Theory into Practice,* 34(4), 230-235. https://doi.org/10.1080/00405849509543685

Garcia-Morales, V. J., Lopez-Martin, F. J., & Llamas-Sánchez, R. (2006). Strategic Factors and Barriers for Promoting Educational Organizational Learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education,* 22(4), 478-502. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2005.11.012

Gurr, D., & Drysdale, L. (2018). System leadership and school leadership. *Research in Educational Administration and Leadership (REAL), 3*(2), 207-229. https://doi.org/10.30828/real/2018.2.4

Hallinger, P. (2011). Leadership for learning: Lessons from 40 years of empirical research. *Journal of Educational Administration, 49*(2), 125-142. https://doi.org/10.1108/09578231111116699

Hsiao, H. C., & Chang, J. C. (2011). The role of organisational learning in transformational leadership and organisational innovation. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 12*(4), 621. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12564-011-9165-x

Huber, G. P. (1991). Organisational learning: The contributing processes and the literatures. *Organization Science,* 2(1), 88-115.

Imants, J. (2003). Two basic mechanisms for organisational learning in schools. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 26*(3), 293-311. https://doi.org/10.1080/0261976032000128157A

Kondakci, Y., & Beycioglu, K. (2020). Social justice in Turkish education system: Issues and interventions. In R. Papa (Ed.), *Handbook on promoting social justice in education* (pp. 309-329). Cham: Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-14625-2_34

Kurland, H., Peretz, H., & Hertz-Lazarowitz, R. (2010). Leadership style and organizational learning: The mediate effect of school

vision. *Journal of Educational Administration, 48*(1), 7-30. https://doi.org/10.1108/09578231011015395

Landis, J. R., & Koch, G. G. (1977). The Measurement of observer agreement for categorical data. *Biometrics, 33*(1), 159-174.

Leithwood, K., Leonard, L., & Sharratt, L. (1998). Conditions fostering organisational learning in schools. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 34*(2), 243-276. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013161X98034002005

Levitt. B., & March, J. G. (1988). Organisational learning. *Annual Review of Sociology, 14*(1), 319-338. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.so.14.080188.001535

Louis, K. S. (2006). Changing the culture of schools: Professional community, organizational learning, and trust. *Journal of School Leadership, 16*(5), 477-489. https://doi.org/10.1177/105268460601600502

Louis, K. S., & Murphy, J. (2017). Trust, caring and organizational learning: The leader's role. *Journal of Educational Administration, 55*(1), 103-126. https://doi.org/10.1108/JEA-07-2016-0077

Marks, H. M., & Louis, K. S. (1999). Teacher empowerment and the capacity for organisational learning. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 35*(5), 707-750. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013161X99355003

Marshall, M. N. (1996). Sampling for qualitative research. *Family Practice, 13*(6), 522-526.

Mengüşoğlu, T. (2017). *İnsan felsefesi* [Human philosophy]. Ankara: Doğu-Batı

Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldaña, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook* (Edition 3). London: Sage.

Mulford, B., & Silins, H. (2003). Leadership for organisational learning and improved student outcomes - what do we know? *Cambridge Journal of Education, 33*(2), 175-195. https://doi.org/10.1080/03057640302041

OECD. (2019). *TALIS 2018 results (Volume I): Teachers and school leaders as lifelong learners*. Paris: TALIS, OECD Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1787/1d0bc92a-en

Oh, S. Y., & Han, H. S. (2020). Facilitating organisational learning activities: Types of organisational culture and their influence on organisational learning and performance. *Knowledge Management Research & Practice, 18*(1), 1-15. https://doi.org/10.1080/14778238.2018.1538668

Park, J. H., Lee, I. H., & Cooc, N. (2019). The role of school-level mechanisms: How principal support, professional learning communities, collective responsibility, and group-level teacher expectations affect student achievement. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 55(5), 742–780. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013161X18821355

Patton, M. Q. (2001) *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods*. SAGE Publications.

Pedder, D., & MacBeath, J. (2008). Organisational learning approaches to school leadership and management: teachers' values and perceptions of practice. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 19*(2), 207-224. https://doi.org/10.1080/09243450802047899

Qadach, M., Schechter, C., & Da'as, R. A. (2020). From principals to teachers to students: Exploring an integrative model for predicting students' achievements. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 56*(5), 736-778.

Omur, Y. E. & Argon, T. (2016). Teacher opinions on the innovation management skills of school administrators and organizational learning mechanisms. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research, 66*, 243-262. http://dx.doi.org/10.14689/ejer.2016.66.14

Schechter, C., & Feldman, N. (2010). Exploring organisational learning mechanisms in special education. *Journal of Educational Administration, 48*(4), 490-516. https://doi.org/10.1108/09578231011054734

Schechter, C., & Qadach, M. (2012). Toward an organisational model of change in elementary schools: The contribution of organisational learning mechanisms. *Educational Administration Quarterly,* 48(1), 116–153. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013161X11419653

Schechter, C., & Qadach, M. (2013). From illusion to reality: Schools as learning organisations. *International Journal of Educational Management,* 27(5), 505-516. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513541311329869

Schein, E. H. (1993). On dialogue, culture, and organisational learning. *Organizational Dynamics,* 22(2), 40-51. https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616(93)90052-3

Schilling, J., & Kluge, A. (2009). Barriers to organisational learning: An integration of theory and research. *International Journal of Management Reviews,* 11(3), 337-360. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2370.2008.00242.x

Silins, H. C., Mulford, W. R., & Zarins, S. (2002). Organisational learning and school change. *Educational Administration Quarterly,* 38(5), 613-642. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013161X02239641

Starbuck, W. H. (2017). Organisational learning and unlearning. *The Learning Organization,* 24(1), 30-38. https://doi.org/10.1108/TLO-11-2016-0073

Stoll, L., Bolam, R., McMahon, A., Wallace, M., & Thomas, S. (2006). Professional learning communities: A review of the literature. *Journal of Educational Change, 7*(4), 221-258.

Swart, J., & Harcup, J. (2013). 'If I learn do we learn?': The link between executive coaching and organisational learning. *Management Learning,* 44(4), 337-354. https://doi.org/10.1177/1350507612447916

Şahin, A. E. (2000). Seçilmiş devlet liselerinde ve özel liselerde örgütsel öğrenme süreçlerinin nitel bir değerlendirmesi [A qualitative assessment of organizational learning processes in selected

Turkısh public and private high schools]. *Eğitim ve Bilim, 25*(117), 34-41.

Tracy, S. J. (2013). *Qualitative research methods: Collecting evidence, crafting analysis, communicating impact*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley-Blackwell.

van Manen, M. A. (2020). Uniqueness and novelty in phenomenological inquiry. *Qualitative Inquiry,* 26(5), 486–490. https://doi.org/10.1177/1077800419829788

Vera, D., & Crossan, M. (2004). Strategic leadership and organisational learning. *Academy of Management Review,* 29(2), 222-240. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2004.12736080

Wang, C. L., & Ahmed, P. K. (2003). Organisational learning: A critical review. The Learning Organization, 10(1), 8-17. https://doi.org/10.1108/09696470310457469

About the author:

Fatih Şahin, is an associate professor in the Department of Educational Sciences at Gazi University, Turkey. His research interests include educational administration and organizational behavior in education.

E-mail: sahinfatih@gazi.edu.tr

The Roles and Responsibilities of School Administrators During the Emergency Remote Teaching Process in Covid-19 Pandemic

Sadegül Akbaba Altun

Başkent University, Ankara, Turkey

Mustafa Bulut

Başkent University, Ankara, Turkey

Abstract	Article Info
When Covid 19 pandemic started, schools in Turkey, as in many parts of the world, were closed and then emergency remote teaching started. The purpose of this study is to explain the roles and responsibilities of school administrators related to emergency remote teaching after schools were closed. In order to reveal the purpose above, this research was carried out in qualitative research design. 105 school administrators from different regions of Turkey and different school levels participated in the study. The data were collected through a Google Drive form with open-ended questions. The collected data were analyzed with content and descriptive analyses. The findings showed that the roles and responsibilities of the school administrators regarding emergency remote teaching included planning the process, starting online classes, opening different social media accounts, managing the online program, solving the adaptation problems of students and teachers, monitoring the actions taken and motivating teachers, students, parents; communication and finally it has been seen that they are in the act of transition to and maintaining digital management. During the Covid 19 pandemic, school administrators have mostly done "communication". There were also changes in the communication styles of school administrators and social media tools were used effectively. The intensive use of technology in this period has	

caused changes in management processes and managers have mostly talked about digital management and the exhausting aspects of digital management are expressed as well as the facilitating ones. Since emergency remote teaching is not a common case in the K-12 Turkish education system, we hope the results of this study will contribute to a better understanding of the roles and responsibilities of school administrators during such emergency periods.

Introduction

The Covid-19 outbreak emerged in Wuhan (Wuhan), China in December 2019 and unfortunately spread to the world from this city. Covid 19 cases were first seen on 11 March, 2020 in Turkey and on March 13, 2020 Higher Education Council (HEC) announced that education was interrupted for three weeks and at the end of this period, it would be carried out remotely (https://www.yok.gov.tr). Therefore, the rest of the 2019-2020 spring and the fall semester in higher education was online. The Ministry of National Education also closed all schools until the end of April 2020, and then education was conducted remotely by broadcasting over the Education Information Network (EBA) and TRT (Turkish Radio and Television Corporation). In the fall semester of 2020-2021, face to face education started with pre-school, 1st grade, 8th and 12th grades and it was shared with the public that gradual transition for other levels would also be made. Education has been among the most affected sectors in the Covid 19 outbreak all over the world. According to UNESCO's May 2020 data,

schools in 132 countries around the world have been mostly or partially closed, and 1,048,817,181 students around the world have been affected by this pandemic. 24,901,925 students in total were affected from preschool, primary education, secondary education and higher education in Turkey. During the pandemic period, serious problems, crises and chaos have been experienced at every level of education, and therefore the practices of school administrators have also been affected to a great extent as there was a quick shift from traditional modes of administration to a new process. The present study was designed to identify the roles and responsibilities of school administrators during such a new period. As emergency remote teaching is not a common initiative in educational systems, the roles and responsibilities of school administrators during this period have not been studied enough. We believe, the results of the study will necessitate the authorities to reconsider the in-service training programs of school administrators taking into consideration the experiences portrayed in the findings since the study has several implications for practice. To address above objectives, the study tries to answer the following research questions:

1. What did school administrators do just after the Covid-19 outbreak started?

2. How were their roles and responsibilities different from their routine practices?

Literature Review

There have always been serious pandemics in every period of history. Undoubtedly, this Covid 19 outbreak will not be the last. Therefore, human beings should be ready for such pandemics and the

crises that they will create in future. Crisis can be defined as a situation that an unexpected condition makes or causes in the organizational environment, and if not managed well, it will often create negative results. Schools are places that are affected by such conditions. As a result, school administrators are responsible for the effective management of contingencies caused by the Covid 19 pandemic in schools and their behaviors during ordinary and extraordinary situations should be different (Akbaba-Altun, 2011; 2016). Likewise, their roles and responsibilities also differ from the routine in emergencies

As we all know, the main goal of education is student achievement, but that doesn't mean that students always need to be the focus of an administrator's efforts (Hoerr, 2009). They have many other responsibilities. Mishra and Yadav (2013) define school administrators as the kingpins of any institutions. They are the people who are responsible for the achievement of the goals of an institution, whether it is in the form of effective planning or the successful implementation or the development of a healthy organizational climate. They act as the change agent that transforms the teaching and learning culture of an institution. Muller and Hutingen (2008) add that school administrators are the ones who create conditions which foster teacher development and student learning. During ordinary times, when there is no extraordinary situations or happenings, the responsibilities of administrators cover the smooth and effective management and operation of a school and the development of the work and life in this school, in addition to the close observation of teachers' work. Besides, the administrator undertakes teaching responsibilities within the frame of the school programme and the curriculum and keeps and maintains the archives and the property of

the school. In addition, administrators carry out any other responsibilities given for the interest of the students, of the school and of education in general (Hadjithoma-Garstka, 2011). Kwan (2011) lists similar roles and responsibilities as external communication and connection, attending meetings with government officials, quality assurance and accountability, undertaking evaluation activities for school-based curriculum projects, teaching, learning and curriculum, organising school-based curriculum development activities, staff management, orientation of staff, resource management, preparing the school budget, leader and teacher growth and development, planning training and development programmes for teachers, strategic direction and policy environment and formulating long-term school plans. Another function carried out by administrators is supervision (Blume, Diehl, Norton, Varner, & Marshall, 1946). There are five main functions of school administrators as supervisors. These functions are leadership, co-ordination, personnel, research, and public relations (Kindred, 1951). School administrators are also multicultural leaders (Gardiner & Enomoto, 2006) in many parts of the World, especially nowadays, and creators a safe school climate (Cisler & Bruce, 2013). Finally, some other roles individually achieved by school administrators include creating, communicating, and boosting an evidence-based agenda and necessary work tasks (Cosner, 2011).

However, things sometimes become challenging for educational organizations, especially in hard times and crisis as we experience today. Several studies were carried out in the world (Grant & Mack, 2004; Jimerson, Brock, & Pletcher, 2005; Sandoval & Brock, 2002) and in Turkey (Aksoy & Aksoy, 2003; Aksöz, Erdur-Baker, & Akbaba-Altun, 2008; Çiçek & Özsezer, 2015; Döş & Cömert, 2012) on what school administrators should do with regard to crisis

management. Grant and Mack (2004) claim that crises are inevitable, organizations may face crises sooner or later, and they emphasize that the leaders of organizations have to react to the devastation and uncertainty and radical changes caused by crises. Sandoval and Brock (2002) who find it very important to study crisis situations in schools explain this by saying that schools are places where students and staff are concentrated and that busy places are more prone to chaos. A specific example comes from Turkey to illustrate school administrators' role and responsibilities during crises. In provinces where natural disasters are experienced in Turkey, crisis desks affiliated to governorships are established and solutions are produced for the disaster experienced here. In this process, school administrators, who are education leaders, take part in crisis desks at the provincial level during these crisis periods and try to continue their educational activities by solving problems both in their own schools and in other schools (Akbaba-Altun, 2011).

According to Sandoval and Brock (2002), children spend most of the day at school and may panic more quickly than adults. Therefore, prevention of crises is also important at this point. During crises at schools, the quantity and quality of the changes become so much that it might horrify school administrators and staff and they feel that they do not have the chance or ability to cope with the changes (Behbahani, 2011). Their relations with department heads, teachers, tighten to a great extent (Telem, 2001) during such times. Their tasks and duties become varied and complex. They do their best to form the link between the school, parents, the community, and the central educational bureaucracy. They supervise teachers, maintain facilities, secure and manage resources, try hard to solve conflicts, and supervise record keeping (Anderson, 2008). Because of such work diversity "they

875

wear too many hats" (Spillane & Lee, 2014). Their role extends to include that of entrepreneur, community organizer, and negotiator in addition to that of instructional and moral leader (White-Smith & White, 2009). Thus, a "do as we all have done for years" philosophy to improve the schools doesn't catch most administrators' attention (Wegenke, 2000) in both ordinary and crisis periods. In a similar study; Reyes-Guerra, Maslin-Ostrowski, Barakat and Stefanovic (2021) stated that during the initial phase of the pandemic, school administrators became personalized and pragmatic communicators along with new priorities and led the staff with flexibility, creativity and care. Another study by Kaminskiene, Tütlys, Gedviliene and Chu (2021), about the practices of school principals in Lithuania, showed that they focused on staff training, technological preparation just after the outbreak of the pandemic, followed by student related work.

Apart from the ones listed above, another responsibility of administrators during crisis like the one we experience these days is online leadership. Online administrators increasingly need to be more innovative to help lead and guide this new expanding area. Online administrators cannot just want innovation from their teachers to meet changing student needs and different government accountabilities; they also need to lead the innovation. They also have to know about online learning, they have to be invested in online learning, and they have to help their teachers to adapt and change (Quilici & Joki, 2011). Similarly, due to the new modes of teaching and administration that have been necessitated by the pandemic, one leadership role of school administrators today is the technological leadership (Akbaba-Altun, 2004; 2008). Such changes in school administrators' role, resulting from the computerization of instruction and administration occur in six major categories: these are accountability, instruction evaluation,

supervision, feedback, frequency of meetings, and shared decision making (Telem, 2001). Also, changes in technology cause changes in organizational styles and methods and any change necessitates to change acquiring knowledge and skills (Behbahani, 2011). All in all, whether in everyday routines or challenging periods, the traditional role of administrators as managers is expanded to instructional leaders (Mestry, Moonsammy-Koopasammy, & Schmidt, 2013). What is more, school leaders are expected to have clear and measurable goals for the achievement of the school as a whole, as well as for individual students, and they're expected to monitor data regarding the achievement of these goals (Marzano, 2013).

Method

Research Design

This study was designed as a qualitative case study. While Berg (1998) systematically defined a case study as a method that explains how the situation works by collecting information about the person, social environment, event, group about a special situation, Graham (2000) stated that the situation should be a human activity to be explained in its context. According to Yin (1994), there are three cases in which case study is preferred. These situations are:

1. When asked "how" and "why" questions

2. When the investigator has little control over the event or situation

3. When there is a real phenomenon in real life

While Stake (1995) defines cases as systems with definite boundaries, Elger (2010) claims that systems with demarcated borders can be considered as a research unit, and that this can be an individual,

877

as well as an event or event in a situation, processes or organizations. In this research, the case was taken as the Covid 19 outbreak and the research focused on the rich descriptions of the actions and experiences of school administrators concerning emergency remote teaching during this pandemic.

Sample

105 school administrators from different education levels participated in the study. 73.3% of the participants are men and 26.7% are women. 4.7% of the participants work in preschool level, 36.2% in primary schools, 21% in secondary schools, 38.1% in high school level. Most of them (76.2%) who take part in the research work as administrators. Considering the seniority of the participants in administration, 48.6% of the participants said that they worked as an administrator for 7-18 years. 16.2% of the participants remarked they worked for 19-30 years. It can be said that the participants are experienced in school administration. While 40% of the participants are undergraduate, 56.2% have a master's degree.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data were collected using a Google Drive form because of pandemic constraints and therefore face to face interviews were almost impossible. School administrators have been invited to participate in this research through different social media accounts. The collected data was first prepared as a Word file and the answers were coded separately. The roles and responsibilities of school administrators were coded first and then divided into categories. The findings of the research have been reported by supporting with quotations.

Findings

The answers given to the research questions are illustrated in Figure 1 below. The figure demonstrates that the school administrators were busy planning emergency remote teaching, starting online classes, opening different social media accounts, managing the online program, solving the adaptation problems of students and teachers, monitoring the actions taken and motivating teachers and students, parents, doing a lot of communication and finally transition to and maintaining digital management.

School administrators also expressed that they carried out continuous research about the remote teaching systems and informed teachers about this process, and they contacted students, parents and teachers and planned and implemented remote teaching in the best way. Opinions on this issue are given below:

> *"I constantly researched about the new system and kept informing my teachers."*

> *"We launched the educational activities on our website at school."*

> *"Obviously, that process is the right decision and guiding teachers to educational activities such as youtube, kahoot, zoom."*

> *"I tried to communicate effectively with teachers and students about work related to remote teaching on alternating working days and other times."*

> *"EBA (Education and Information Network) trainings, live lessons, informing my teachers and students about the process."*

Figure 1.

School administrators' roles and responsibilities during emergency remote teaching
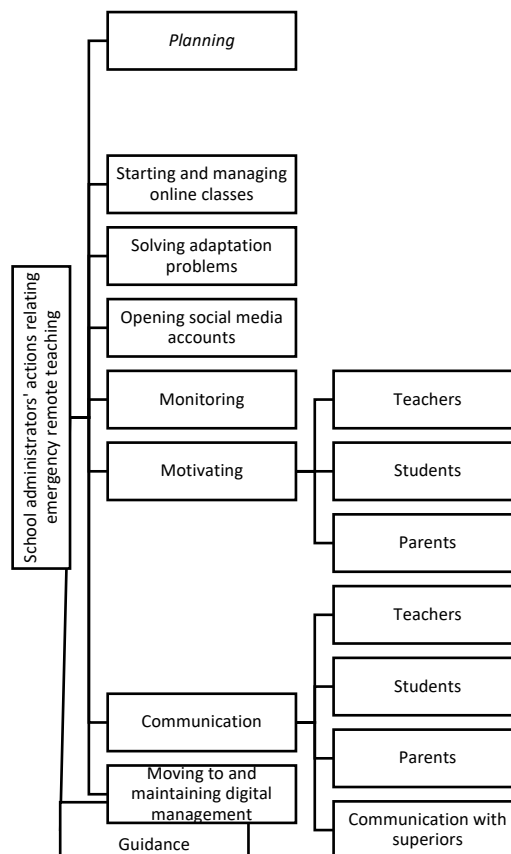
Planning

George (1972) puts forward the importance of planning saying that every kind of managerial act is unavoidably intertwined with planning. It is as much a part of every managerial process as breathing is to the living human being. School administrators participating in the study planned remote teaching during the Covid-19 period

meticulously. They made plans for online exams, parents' meetings, determining and meeting the needs of students. Therefore, they attended the Ministry's seminars on planning emergency remote teaching and uttered their planning processes for it in the following statements:

"Designing the future education process by strategic planning"

"Planning – I planned online exams, parents' meetings etc."

"After planning, I had each student called and filled out a form. By calling the particular students to the guidance service and classroom teachers, we met their basic needs together and provided psychological support."

"Keeping in touch with our teachers and parents, we adapted our plans to homes for the children to have a healthy time at home."

"We planned remote teaching studies. I participated in the remote in-service training activities organized by the Ministry of Education."

Guidance

Bortree (2010) defines guidance as advice, help, direction or support. People can give guidance others by offering counsel, developing guidelines, setting limits, assisting with decision making, providing information with the intent of aiding or acting as a reliable source for ideas. Providing effective and quick guidance and assistance in crisis situations is utmost important as people may not know what to do or how to behave. Thus, school administrators directed teachers to online trainings. School administrators also provided information and guidance to both students and teachers about remote teaching. The views of school administrators on these issues are given below.

881

"I directed the teachers in my old and new schools and enthusiastic teachers that I know around me to online trainings and MEBBİS (Ministry of National Education Information Systems) remote teaching. I tried to keep my teachers active by monitoring EBA (Education and Information Network)"

"I interviewed all classes by connecting via Zoom; I tried to support the children and   I informed and guided that the education and training process was not over and we would continue at home instead of school."

Starting and Managing Online Classes

As school closures occurred in Turkey and most of the world because of this severe pandemic, educational institutions moved from traditional face to face education to remote teaching via online classes and this shift seemed to be one the smartest ways of conducting education well. After school administrators received necessary trainings, they started to plan remote teaching and started the education process. The views of the managers on this issue are below:

"I prepared for the remote teaching process"

"Online studies and classes started"

"We started lessons via remote teaching with teachers"

"Education was done with remote teaching methods"

Opening Social Media Accounts

In this COVID-19 pandemic, social media has the potential, as long as it is responsibly and appropriately used, to provide rapid and effective dissemination routes for key information (Chan, Nickson,

Rudolph, Lee, & Joynt, 2020). As a result, after the school administrators started remote teaching, they opened different social media accounts and increased the number of live lessons in order to access and inform students through different channels. One school administrator remarked:

> *"During this period, we opened a Youtube channel on behalf of our school and uploaded the videos there. We prepared Google Forms and asked teachers every week for information about the students they reached. We created an EBA live course group on WhatsApp and made live course programs and they still continue."*

Solving the Adaptation Problems

Adaptation is usually described as the adjustment that are necessary for new circumstances. Due to Covid-19 pandemic; several emotional, social, environmental and physical adaptations were immediately necessary. After school administrators started remote teaching, they supported teachers and students who had difficulties adapting to the process. The opinion of a school administrator on this issue is below:

> *"We tried to make up for the process with remote teaching lessons. But it is certain that there is a group of students and teachers who have problems adapting to the process."*

Monitoring

School administrators said that they also monitored how remote teaching was carried out saying, "I made a special effort for the active use of EBA", "I did an organization to monitor remote teaching and student studies", "I watched the process on Zoom and Youtube".

883

Motivation

Motivation is described as a process in which an activity is initiated and continued for a purpose (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). The Covid 19 process has affected school administrators as well as everyone else deeply. While some school administrators explained that their motivation decreased in this period, some of them reported that they tried to motivate both themselves, teachers, students and parents.

Motivating teachers

The strategies that school administrators used to keep motivation high are to try to look competent, to make attentive sentences with teachers to keep their motivation high, to frequently call and ask about the situation, to share messages that will increase their morale, and to have in person interviews especially with teachers who had low motivation for remote teaching.

> *"… However, I tried to appear skillful in order to keep myself and my employees motivated."*

> *"From the first week, I tried to keep our teachers motivated by holding online meetings."*

> *"I was careful to make sentences that would keep the motivation of teachers, students and employees high. I talked privately with teachers who were reluctant about remote teaching."*

> *"First of all, I shared messages that would increase morale and motivation of my teachers."*

> *"I often called the teachers and asked after them."*

Motivating Students and Parents

School administrators have tried to motivate students not to leave the lesson in this period. The views of two school administrators on this issue are below:

> *"With emergency remote teaching, we try hard to ensure that students do not break away from classes."*

> *"For example, I promised a gift to the student who read x book from EBA or gave the first correct answer to the question I asked."*

School administrators also tried to motivate students and parents in this process. School administrators remarked in the following statements that they wrote letters to students and especially they asked teachers to motivate parents and students.

> *"I tried to direct the emergency remote teaching process by stating that they should be with our students and parents by making individual phone calls, so that we would feel happy and that being in contact with children would also contribute to the children."*

> *"I wrote letters to the students."*

Communication

Communication is the process of exchanging meaning and messages between individuals using a shared system of symbols. Communication was the most common thing school administrators did during the Covid 19 outbreak since the pandemic demands strengthening the personal relevance of effective communications (Reddy & Gupta, 2020). They have been in contact with teachers,

students, parents, superiors and different segments of society through different communication tools during this period.

> *"Remote communication sources were specified and implemented"*

> *"I talked to our teachers and some parents every day. I explained that we needed to reach our students and parents through Zoom, EBA and Whatsapp"*

> *"I have always done my best to be in contact with teachers, students and parents."*

> *"I continued my communication with teachers, students and their parents through communication channels."*

Communication with Parents

School administrators supported parents by calling them or holding online meetings and shared the Ministerial decisions with them instantly. Managerial views on this issue are below.

> *"I called the parents. I had a parents' meeting."*

> *"--- We supported our parents and students .."*

> *"The decisions of the Ministry and Governorship were shared instantly with parent communication groups. Education support programs were shared with them."*

Communication with Students

School administrators have similarly motivated both themselves and teachers and reached out to students and tried to support them. To communicate effectively, they held meetings with

them via text messages or social media tools. Managerial views on this issue are below:

> *"--- but since the technological possibilities are different, I tried to make our teachers touch the students by using social media."*

> *"We increased communication with our teachers and motivated our children. We made live connections."*

> *"We made plans to keep calling our students."*

> *"By exhibiting a lot of social and course content works on common platforms, I mobilized other teachers and increased the motivation of the students."*

> *"I held motivational meetings for all students with online programs."*

> *"... conferences ... communications with students ...*

> *"Continuous communication with students via text messages and social media."*

Communication with Teachers

The other group that school administrators were in constant contact with during the Covid 19 outbreak were teachers. The administrators described their communication with teachers during this period as "We communicated with teachers frequently in this period."

Communication with Superiors

Another group that school administrators were in contact with during the Covid 19 outbreak were their superiors. They both shared

their thoughts with their superiors and they also followed orders from them. "I shared my thoughts with the general directorate to which I am affiliated. I investigated the measures taken by the world and their applicability in our country, in my school", "I took the actions that were told me by the higher authorities".

Transition to and Maintaining Digital Management.

Digital management is described as the change in the way management is carried out in an organization as a result of digital transformation. In other words, it is the usage of the Internet in administrative tasks and duties so as to improve effectiveness and productivity. School administrators said that they developed such digital management during the Covid 19 pandemic. While some of the school administrators claimed it was more difficult and tiring to manage this process remotely, a school administrator told us they understood that face-to-face management and meetings had cost them a lot of time.

> *"We developed digital management skills due to the work in the digital platform."*
>
> *"It is more difficult to manage the process remotely. I felt more mental fatigue than normal even when working from home."*
>
> *"It is more tiring because you always have to manage someone from distance: a teacher, parent, student.*
>
> *"Then I studied the EBA in depth. I saw that instead of maintenance and repairs etc. I led the educational process for 1.5 months. I understood that how nonsense were unnecessary and time-consuming negotiations."*

Conclusions and Discussion

Today, most scientists and researchers of education believe that if we are to have a change in education, it should be started from educational management (Behbahani, 2011). As a result, school administrators as the representatives of educational management in schools are of great importance. They have various roles and responsibilities. First of all, they are to shape the school's culture to focus unceasing attention on student learning (Louis & Walstrom, 2011). They also construct meaning about their own leadership development and ability to enable effective school change by connecting their knowledge and understanding of what leadership requires and how it is shared with others (Larsen & Reickhoff, 2014). Also, administrators as school leaders make sense of and eventually add meaning to stakeholder actions within their schools, school systems, and communities (Wegenke, 2000). Administrators that are efficient in generating emotional attachment with their staff through listening, trust, encouragement etc. are likely to harness the staff to follow their vision or policy. In addition, administrators need to be aware of the effect of their emotion displays and management on teachers who are likely to go beyond formal role expectations and start new projects and teaching methods at work (Oplatka, 2013). What is more, retaining and developing quality teachers is their other priority. School administrators have to work with the staff to develop a community of learners working towards common goals and make decisions based on shared experiences and results (Watkins, 2005). Promoting teacher professional development and encouraging innovative or risk-taking activities is linked to the extent to which an educational reform is likely to be present in a school (Kadji-Beltran, Zachariou, & Stevenson, 2013).

It is widely known that school administrators have a heavy workload and that it has still been increasing recently (Lindberg, 2012) due to unexpected situations caused by the pandemic. Nowadays, administrators in schools help in improving job satisfaction teachers, establishing firm links with parents of students, strengthen associations, lower educational loss, improvement in renovation and creativity in benefiting from human resources and facilities and ultimately, improve the quality of children and juveniles' lives (Behbahani, 2011). Because, initially resisted, online education has become a part of life for both families and students, and the perspectives have changed. After this pandemic, new approaches and new tools will certainly be developed in online, blended education and even face-to-face education.

In the study, school administrators stated that with the closing of the schools, they prepared their schools for emergency remote teaching, they constantly researched on it and informed teachers about this process. In addition, they contacted students, parents and teachers and planned and implemented remote teaching in the best way. School administrators participating in the research are usually in the action of planning remote teaching, directing teachers about it, starting online lessons, opening different social media accounts, managing the online program, solving the adaptation problems of students and teachers, monitoring the actions taken and motivating teachers and students and parents. The management processes of school administrators have been transitioning to digital management and maintaining it. It was concluded that the traditional roles and responsibilities of school administrators changed shape in terms of content. In particular, crisis management, the need for more motivation, psychological support, and transition to digital management, are specific to the process.

School administrators used the concept of transition to digital management for the first time and mentioned the advantages and disadvantages of this. Digital management will be at the top of the concepts created by the Covid 19 process and that will be heard in management. During the Covid 19 pandemic, the most common work done by school administrators was communication. They have been in contact with teachers, students, parents, superiors and different segments of society through different communication tools during this period. There have also been changes in the communication styles of school administrators. The most important of these changes are the effective use of social media tools and organizing online meetings with parents, teachers and students through these social media tools. The existence of technology has caused changes in management processes. Covid 19 pandemic has resulted in taking advantage of these technologies quickly and utilizing them in management processes effectively in Turkey.

Also, communication has gained importance in digital management. Because social media tools provide the opportunity to reach many people in a short time. Hayashi and Soo (2012) also suggest using social media tools in crisis and disaster situations. However, effective communication is related to the ownership of communication tools by all stakeholders and their effective use. In digital online management, the control area has expanded, online monitoring, supervision, and online meetings have been held. The exhausting aspects of digital management are expressed as well as the facilitating ones. Since the concept of time has disappeared, the opportunity to meet at every hour has created digital fatigue that has increased both convenience and workload. Being at home brought along role confusion.

As each crisis causes new opportunities and changes, the Covid 19 pandemic has also led to significant changes management processes. They have started to take place online and with certain tools. School administrators made mass communication by sending messages to thousands of students and interacted with smaller groups or individually in a short time.

The present study, though with some limitations as it only covers some administrators' experiences and practices during the pandemic, tried to depict a portrait of what was going on at schools in terms of administrative roles and responsibilities. The findings above reminded us again that leadership, especially educational leadership roles of administrators are of utmost importance during such hard times.

Canese and Amarilla (2020) state in their study that in spite of the difficulties, this Covid-19 outbreak is a great opportunity to rethink the educational system. Accordingly, the present study also draws out some policy, practice and research implications to be considered again in terms of school administrators, for both during and post pandemic periods. First of all, effective and high quality in-service training programs and seminars particularly on leadership and crisis management should be envisaged for administrators in order that they can easily cope with unexpected situations and difficulties as this pandemic is definitely not the last one. For other trainings and seminars, needs and skills analyses should be done for a comprehensive view. In addition to in-service training programs for administrators, policy responses should be reconsidered. Since the pandemic started, policy responses have mostly covered online educational tools, preparation of online materials, psychosocial support, free Internet access (Özer, 2020); resolving digital equities,

digital pedagogy, student training (Greenhow, Lewin, & Staudt Willet, 2021); promoting the development of teaching, transformation of education paradigm, disadvantaged students (Xue, Li, Li, & Shang, 2021), inequities (Kidson, Lipscombe, & Tindall-Ford, 2020); teacher training and teaching improvement (Quezada, Talbot, & Quezada-Parker, 2020). However, governments along with educational policy makers also need to maintain a sharp focus on highly critical and new roles and responsibilities of administrators who are providing significant and to the point educational continuity. Because concurrently supporting students and teachers is really demanding for administrators during such challenging times. As for research on administrators, the subject matters and issues so far have been related to needs for assistance concerning student support, access to digital materials, guidance for working online (Johnson, Veletsianos, & Seaman, 2020); leadership (Francisco & Nuqui, 2020); positive and negative aspects of the pandemic, Internet access, technical infrastructure, computer/tablet shortages, problems during the pandemic (Zincirli, 2021); decision making experiences (Kells, 2021); and how to spearhead the continuity of teaching and learning during the pandemic (Asio & Bayucca, 2021). Yet, with the continuing presence of this severe pandemic, we need in-depth researches on educational administrators' new roles and responsibilities with more participants, comparing different regions, and also with a focus on how the academic success of students gets affected. Moreover, the perspectives of different stakeholders could be integrated so as to further document the situation in detail. And finally, with regards to practice, partnerships and collaborations with administrators and other stakeholders should be strengthened through meetings and assemblies. This surely will lead to sharing different experiences and

893

learning from each other, which could yield beneficial results in the end.

References

Akbaba-Altun, S. (2004). Information technology classrooms and elementary school principles' roles: Turkish experience. *Education and Information Technologies.* 9(3): 255-270

Akbaba-Altun, S. (2008). Okul yöneticilerinin teknolojiye karşı tutumlarının incelenmesi. *Çağdaş Eğitim Dergisi*. 286(1). 8-14

Akbaba-Altun, S. (2011). *Türkiye'nin bir gerçeği olarak deprem: Deprem yaşayan okul müdürlerinin yaşantıları ve depreme ilişkin öneriler.* Ankara: Maya Akademi

Akbaba-Altun, S. (2016). Okullarda kriz ve afetlerle başetmede uyarlanabilir liderlik. ss. 351- 375. Ö. Erdur Baker ve T. Doğan, *Afetler, Krizler, Travmalar ve Psikolojik Yardım* (ikinci baskı). Türk Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Derneği Yayını. Ankara.

Aksoy, H.H., & Aksoy, N. (2003). Okullarda krize müdahale planlaması. *Ankara Üniveristesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi Dergisi*, 36 1-2

Aksöz, I., Erdur-Baker, Ö., & Akbaba-Altun, S. (2008). Crisis management strategies by Turkish school principles following natural disasters. In *Proc. WCCI 13th. World Conference in Education* (pp. 66-80).

Anderson, J. B. (2008). Principals' role and public primary schools' effectiveness in four Latin American cities. *The Elementary School Journal*, 109(1), 36-60.

Asio, J. M. R., & Bayucca, S. (2021). Spearheading education during the COVID-19 rife: Administrators' level of digital competence and

schools' readiness on distance learning. *Journal of Pedagogical Sociology and Psychology*, *3*(1), 19-26.

Behbahani, A. (2011). Educational leaders and role of education on the efficiency of school principals. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 15, 9-11.

Berg, B.L., (1998). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*, Needham Heights, MA, Allyn and Bacon.

Blume, F. L., Diehl, R. W., Norton, J. A., Varner, G. F., & Marshall, J. E. (1946). Duties and responsibilities of high-school principals and assistant principals. *The bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 30(142), 9-12.

Bortree, D.S. (2010) Exploring adolescent–organization relationships: A study of effective relationship strategies with adolescent volunteers. *Journal of Public Relations Research,* 22:1, 1-25, DOI: 10.1080/10627260902949421

Canese, V., & Amarilla, J. (2020). Educational administrators' facing COVID-19 measures in Paraguay. *Journal of Educational Technology Development and Exchange (JETDE)*, *13*(1), 4.

Chan, A. K., Nickson, C. P., Rudolph, J. W., Lee, A., & Joynt, G. M. (2020). Social media for rapid knowledge dissemination: early experience from the COVID-19 pandemic. *Anaesthesia, 75,* 1579–1582

Çiçek, A., & Özsezer, S. (2015). Liselerde okul yöneticilerinin kriz yönetme becerileri. *The Journal of Academic Social Science Studies*, *34*, 1-14.

Cisler, A., & Bruce, M. A. (2013). Principals: What are their roles and responsibilities? *Journal of School Counseling*, 11(10), n10.

Cosner, S. (2011). Supporting the initiation and early development of evidence-based grade-level collaboration in urban elementary

895

schools: Key roles and strategies of principals and literacy coordinators. *Urban Education*, 46(4), 786-827.

Döş, I., & Cömert, M. (2012). Öğretmen denetiminde çoklu zekâ kuramı. *Turkish Journal of Education*, 1(1), 38-51.

Elger, T. (2010), Critical realism, in A. Mills, G. Durepos and E. Wiebe (eds), *Encyclopedia of Case Study Research, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications*, vol. 1, pp. 253-257.

Francisco, C.DC., & Nuqui, A.V. (2020). Emergence of a situational leadership during COVID-19 pandemic called new normal leadership. International Journal of Academic Multidisciplinary Research, 4 (10), 15-19. http://dx.doi.org/10.17613/etsv-nn43

Gardiner, M. E., & Enomoto, E. K. (2006). Urban school principals and their role as multicultural leaders. *Urban Education*, 41(6), 560-584.

George, C. (1972) *The history of management thought.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs.

Graham, J. W., (2000). Promoting civic virtue organizational citizenship behavior: Contemporary questions rooted in classical quandaries from political philosophy. *Human Resource Management Review*, Vol.10, Iss.1, s.71-72.

Grant, J. M., & Mack, D. A. (2004). Preparing for the Battle. *Organizational Dynamics*, 4(33), 409-425.

Greenhow, C., Lewin, C., & Staudt Willet, K. B. (2021). The educational response to Covid-19 across two countries: A critical examination of initial digital pedagogy adoption. *Technology, Pedagogy and Education*, 1-19.

Hadjithoma-Garstka, C. (2011). The role of the principal's leadership style in the implementation of ICT policy. *British journal of educational technology*, 42(2), 311-326.

Hayashi, C., & Soo, A. (2012). Adaptive leadership in times of crisis. *Prism*, *4*(1), 78-86.

Hoerr, T. R. (2009). Principal as parachute. *Educational Leadership* 90-91

Jimerson, S. R., Brock, S. E., & Pletcher, S. W. (2005). An integrated model of school crisis preparedness and intervention: A shared foundation to facilitate international crisis intervention. *School Psychology International*, 26(3), 275-296.

Johnson, N., Veletsianos, G., & Seaman, J. (2020). US faculty and administrators' experiences and approaches in the early weeks of the COVID-19 pandemic. *Online Learning*, *24*(2), 6-21.

Kadji-Beltran, C., Zachariou, A., & Stevenson, R. B. (2013). Leading sustainable schools: Exploring the role of primary school principals. *Environmental education research*, 19(3), 303-323.

Kaminskienė, L., Tūtlys, V., Gedvilienė, G., & Chu, L. Y. (2021). Coping with the pandemic and the school lockdowns: The perspective of Lithuanian school principals. *Journal of Contemporary Educational Studies/Sodobna Pedagogika, 72*.

Kells, L. M. (2021). *Educational Administrators' Decision-Making Experiences during COVID-19 Pandemic: A Phenomenological Study* (Doctoral dissertation, University of La Verne).

Kidson, P., Lipscombe, K. & Tindall-Ford, S. (2020). Co-designing educational policy: Professional voice and policy making post-COVID. *International Studies in Educational Administration, 48* (3), 15-22.

Kindred, L. W. (1951). What is the principal's responsibility for supervision? *The bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 35(178), 15-18.

Kwan, P. (2011). Examining the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the relation between responsibilities and career aspiration of vice-principals. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 50(5-6), 349-361.

Larsen, C., & Rieckhoff, B. S. (2014). Distributed leadership: Principals describe shared roles in a PDS. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 17(3), 304-326.

Lindberg, E. (2012). The power of role design: Balancing the principals' financial responsibility with the implications of stress. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability,* 24(2), 151-171.

Louis, K. S., & Wahlstrom, K. (2011). Principals as cultural leaders. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 92(5), 52-56.

Marzano, R. J. (2013). The principal's role in hierarchical evaluation. *Educational Leadership* 82-83

Mestry, R., Moonsammy-Koopasammy, I., & Schmidt, M. (2013). The instructional leadership role of primary school principals. *Education as Change*, 17(sup1), S49-S64.

Mishra, S. K., & Yadav, B. (2013). Role ability among the middle class principals (Khargone (MP) India). *International Journal of Education*, 5(1), 156.

Mullen, C. A., & Hutinger, J. L. (2008). The principal's role in fostering collaborative learning communities through faculty study group development. *Theory into practice*, 47(4), 276-285.

Oplatka, I. (2013). The principal's role in promoting teachers' extra-role behaviors: Some insights from road-safety education. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 12(4), 420-439.

Özer, M. (2020). Educational policy actions by the ministry of national education in the times of COVID-19. *Kastamonu Education Journal, 28*(3), 1124-1129. doi: 10.24106/kefdergi.722280

Pintrich, P. R., & Schunk, D. H. (2002). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and applications* (2nd ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Quezada, R. L., Talbot, C., & Quezada-Parker, K. B. (2020). From bricks and mortar to remote teaching: A teacher education program's response to COVID-19. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 46*(4), 472-483.

Quilici, S. B., & Joki, R. (2011). Investigating roles of online school principals. *Journal of Research on Technology in Education*, 44(2), 141-160.

Reddy, B. V., & Gupta, A. (2020). Importance of effective communication during COVID-19 infodemic. *Journal of Family Medicine and Primary Care, 9*(8), 3793.

Reyes-Guerra, D., Maslin-Ostrowski, P., Barakat, M. Y., & Stefanovic, M. A. (2021). Confronting a Compound Crisis: The School Principal's Role During Initial Phase of the COVID-19 Pandemic. In *Frontiers in Education* (Vol. 6, p. 87). Frontiers.

Sandoval, J., & Brock, S. E. (2002). School violence and disasters. *Handbook of crisis counseling, intervention, and prevention in the schools*, 249-272.

Spillane, J. P., & Lee, L. C. (2014). Novice school principals' sense of ultimate responsibility: Problems of practice in transitioning to the principal's office. *Educational Administration Quarterly,* 50(3), 431-465.

Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. California: Sage.

Telem, M. (2001). Computerization of school administration: impact on the principal's role - a case study. *Computers & Education*, 37(3-4), 345-362.

Watkins, P. (2005). The principal's role in attracting, retaining, and developing new teachers: Three strategies for collaboration and support. *The Clearing House: A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas*, 79(2), 83-87.

Wegenke, G. L. (2000). Principal's role in school restructuring in the Des Moines public schools. *Education and Urban Society*, 32(4), 519-534.

White-Smith, K. A., & White, M. A. (2009). High school reform implementation: Principals' perceptions on their leadership role. *Urban Education*, 44(3), 259-279.

Xaba, M. I., & Nhlapo, V. A. (2014). Principals' views on challenges of their school governance roles. *Africa Education Review*, 11(3), 424-444.

Xue, E., Li, J., Li, T., & Shang, W. (2021). China's education response to COVID-19: A perspective of policy analysis. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, *53*(9), 881-893.

Yin, R. K. (1994). Discovering the future of the case study. Method in evaluation research. *Evaluation practice*, *15*(3), 283-290.

Zincirli, M. (2021). School administrators' views on distance education during the COVID-19 pandemic process. *Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Technology*, *9*(2), 52-66.

About the authors:

Sadegül Akbaba Altun is a professor at Faculty of Education, Başkent University. She received her Ph.D. degrees from Ankara University and University of Cincinnati. Her research interests include educational administration and leadership, chaos, crisis management and educational technology.

Authorship credit details: Conceptualization, administration, methodology; formulated research goals, aims, administrated the research and designed the methodology.

E-mail: akbabas@baskent.edu.tr

Mustafa Bulut is an instructor at School of Foreign Languages, Başkent University. He received his MA degree from Hacettepe University. His research interests include educational administration and leadership, quality assurance and higher education.

Authorship credit details: Writing, review, original draft preparation; preparation, translation of the work.

E-mail: bulutm@baskent.edu.tr

Principal's Role in Supporting Teacher Collaborative Learning

Rexhep Krasniqi

University of Ljubljana, Ljubljana, Slovenia

Abstract	Article Info
Teacher collaborative learning remains one of the fundamental methods of teacher professional development. Due to various factors, teachers have to be encouraged, counselled, and supported for taking part in such activities and that competence is commonly entrusted to principals. This research investigates the role of the principal in supporting teachers' participation in collaborative learning activities. The study was conducted through the mixed-method approach and the data were collected from 518 teachers and eight principals of 24 schools in Kosovo. Descriptive and inferential statistics were employed to analyze the quantitative data and the qualitative ones were explored through the thematic analysis. According to teachers' responses, principals employ a number of methods and offer teachers strong support for attending learning activities. Principals narrated that collaborative learning is a complex process and they have to apply various approaches, including authoritative, democratic, and instructional leadership styles, for maintaining a collaborative culture in their schools. They also revealed that collaborative learning takes place mainly in professional communities, mentoring pairs, and collective collaborative events, which are still implemented according to the traditional approaches. The findings show that newer and more advanced collaborative learning models are not applied in the research context. The research recommends that Kosovo schools should start utilizing other forms of collaborative learning and should modernize the current ones because they are insufficient and incompatible with contemporary requirements. Further similar research is recommended as such studies are almost inexistent in the research context.	

Introduction

Teaching is a collaborative, competitive, and complex profession. It requires continuous refinements in order for teachers to master the skills, knowledge, and methods needed for completing their tasks professionally, accountably, and successfully. Consequently, the top performing education systems encourage and support their teachers to involve in various learning activities leading to their professional development (Fullan, 2014). Evidently, teachers learn in different ways and formats for developing professionally, but Knight (2009) maintains, "Teachers engage in professional development every day—they just don't do it with professional developers. Teachers learn from each other all the time by sharing lesson plans, assessments, activities, and ideas about individual students" (p. 3). In addition, according to Eraut (2014), teachers learn much more from each other than from formal learning activities since situations are concrete and feedback is instantaneous. Also, activities conducted in a cooperative spirit strengthen collegial relations, which lead to a greater trust, collaborative climate, and more personal and professional support (Servage, 2008; Stoll, 2010).

Teacher collaboration has attracted the attention of various scholars, who have identified the existence of positive correlations between teacher collaborative activities, instructional improvements, and students' attainment (Goddard, Goddard & Tschannen-Moran 2007; Lyna, Hung & Chong, 2016). Furthermore, Hargreaves and Fullan (2012) caution, "Teachers will be short on professional capital if

they spend most of their professional time alone, if they do not get feedback and support from colleagues" (p. 102). Additionally, Goddard, Goddard and Tschannen-Moran (2007) argue, "The more teachers collaborate, the more they are able to converse knowledgably about theories, methods, and process of teaching and learning, and thus improve their instruction" (p. 879).

Teacher collaborative learning as a process that involves two or more teachers, working on resolving various educational challenges and enhancing their professionalism, is applied traditionally in Kosovo's schools, where the research was conducted. Due to its importance, collaborative learning has been listed in a number of policies and bylaws as a compulsory prerequisite for the school personnel. For instance, the latest Curriculum Framework on the Pre-University Education (CFPUE), which was launched in 2016, stipulates that teacher collaboration is fundamental for the improvement of teaching and learning quality. Amongst others, the document stipulates, "Teachers shall engage in teamwork and cooperate with the professional community on planning lessons, exchanging experiences about the learning process, and evaluating the gradual progress of students throughout the school year" (p. 56). Other bylaws also describe professional communities as mechanisms that contribute to the increase of teaching and learning quality as teachers exchange experiences and produce materials jointly in these forums.

It should also be borne in mind that teachers usually have busy schedules, therefore, their collaboration is often affected by different factors (Brook, Rimm-Kaufman, 2007; Yuan & Zhang, 2016). As a result, they need to be encouraged, advised, and supported for engaging in such activities and this duty is usually entrusted to principals (Edwards, 2011; Hord, 1997). The instructions included in

Kosovo's legislation also recognize that principals are the driving force behind teacher collaborative learning and they have a critical role in creating the necessary environment enabling teacher collaboration.

Considering the importance that Kosovo's policies and various scholars attribute to the teacher collaborative learning and the role of the principal in it, this research investigated the role of the principal in creating and maintaining a collaborative learning culture in the school. The goal was to understand what are the most common methods utilized by the principals to support the participation of teachers in collaborative learning activities as well as the challenges they encounter in this process. The topic was explored by analyzing teachers' opinions, expressed through an assessment scale, and narratives shared by principals via interviews. This article includes only a portion of the findings of the doctoral research, which explored the role of the principal in supporting the professional development of teachers in Kosovo.

Theoretical Background

Literature recognizes that teacher collaborative learning is organized in various formats, including peer mentoring (Schwille, 2008; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2000), professional learning communities (Wahlstrom & Seashore Louis, 2008; Senge 2006), coaching (Miller & Stewart, 2013; Knight, 2007), study groups (Mullen & Huntiger 2008; Post & Varoz, 2008), action research (Wood, 2017; Altrichter, Kemmis, McTaggart & Zuber-Skerrit (2002), and other models. Scholars also maintain that principals play a major role in the process of collaborative learning. However, the literature reviewed below focuses primarily on peer mentoring and professional learning communities

(PLCs) and the role of the principal in creating a learning conducive environment for teachers.

Teacher Collaborative Learning: Mentorships and PLCs

Scholars predict that 21st century schools will depend on the professional capacities of their members, their dedication to innovation, and their commitment to professional collaboration (Schleicher, 2015; Bryk, Bender-Sebring, Allensworth, Lupescu, Easton, 2010; Eraut 2014). One of the most commonly school-based collaborative learning formats is peer mentoring which is a dynamic process that requires continuous communication between the mentor and mentee. Mentors are expected to possess advanced judgmental skills and deep knowledge of the subject matter. According to Schwille (2008), mentoring is a method aimed at helping mainly novice and pre-service teachers to bridge the learned theories and practices with real classroom situations. He also found that mentoring takes place in the presence and absence of students or as he describes 'inside the action and outside the action.' Hargreaves and Fullan (2000) believe that mentoring is an approach that will enhance teacher professionalization and will improve schools in the 21st century. They theorized that mentorship as a professional method should be offered to all the teachers, irrespective of one's experience and tenure.

Teachers collaborate closely and learn together through PLCs, which aid them to accumulate pedagogical knowledge, to enhance their instructional and assessment methods, and to implement curriculum successfully (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000). PLCs also help building of positive relationships inside and outside the school (Wahlstrom & Louis, 2008). Educationalists use a variety of formulations to describe PLCs, but the common denominator is that they are groups of professionals learning and working together aiming

907

at enhancing their knowledge and skills leading to the improvement of students' attainment. For instance, Mitchell and Sackney (2000) define PLCs as "A group of people who take an active, reflective, collaborative, learning-oriented, and growth-promoting approach toward the mysteries, problems, and perplexities of teaching and learning" (p. 12). In addition, Kiefer and Senge (1982) theorized that members of PLCs are united people that "Transcend their personal limitations and realize a collective synergy" (p. 1). Collay, Dunlap, Enloy and Gagnon (1998) stipulated that learning in a community of professionals is the opposite of isolation as it develops in an interactive environment, where individual contribution is an integral part of a systematic learning process. According to Vescio, Ross, and Adams (2007), PLCs may have a significant impact on changing the school culture, collaboration between teachers, and teachers' focus on student learning.

Principals' Support for Collaborative Learning

Nowadays schools are operating in a rapidly changing world, which requires continuous changes, whose management is usually entrusted to the principals. They have to work with and to address the needs of teachers, students, parents, school bodies, institutional representatives, local community, and external stakeholders (Lortie, 2009). Various administrative, pedagogical, infrastructural, and developmental aspects of schools depend on principals' decisions. For a successful fulfilment of their tasks, principals have to master and apply a wide spectrum of leadership approaches during a single day (Fullan, Rincon-Gallardo & Hargreaves, 2015). Scholars also note that principals have a major, but indirect role in schools' performance. For instance, Leithwood, Seashore Louis, Anderson, and Wahlstrom (2004) concluded, "Leadership is second only to classroom instruction among

all school-related factors that contribute to what students learn at school" (p. 5).

Various scholars underscore that one of the primary tasks of a principal is to create an environment that fosters teacher professional improvement leading to better student and school results. Bubb and Earley (2007) posit, "Leading and managing people and their development have to be seen as a central part of the responsibility of managing the school's total resources" (p. 7). In addition, Kouzes and Posner (2002) maintain, "The leader's primary contribution is in the recognition of good ideas, the support of those ideas, and the willingness to challenge the system to get new products, processes, services, and systems adopted" (p. 17). Furthermore, Bellamy, Fulmer, Murphy, Muth (2007) theorize, "Effective principals do not simply accept the goals established by professional associations or political representatives" (p. 67). Fullan (2008) considers that 21st century principals are expected to lead knowledgeably and to support the "interactions that keep teachers at that level through continuous application and refinement" (p. 25). Meanwhile, according to Edwards (2011), "To be effective, teachers must be provided with an environment that helps to build professionalism" (p. 135).

According to, Brook, Sawyer, & Rimm-Kaufman (2007), teacher collaboration may be formal and informal. They found that the first type of teacher collaboration is initiated by principals and takes place in formal learning events. The latter is initiated by teachers and occurs before or after working hours, during breaks or events organized by the school. Other scholars have found that principals have the main say in the structural composition of PLCs by grouping teachers into collaborative teams based on department, content area, and/or grade level (Hallam, Smith, Hite, Hite, & Wilcox, 2015). Furthermore,

Bellamy, Fulmer, Murphy and Muth (2007) posit principals may be guardians of school's values if, "Principals are in a unique position to influence the development of community values, if they choose to lead actively in the public arena. Such leadership occurs as principals engage others in conversations that have the potential for conflicting views" (p. 74). Meanwhile, drawing on personal experience as school principals, Dufour and Mattos (2013) consider that today's "Schools need learning leaders who create a school-wide focus on learning both for students and the adults who serve them" (p. 39).

Thus, irrespective of positive relationships between the teachers of a school and their commitment to learning, teacher collaboration does not happen on its own. Teachers need to be encouraged, counselled, and organized for partaking in collaborative learning activities. In the majority of cases, such a support is provided by principals, who have the responsibility, authority and competencies to create a collaborative learning culture in the schools they run. On the other hand, teacher collaboration is not part of teacher and principal education programs. As a result, it often turns into a difficult and challenging process that requires a strong commitment, professional experience, and resolute leadership.

Methodology

This research, which was focused on examining the role of the principal in supporting teacher collaborative learning, was conducted in 24 primary lower secondary schools in four major towns in Kosovo. It started with the exploration of teachers' opinions about the methods applied by principals to support teacher collaborative learning. The second phase included interviews with principals, who shared their experiences related to the research topic. Kosovo's respective legal

framework was also considered because it contains details that affect teacher collaborative learning and principals' role in it.

Research Purpose

Literature analyzing aspects of teacher collaborative learning is abundant, but empirical studies that explore the opinions of teachers about and experiences of principals with this process are sparse. Such research is almost non-existent in the research context, Kosovo, even though continuous teacher professional development is considered to be an instrument that will help the improvement of teachers' quality leading to a better students' attainment. Kosovo students have participated in the Program for International Students Assessment (PISA) in 2015 and 2018, but in spite of investments in the teacher education programs and opportunities, they were ranked in both cases the third from the bottom of the list (OECD, 2016). Acknowledging this failure, Kosovo's Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (MEST) announced profound reforms. As a first step, the Ministry launched the Education Strategic Plan 2017-2021, which describes teacher professional development and empowerment of school leadership as two out of seven main components expected to improve the quality of teaching and student attainment.

Teacher education and professional development Kosovo have undergone tremendous changes over the last three decades. Due to political developments in Kosovo, teachers were prevented from taking part in any professional development program from 1990 to 1999. Collaborative activities were the only possibility for them to discuss the professional challenges. But the situation changed after 1999, when they could attend different learning activities, delivered by various domestic and international institutions. In addition, after 1999, teachers were asked to change their teaching approach from teacher-

centered to student-centered teaching, focused on developing students' competences. They were also offered various training programs, including collaborative activities, aiming at assisting them to fulfill the new requirements.

Even though collaborative learning is one of the key approaches of teacher professional development worldwide, not only in Kosovo, teachers are often prevented from taking part in such activities due to various distractors. However, literature and Kosovo's legislation stipulate that one of the primary tasks of a principals is to create a collaborative learning conducive environment in the schools. Given that schools may utilize a broad array of collaborative learning methods and considering principal's role in this process, this research will attempt to answer the following questions:

1. What is the opinion of teachers about the methods applied by the principals to support teacher collaborative learning?

2. What are the experiences of principals pertaining to their support for teacher collaborative learning?

Research Methods

The research employed the mix-method approach, the goal of which, as Gay, Mills, and Arian (2012) conclude, is "To build on the synergy and strength that exists between quantitative and qualitative research methods to understand a phenomenon more fully than is possible using either quantitative or qualitative methods alone" (p. 483). Research methods' theoreticians note that the mixed methods may utilize a number of typologies for collection of data. This research employed the explanatory sequential typology, which "involves a two-phase data collection project in which the researcher collects quantitative data in the first phase, analyses the results, and then uses

the results to plan (or build onto) the second, qualitative phase" (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 221). Furthermore, Gay et al (2012) posit that the use of more sources of information is a form of triangulation that contributes to the trustworthiness of a research study. Thus, a review of the respective legislation was also conducted, which helped the researcher to identify a number of issues that affect the topic of the research in different aspects.

The mixed-method approach was deemed adequate for this research given that due to various factors and experiences, teachers and principals may have different perceptions about the collaborative learning and the role of the principal in supporting this process. For instance, Maund (2003) maintains that due to perceptions, one may have various opinions about the same issue under different circumstances. Thus, their realities about a phenomenon they are asked to evaluate or describe are not more valid than the truths of other participants. In such a case, numbers or words alone are insufficient for understanding a problem, therefore, quantitative and qualitative data are complementary.

Data Collection, Instruments, and Analysis

This research applied the explanatory sequential approach and the data were collected from October 2019 to March 2020. The quantitative data were collected first through an evaluation scale, which contained 11 closed-ended questions seeking to understand teachers' opinions about the methods applied by the principals to foster collaborative learning. Respondents were requested to give their opinions by selecting one of the five-point Likert scale options varying from (5) strongly agree to (1) strongly disagree. However, the researcher was more "interested in how many [respondents] are in one side and how many are in the other side" (Gosavi, 2015, p. 28). Thus,

913

for the sake of analysis, the answers were collapsed through the SPSS software into three groups. The strongly agree and agree answers were collapsed into one group, termed agree; the strongly disagree and disagree answers were combined into the group named disagree; and the neutral responses were treated separately. The data from the questionnaires were processed using methods of descriptive and inferential statistics. The statistical procedures employed were: frequency distribution of the attributive variables, basic descriptive statistics of the numerical variables (mean, standard deviation), factor analysis to test the instrument validity and Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient as a measure of instrument reliability. The scale reached a high level of reliability (α = 0.893). Its validity was explained through the first factor, which explained 49.1% of the variance.

In addition, the qualitative data, collected through semi-structured interviews with eight principals were recorded fully, transcribed verbatim, and translated from the Albanian into English language. All the interviews were conducted from February to March 2019 and occurred in principals' offices. The average time of interviews was 46 minutes, ranging from 36 to 67 minutes.

Thematic analysis was employed to analyze the dataset. Braun and Clarke (2006) argue, "Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analyzing and reporting patterns (themes) within data" (p. 79). According to them it is also a method that "Reports experiences, meanings and the reality of participants" (p. 81). Referring to their recommendations, the researcher firstly familiarized himself with the data during the transcription of the interviews, which led to the generation of initial codes. This method allowed the researcher to identify common as well as particular themes depicting the experiences encountered by the principals while trying to support and

maintain a collaborative learning culture in their schools. Following an exhaustive reading of the transcripts, the researcher identified and coded accordingly the main themes related to principal's role in teacher collaborative learning. An educational leadership expert, who is a friend of the researcher, was asked to read the transcripts and to generate her own codes. Afterwards, they compared their notes, findings, and conclusions, which led to the creation of the themes presented below. The goal of their conversation was to pave the path to replicability of the research and to ensure research validity and reliability as defined by Creswell and Creswell (2018).

While preparing the questions for the quantitative and qualitative parts of the research and analyzing the dataset, the researcher was impacted by theories on instructional and transformational leadership in education, which are described as styles that encourage continuous staff professional development leading to improved services offered by the individuals and collective of an organization. Hoy and Hoy (2013) argue, "Instructional leadership calls for principals to work with teacher colleagues to improve instruction by providing a school culture and climate where change is linked to the best available knowledge about student learning" (p. 3). Furthermore, Bass and Riggio (2006) posit, "Transformational leaders motivate others to do more than they originally intended and often even more than they thought possible" (p. 4). The author believes that principals that possess such traits may ensure a collaborative learning environment in the schools irrespective of external circumstances and possible impediments.

The questions included in the evaluation scale were formed based on different research studies that explore teacher learning models and the role of the principal in this process. Thus, scholars have

found that action research is a rather complex teacher learning method, therefore, principal's instructions and support are very important (Marquardt, 2000; Vogrinc & Valencic Zuljan, 2009). Additionally, a lot of coaching and mentorship programs depend on the arrangements made by the principals (Atteberry & Bryk, 2011; Lynch & Ferguson, 2010; Schwille, 2008; Mrvar, Resman, Kalin & Mazgon, 2019). Meanwhile, principals assist the activities of the study groups by setting a clear vision and goals as well as by creating a collaborative environment (Mullen & Huntiger, 2008; Post & Varoz 2008). According to Hord (1997), collaboration may trigger conflicts between the participants, therefore, principals are expected to lower the tensions in order to maintain a positive learning culture in the school. Woodland (2006) concludes that one should not expect from teachers to involve in learning activities if they are not offered clear instructions about the process, and such information is usually provided by the principals. Furthermore, trust in the principal and amongst the cohort affects colleagues' personal and professional relations and school climate (Taschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015; Handford & Leithwood, 2013). According to Stoll (2010), trust in the principals and colleagues encourages teachers to speak openly about the challenges they face and professional needs they have. In addition, Leithwood, Seashore Louis, Anderson and Wahlstrom (2004) posit that principals have a key role in the establishment of professional learning communities in their school and in supporting them to discuss professional issues. Somprach, Tang and Popoonsak (2015) have also found positive associations between school leadership and professional learning communities. In the view of Harris and Jones (2014), principals are a catalyst of a school culture that supports collective learning. Hargreaves and Fullan (2012) promote the idea that principals should not only support teacher learning, but they should also lead learners

by participating personally in learning activities. Meanwhile, Evers, Van der Heijeden, Krejins and Gerrichhauzen (2011) found that structural factors impact teachers' participation in learning activities and the support they receive from the supervisors influences their attendance in such programs.

Given that researcher's professional experience stems from organizations that are not focused on educational matters, when analyzing the data, he was influenced by empirical findings and theories on educational leadership and teacher professional development. However, the researcher has been living in Kosovo and due to professional interest has followed carefully education-related developments for 20 years as portrayed by the media. On the other hand, the researcher had no prior knowledge about the participating schools and their personnel. He met only with the principals and only for research purposes. Thus, the interpretations below are made from the perspective of an external researcher based on understandings gained from literature, collected data, and respective policies.

Sample

The research was conducted in 24 primary lower secondary urban schools located in four major municipalities in Kosovo. Since Kosovo is a small country and its policies on teacher education and professional development are almost uniform, random sampling was deemed appropriate for selecting the participating schools and respondents. Quantitative data were collected through questionnaires administered to 720 teachers, whose return rate was 72% (n= 518). The demographic characteristics of the subjects included gender, age, employment status, educational background, and work experience. The majority of them were female teachers and less than one quarter of them were males. As for the age, the largest group comprised of

teachers 40-49 years old, less than a quarter of them were 30-39, and little more than a quarter of them were 50-59 years old. In terms of the position, the division between class and subject teachers was almost equal. The highest number of respondents hold Bachelor Degrees and less than one quarter of them have finished Master's studies. Lastly, the vast majority of the participants have been teaching for more than 15 years and only 1.2% of them are novice teachers.

The second sample included eight principals, selected according to the random procedures from the group of 24 schools. Geographical distribution included two principals per town. The average age of the interviewed principals was 46.8 years, ranging from 38 to 56 years old. Their common teaching experience was 14.8 years, varying from 5 to 30 years. And, their average time serving as school principals was 7.5 years, ranging from 1 to 20 years of experience. The participant with 20 years of experience was a deputy-principal for a period of time. In addition, except for one, other seven principals have obtained Master's Degrees, focused on educational leadership.

Results

The data for this research were collected through quantitative and qualitative procedures and instruments. The findings are presented according to the explanatory sequential approach, implying that quantitative findings are presented first and qualitative ones follow. Initially, the quantitative results reveal teachers' opinions about the methods applied by the principals to support their collaborative learning as expressed in an assessment scale. Meanwhile, the qualitative data disclose principals' opinions in this process.

Teachers' Opinion about the Methods Used by the Principals to Support Teacher Collaborative Learning

As the goal of this research question was to understand how principals facilitate collaborative learning in the schools, respondents were requested to give their opinions about the methods applied by the principal for the creation of a learning environment in the school by selecting one of the five-point scale options varying from (5) strongly agree to (1) to strongly agree. As already indicated, for the sake of analysis, the selected answers were collapsed into three groups: agree, disagree, and neutral. The distribution of data was assessed through the SPSS software and all the distributions were negatively skewed, with lowest mean 3.99, reached in the fourth item, and highest mean 4.48, reached in the ninth item. The mean scores about various methods applied by the principals to facilitate teachers' participation in collaborative activities ranged from 76.1% to 85.8%, as shown in the Table 1.

Table 1.

Methods applied by principals for creating a learning environment in school.

No.	The principal has created collaborative learning environment by:	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
1	Supporting teachers to participate in action research, coaching, mentoring, lesson study.	82.6%	13.4%	4.1%
2	Creating a collaborative learning climate and culture in the school that urges teachers to develop such activities.	83.1%	12.0%	4.8%
3	Motivating teachers to share with their colleagues the skills and knowledge they have acquired in various professional development occasions.	83.9%	11.8%	4.3%
4	Encouraging teachers to conduct joint research on the challenges they encounter.	76.1%	16.1%	7.7%
5	Creating a trusting environment in the school where teachers speak freely about their professional needs and challenges.	81.5%	13.6%	4.9%
6	Encouraging teachers to ask for his/her advice about educational issues.	80.9%	14.6%	4.5%
7	Creating a professional learning community in the school.	80.0%	14.9%	5.1%
8	Encouraging teachers to learn and work in teams and groups.	85.8%	9.8%	4.4%
9	Participating in professional development activities together with teachers.	85.1%	9.4%	5.5%
10	Motivating teachers to produce individually or collectively teaching materials adequate for their classes/school.	81.5%	13.3%	5.3%
11	Creating special facilities in the school where teachers may develop professional development activities together.	77.8%	14.1%	8.1%

According to the results from the Table 1, principals offer a solid support to teachers to engage in collaborative learning activities. One of the main methods applied by them is to motivate teachers to learn and work in teams. 85.8% of the respondents agreed with this statement. The next method is by participating in professional development activities alongside the teachers, which was confirmed by 85.1% of the respondents. 83.9% of the respondents admitted that principals have motivated them to share the knowledge they have acquired in different professional development activities. Furthermore, 83.1% of the respondents agreed that principals have created an atmosphere and culture that encourages teachers to develop collaborative activities in the school. 82.6% of the respondents also confirmed that principals have supported them to attend action research, mentoring programs, or study groups. In addition, 81.5% of the respondents agreed that principals have created a trusting environment in the school where teachers may discuss freely their needs. Another 81.5% said that they have also been encouraged to create individually or collectively professional materials. 80.9% of the respondents admitted that principals encouraged them to seek professional advice from her/him. According to 80% of the respondents, principals have created professional communities in their schools. Based on 76.7% of the respondents, principals have created special facilities in the school for teacher learning activities. Lastly, 76.1% of the respondents agreed that principals have encouraged them to conduct joint research about the challenges they are encountering.

These findings indicate that there are various opportunities available for teachers to learn and work collaboratively. They also reveal that teachers are strongly supported by the principals to be part of such activities, which are important for them and the whole school.

921

Nevertheless, these findings should be considered with caution, as explained in the next section.

What are the experiences of principals pertaining to their support for teacher collaborative learning?

The findings collected through interviews with the principals describe the situations they experienced during their efforts to create collaborative learning environments in the schools they run. They show that principals have a decisive role in facilitating such a process in their schools. Also, the interviewees believe that teacher collaboration in their schools is generally adequate but it needs to be continuously encouraged, cultivated, coordinated, and even imposed if necessary. It was learned that teacher collaboration is affected by a number of factors, such as policies, structural conditions, teacher personality and all these require principals' touch. It was also understood that teachers learn collaboratively primarily through activities of professional communities and mentorship opportunities. Furthermore, findings show that principals create a collaborative learning environment through coordinating the activities of professional communities, arranging mentoring pairs, instructing uncooperative teachers, providing instructional support, and delegating responsibilities.

Professional Communities

Teacher collaboration in the participating schools is cherished and cultivated as a traditional value, embraced and practiced by senior and novice teachers. However, a more intensive teacher collaboration, according to the principals, is applied in the activities of professional communities, which are divided into two major groups: grade and curricular area professional communities. Every professional

community has a chairperson and hold monthly meetings, which are attended by the principals, unless they are prevented by other obligations.

While the structures of these forums are coordinated and managed by the principals, their activities often depend on the school size, a factor that makes principal's decisions crucial. There are cases when principals of smaller schools have to make different adjustments and coordinate teachers of various grades or curricular area to work together in order to have functional professional communities and quality activities.

Facing such a situation, a principal that leads a small school, narrated:

> ''Since we have only two classes per grade, a professional community ended up with two members only. They usually met over a coffee, talked a little, and that was it. That was not an environment where a lot was exchanged or learned. Thus, I brought the teachers of three grades together into one professional community and discussions became richer.''

On the other hand, the situation is completely different in larger schools. For instance, one of the principals explained that her school has more than 100 teachers, who are grouped into different professional communities, meet on a regular basis and have very fruitful discussions. As a result, their activities are more productive, efficient, and collaborative. The principal of such a school explained that she mainly offers instructions about the agendas of the meetings rather than about other issues.

According to another principal, an important activity and task of the professional community in her school is to prepare various student tests. But she noted that she always checks their plans because

923

she cannot allow, for instance, teachers of social sciences and natural sciences to hold tests in the same week because that would be a burden for the students. This principal believed that she had the professional communities under control, a practice shows that there is a lack of genuine trust, coordination and communication amongst the colleagues since such situations should not be repeated in small organizations as schools are. Therefore, it would be better if the principal worked on improving communication and accountability in the school.

Professional communities also help novice teachers to familiarize with the school's culture and to understand the requirements of their profession concretely given that they are involved in various activities and discussions with more senior colleagues. "The new teachers learn a lot from the professional communities because they are put to work together with colleagues that have been part of the teaching process for years," one of principals said. Thus, professional communities are also platforms enabling novice teachers to understand the educational theories and practices discussed during the preservice studies. They also help them collaborative work between peers, an issue that is usually left unaddressed in the teacher education programs.

Mentoring Pairs

When new teachers join the profession, they usually face various challenges because the classroom reality differs from the theoretical situations studied in academia. As a result, they have to provide answers and interpretations as well as to make assessments and decisions almost every minute. The principals, who are familiar with the strengths and weaknesses of their colleagues, usually ask the more experienced teachers to assist and mentor their novice colleagues

and others in need for assistance. All the interviewed participants confirmed that senior teachers are willing to help and advice their less experienced colleagues.

Sharing a personal experience, one of the principals stated that senior teachers in his school have helped their younger colleagues since the 90s, when he had joined this school as a teacher. "I did learn a lot from them. Fortunately, this tradition has never stopped in our school," he said. This case confirms that collaborative learning was the only professional development method for teachers in the 90s of the last century.

Another principal indicated that peer collaboration depends on mutual respect. It was noted that the majority of novice teachers show great respect for the more experienced teachers and it grows even more when they work together. "We have a teacher that was principal in another school for some time and 90% of our staff call him principal. They do that out of respect for him and his service," the principals said. According to another principal, the roles of senior and novice teachers in mentorship relations have changed over the last years. He explained that even though younger teachers are usually the ones that learn from their senior colleagues, there are also cases when the contrary happens when teachers have to integrate ICT equipment into the educational process.

Even though they take pride in teacher collaboration through mentorship, the principals did not share vibrant examples describing how this approach works in their schools. It is likely that they arrange such pairs but do not follow how they practically collaborate and what is the result of such activities. Given their crucial role in this process, principals are expected to request detailed feedback from both teachers, which would help them to understand the capacities of both

925

sides and to consider additional assistance if necessary. That would also make both teachers more accountable when working together.

Authoritarian, Democratic, Instructional Leadership Approaches

In spite of the guidance provided in the respective policies and legislation as well as the willingness of teachers, collaborative activities do not happen per se. Teacher collaboration is mostly a result of the persistence of principals, who apply various approaches for avoiding potential threats to the collaborative culture in their schools. Three principals shared completely different experiences they faced while trying to create collaborative environments in their schools. Their examples indicate that principals have the lead role in this process and they have to make difficult decisions in order to ensure the required collaboration amongst the cohorts.

A principal, with 20 years of educational leadership experience, shared two examples when she had to apply, as she said, authoritarian leadership in order that certain staff members of her school to act collaboratively. The first case was with the school's secretary and the second with a substitute teacher. The principal explained that the secretary had graduated from the Faculty of Law and she had expected that she would deal with paperwork only and was reluctant to cooperate with teachers, students, and parents. Given that her negative attitudes affected school's culture, personnel, and students, the principal had several discussions with her and had to train her on the pedagogical aspect. As a result of this, the secretary changed her approach towards school's participants and could even substitute the teachers when they are away.

The same principal had another situation with a substitute teacher, who refused to collaborate with her colleagues. According to the principal, this teacher was thinking she was more professional than

anyone else in the school even though she was teaching for the first time. Describing a discussion with her, the principal said, "I let her know that if she refuses to cooperate with teachers, parents, and students accordingly, then I will have to report her. It was either her or me situation. Someone may see this as a threatening language, but while she worked here, she had no problems with the students, parents, or teachers." According to the principals, following this tough discussion, the teacher was more cooperative, but once her contract was over and she left, she started gossiping about everyone in the school.

These two examples indicate that when teachers resist school's positive culture, principals have to find ways to help and instruct them comply with it. The principal that shared the two cases above has served for 20 years as a school leader. Due to her long and rich experience, she did not hesitate to hold such a strict attitude, which could have generated negative consequences for her as a principal. Her actions also made it clear to the personnel that the same fate awaits them in case they challenge school's culture and her authority.

Often, the role of a principal is to identify, coordinate, and inspire teachers to work in teams or groups. Such inter-independence creates opportunities for teachers to develop individually and collectively. For instance, one of the principals opted for a democratic approach in order to create conditions for her colleagues to work as a team on the implementation of a project. She gathered a group of 12 teachers, presented them the project, and let them work on their own. After receiving the instructions, the group held regular meetings, coordinated all the activities on their own, and managed to implement the project successfully. "In addition to thanking me for bringing them together, they also told me that they had the chance to know their

927

colleagues better and they got even closer after this activity," the principal said while describing the process and the end result. In addition to being an example of a successful team work, this case also shows that collaboration forges relations and trust between the colleagues, which lead to an increased collaboration, higher efficiency, and collegial assistance. Also, when teachers are given certain responsibilities, competences, and free hands, they behave more accountably and effectively.

There are also cases when principals have to serve as mentors. For instance, a principal narrated that there was a teacher of arts in his school that could not prepare lesson plans. Usually, she borrowed them from her colleagues, but she wanted to end this practice and let the principal know about her challenge. Given his solid experience as a teacher and a principal, he advised her a couple of times until she finally mastered the method of preparing lesson plans. So, instructional principals encourage teachers to ask for their assistance and help them to resolve the difficulties. Such principals initially create trustworthy environments, which allow teachers to speak freely about their challenges. Obviously, principal's long experience as a teacher and school leader impacted him to show understanding for the challenges of his colleagues.

Conclusion

The afore-presented results show that teacher collaborative learning is a crucial component of continuous teacher professional development and principals have a key role in this process. According to teachers' opinions, principals apply a number of methods to support and facilitate teachers' participation in collaborative learning activities. Concurrently, principals narrated that they encounter various

challenges in this aspect and have to apply different approaches for maintaining a collaborative learning environment in their schools.

According to teachers' opinions, expressed through an assessment scale, principals apply various approaches for supporting their collaborative learning. They attached high scores to all the items describing the methods applied by principals in this aspect. The vast majority of teachers agreed that principals motivate them to learn and work in teams, they participate in learning activities alongside teachers, encourage them to share the knowledge acquired in professional development programs, create an atmosphere that encourages teachers to develop collaborative activities, create a trusting environment, inspire them to produce materials jointly, encourage them to ask for his advice, and have formed professional communities in the schools.

However, these results should be considered with caution. Firstly, teachers attached high scores almost to all the items included in the assessment scale, irrespective of their demographic characteristics and professional needs. Assumedly, teachers, same as principals, have different experiences in this aspect and could offer more profound and heterogonous answers if they were interviewed. In addition, while the majority of teachers claimed that the principals have supported them to take part in action research, study group, lesson study programs, the principals highlighted only a few methods of teacher collaboration implemented in the schools they lead and did not mention any of the afore-mentioned ones. Also, given that three quarters of the participants have completed only undergraduate studies and around 65 percent of them are 40-60+ year-old, it is possible that they are not really familiar with such collaborative learning

929

approaches because they were probably not part of the study programs when they completed them.

While the picture obtained through the quantitative data creates an impression that teacher collaborative learning runs smoothly and principals are great supporters of most of the activities, the qualitative findings indicate that this is a complex process that depends on a number of factors. Initially, it should be stressed that principals demonstrated a solid awareness of the importance of teacher collaboration for the school's success, which is very important since such activities depend on principals' beliefs and support (Eraut, 2012). However, the interviews revealed that schools apply only a limited number of teacher collaboration approaches, respectively professional communities, mentorship pairs, and general collaboration. It was understood that the most productive professional communities exist in the schools with large faculties and they are very helpful especially for novice teachers, who can observe experienced colleagues discussing various challenges. The practices applied by the principals in relation to the professional communities are in compliance with the concepts promoted by scholars, who maintain that the success of professional communities depends on the conditions created by the principals (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2007; Stoll, 2010). The research also found that principals make the necessary arrangements for the professional communities to function properly, they attend their meetings, review their reports, and provide feedback, as other scholars found (Brook & Rimm-Kaufman, 2007; Gray, Mitchell & Tarter 2014). However, there are also cases when the principals do not have a full trust in their colleagues and their outputs. These principals may be unaware, but such situations create an extra burden for them and affect school's culture, teachers' relations, and students' learning Taschannen-Moran and Gareis (2015). It also needs to be

noted that the professional communities in the participating schools are not PLCs, but rather collectives committed to achievement of common goals by working together (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012).

In addition to professional communities, teacher collaboration is applied also through mentoring pairs. Usually, this collaboration derives from free will and is driven by mutual respect. The research found that principals arrange such cooperative pairs by tasking more experienced teachers to assist mainly novice teachers encountering various professional challenges. Such a practice is in line with recommendations of Hargreaves and Fullan (2012), who argued that principals should not only support, but they should also forge collaboration between teachers. However, even though it was highlighted as a major form of collaborative learning, the number of novice teachers involved in this research is rather negligible, which means that there are only a few mentoring pairs in the participating schools. In addition, it seems that they do not monitor the work of these teams and Fullan, Rincon-Gallardo and Hargreaves (2014) stress that even serious investments may result futile if the process is not monitored.

The research also found that creation of a collaborative environment in the school is a rather complex process that requires application of different leadership approaches. Some of principals indicated that collaboration depends to a great extent on teachers' personal factors. Hargreaves and Fullan (2012) have cautioned that when teachers are unwilling to cooperate with colleagues and parents, then principals need to undertake measures, otherwise, the process may fail. For instance, one of principals presented two cases when she had to impose her authority in order for the secretary and a substitute teacher to collaborate with other school participants. Hargreaves and

931

Fullan also posit that judgmental skills are one of the main elements of a principal's professionalism. It is likely that such skills led this principal to apply such an authoritarian approach since she was in school leadership positions for around 20 years. Her case also shows that principals often have to make difficult decisions in order to prevent certain teachers from damaging school's culture and image (Bellamy, Fulmer, Murphy, Muth, 2007; Hord, 1997). However, this is a normal process because, as Moore and Brooks (2000) maintain, "Discussion, dialogue, conflict and reflection are part of the learning process" (p. 11).

On a general note, the research found that the existing collaborative learning opportunities dominating in the participating schools are traditional and deficient. Given the global trends and requirements, the collaborative learning package for Kosovo teachers should be enriched with additional models, such as action research, study groups, visits to other schools, school networks, coaching programs, and other similar alternatives. For a successful implementation, such approaches should be included in Kosovo's educational policies. Furthermore, principals should be trained on their importance and how to implement such programs in their schools. Naturally, such requirements would make principalship even more complex and difficult, but they would help teachers to master new skills and competencies. Also, these alternatives may be successful only if they are designed and implemented by the academia and education professionals, with the support of policy makers and specialized experts.

In addition to introducing new collaborative learning opportunities, principals, teachers, and policy makers have to work on improving and modernizing the ones applied in the schools. Firstly,

efforts have to be made to upgrade professional communities into PLCs where participants do not only collaborate, but they also learn and share professional experiences. It is also the responsibility of the principal to identify successful PLCs in other schools and to arrange joint activities enabling exchange of best practices. Secondly, principals should carefully monitor the activities of mentorship pairs and find ways to assess their results, because it is insufficient only to ask two teachers to work together because novice teachers usually feel insecure to complain about issues that may not work. Thirdly, collaborative culture is very important for the success of a school, but principals should try to maintain it democratically since imposed collaboration is commonly futile. Lastly, given the rapid developments in all the fields, one should not expect that quality of teaching and results of students would improve through traditional programs and approaches, therefore, new ideas and programs are a must in Kosovo's schools.

Limitations and Implications for Further Research

Given that this research depends on quantitative data, one of its limitations could be participant's objectivity. Being an external surveyor, researcher's sole contacts were the 24 principals whom he met for the first time in the introductory meetings. Additionally, questionnaires were left in principals' offices and a considerable number of them were collected from the same offices. Considering that teachers lacked first-hand information about the surveyor, there are no assurances that they have scored the items related to principal's role truthfully. Also, there are no guarantees that teachers thought critically about the respective items when scoring them. Since they refused to receive the questions ahead of the interviews, there are no warranties that principals revealed all the experiences they have faced when trying to support collaborative learning activities.

On the other hand, given that similar studies are almost inexistent in Kosovo, these findings could serve as a roadmap for new studies on teacher collaborative learning and principal's role in it. Interesting results could be gained if the researchers interview principals and teachers and compare their experiences related to the research topic. Furthermore, it would be useful to identify schools with highly teacher collaborative learning cultures and schools that face challenges in this aspect, to explore the role of their principals as well as other factors that support or hinder their cultures and practices.

Acknowledgements

References

Altrichter, H., Kemmis, S., McTaggart, R., Zuber-Skerrit, O. (2002). The concept of action research. *The learning organization, 9 (3), 125-131.* https://www.researchgate.net/publication/235253332_The_concept_of_action_research

Atteberry, A., Bryk, S., A. (2011). Analyzing Teacher Participation in Literacy Coaching Activities. *The Elementary School Journal, Vol. 112, (2), 356-382.* https://www.researchgate.net/publication/259709741_Analyzing_Teacher_Participation_in_Literacy_Coaching_Activities

Bass, M., B., Riggio, E., R. (2006). *Transformational leadership (Ed).* New Jersey, U.S., Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Bellamy, T., G., Fulmer, L., C., Murphy, J., M., Muth, R. (2007) *Principal accomplishments: How School leaders succeed.* New York, U.S.; Teachers College Press.

Braun, V., Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77-101. https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa

Brook, B., L., E., & Rimm-Kaufman, S., E., (2007). Teacher collaboration in the context of the responsive classroom approach. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and practice 13*(3), 211–245. https://doi.org/10.1080/13540600701299767

Bryk, S., A., Bender-Sebring, P., Allensworth, E, Stuart, L., Easton, Q., J. (2010). *Organizing Schools for Improvement Lessons from Chicago*. Chicago, U.S.; The University of Chicago Press.

Bubb, E., Earley, P. (2007) *Leading and managing continuing professional development (2ⁿᵈ ed.).* London, England; Paul Chapman Publishing.

Collay, M., Dunlap, D., Enloe, W., Gagnon, G., W. (1998). *Learning circles: Creating conditions for professional development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Creswell, J., W., Creswell, D., J. (2018). *Research Design Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches (Ed.).* LA, U.S.; Sage Publications.

Dufour, R., Mattos, M. (2013). How do principals really improve schools? *Educational Leadership 70 (7), 34-40.* http://www.ascd.org/publications/educational-leadership/apr13/vol70/num07/How-Do-Principals-Really-Improve-Schools%C2%A2.aspx

Edwards, H., C. (2011). *Educational Change: From Traditional Education to Learning Communities.* Plymouth, UK; Rowman & Littlefield Education.

Eraut, M. (2014). Developing Knowledge for Qualified Professionals. In: McNamara O., Murray J., Jones M. (Eds), *Workplace Learning in Teacher Education. Professional Learning and Development in Schools and Higher Education*, 10 (pp. 47-72). Dordrecht, Netherland; Springer.

Eraut, M. (2012). Developing a broader approach to professional learning. In A. McKee & M. Eraut (Eds.), *Learning*

trajectories, innovation and identity for professional development. New York, NY; Springer.

Evers, T. A., Van der Heijden, I. J. M., B., Krejins, K., Gerrichhauzen, G. T. J. (2011). Organisational factors and teachers' professional development in Dutch secondary schools. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 35(1)*, 24-44. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/254188566_Organis ational_factors_and_teachers'_professional_development_in_ Dutch_secondary_schools

Fullan, M., Rincon-Gallardo, S., Hargreaves, A. (2015). Professional capital as accountability. *Education Policy Analysis Archives, 23 (15)*, *1-15* https://www.researchgate.net/publication/276379205_Professi onal_Capital_as_Accountability

Fullan, M. (2014). *The principal: Thee keys to maximizing impact*. San Francisco, U.S.; Jossey-Bass.

Fullan, M. (2008). *What's worth fighting for in the principalship – 2nd edition*. New York, U.S.; Teachers College Columbia University.

Gay, R., L., Mills, E., G., Airasian, P. (2012). *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and applications (Ed.)*. New Jersey, US; Pearson.

Goddard, L., Y., Goddard, D., R., Tschannen-Moran, M. (2007). A theoretical and empirical investigation of teacher collaboration for school improvement and student achievement in public elementary schools. *Teachers College Record, 109(4), 877-896.* https://www.researchgate.net/publication/242673601_A_Theor etical_and_Empirical_Investigation_of_Teacher_Collaboration _for_School_Improvement_and_Student_Achievement_in_Pu blic_Elementary_Schools

Gosavi, A. (2015). Analyzing responses from Likert surveys and risk-adjusted ranking: A data analytics perspective. *Procedia Computer Science. 61*, *24-31.* https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procs.2015.09.139

R E
A L

Gray, J., Mitchell, R., Tarter, J. (2014). Organizational and relational factors in professional learning communities. *Planning and Changing, 45(1),* 83-89. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/310589753_Organizational_and_Relational_Factors_in_Professional_Learning_Commmunities

Hallam, P., R., Smith, H. R., Hite, J., M., Hite, S. J., Wilcox, B. R. (2015). Trust and collaboration in PLC Teams: Teacher relationships, principal support, and collaborative benefits. *NASSP Bulletin, 99* (3), 193-216. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1074734

Handford, V., Leithwood, K. (2013). Why teachers trust school leaders. *Journal of Educational Administration, 51(2),* 194-212. https://www.emerald.com/insight/content/doi/10.1108/09578231311304706/full/html

Hargreaves, A. Fullan, M. (2012). *Professional capital: Transforming teaching in every school.* New York, U.S.; Teachers College Press.

Hargreaves, A., Fullan, M. (2000). Mentoring in the new millennium. *Theory into practice, 39 (1), 50-56.* https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip3901_8

Harris, A., Jones, M. (2010). Professional learning communities and system improvement. *Improving Schools, 3(2),* 172-181. https://doi.org/10.1177/1365480210376487

Hord, Sh. (1997). *Professional learning communities: Communities of continuous inquiry and improvement.* Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.

Hoy, W. A., Hoy, K. W. (2013). *Instructional leadership: A research-based guide to learning in schools (Ed).* New Jersey, NJ; Pearson.

Kiefer, C. & Senge, P. (1982). Metaonic organizations: experiments in organizational innovation. *In EDER 617 L91 Book of Readings.* Calgary, Canada, 117-136.

Knight, J. (2009). Coaching: The key to translating research into practice lies in continuous, job-embedded learning with ongoing support. *Journal of Staff Development, 30 (1), 18-22.* https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ827536

937

Leithwood, K., Seashore Louis, K., Anderson, S., Wahlstrom, K. (2004). How leadership influences student learning. https://www.wallacefoundation.org/knowledge-center/Documents/How-Leadership-Influences-Student-Learning.pdf

Lortie, C., D. (2009). *School principal managing in public.* Chicago, IL; The University of Chicago.

Hung, D. W.L., & Chong, S. K. (2016). Promoting teachers' instructional practices in alternative assessment through teacher collaboration. *Education Research Policy Practice 15*(2), 131-146. https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s10671-015-9189-9

Lynch, J., Ferguson, K. (2010). Reflections of elementary school literacy coaches on practice: Roles and perspectives. *Canadian Journal of Education, 33 (1),* 199-227. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ883529

Marquardt, J. M. (2000). Action learning and leadership. *The Learning Organization, 7(5),* 233-241. https://doi.org/10.1108/09696470010352990

Maund, B. (2003). *Perception: Central problems of philosophy.* New York, US: Routledge.

McLaughlin, M., W., & Talbert, J., E. (2007). Building professional learning communities in high schools: Challenges and promising practices. In Stoll, L., & Louis, K., S. (Eds.). *Professional Learning Communities Divergence, Depth and Dilemmas* (pp. 151-165). New York, U.S.: Open University.

Miller, S., Stewart, A. (2013). Literacy learning through team coaching. *The Reading Teacher, 67 (4), 290-298.* https://www.researchgate.net/publication/259543531_Literacy_Learning_Through_Team_Coaching

Mitchell, C., Sackney, L. (2011). *Profound improvement: Building learning-community capacity on living-system principles* (Eds.). New York, U.S.; Routledge.

Moore, A. B., Brooks, R. (2000). Learning communities and community development: Describing the process. International Journal of Adult and Vocational Learning, 1, 1-15. Retrieved from ERIC database.

Mrvar, G. P., Resman, M., Kalin, J., Mazgon, J. (2019). Cooperation between head teachers and professional school counsellors. *Journal of Contemporary Management Issues, 24,* 89-106. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/333587422_Cooperation_between_head_teachers_and_professional_school_counsellors_in_Slovenian_schools

Mullen, A., C., Hutinger, L., J. (2008). The Principal's Role in Fostering Collaborative Learning Communities through Faculty Study Group Development. *Theory into Practice, 47 (4), 276-285.* https://www.jstor.org/stable/40071556?seq=1

OECD. (2016). PISA 2015 Results: Excellence and Equity in Education, OECD Publishing, Paris. http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264266490-en

Post, G., Varoz, S. (2008). Lesson-study groups with prospective and practicing teachers. *Teaching Children Mathematics, 14 (8), 472-478.* https://www.nctm.org/Publications/teaching-children-mathematics/2008/Vol14/Issue8/Supporting-Teacher-Learning_-Lesson-Study-Groups-with-Prospective-and-Practicing-Teachers/

Schleicher, A. (2015), Schools for 21st-Century Learners: Strong Leaders, Confident Teachers, Innovative Approaches, international Summit on the teaching profession, OECD Publishing. http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264231191-en

Schwille, A., Sh. (2008). The professional practice of mentoring. *American Journal of Education, 115 (1), 139-167.* https://www.researchgate.net/publication/279414978_The_Professional_Practice_of_Mentoring

Senge, P. (2006). *The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization*. Kent, US; Mackays of Chatham.

Servage, L. (2008). Critical and transformative practices in professional learning communities. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 35*(1), 63-77. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ810651

Somprach, K., Tang, N. K., Popoonsak, P. (2016). The relationship between school leadership and professional learning communities in Thai basic education schools. *Educational Research for Policy Practice, 16,* 57-175. https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s10671-016-9206-7

Stoll, L. (2010). Connecting learning communities: Capacity building for systemic change. In Hargreaves, A., Liberman, A., Fullan, M., Hopkins, D. (Eds). *Second International Handbook of Educational Change.* Dordrecht, Netherland; Springer.

Taschannen-Moran, M., Gareis, R. C. (2015). Faculty trust in the principal: An essential ingredient in high-performing schools. *Journal of Educational Administration, 53(1),* 66-92. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/273308550_Faculty_trust_in_the_principal_An_essential_ingredient_in_high-performing_schools

Vescio, V., Ross, D., Adams, A. (2007). A review of research on the impact of professional learning communities on teaching practices and student learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education 24,* 80-91. https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0742051X07000066

Vogrinc, J., Zuljan Valencic, M. (2009). Action research in schools – an important factor in teachers' professional development. *Educational Studies, 35(1),* 53-63. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/232896945_Action_research_in_schools_-_An_important_factor_in_teachers'_professional_development

Wahlstrom, L., K., Seashore Louis, K. (2008). How teachers experience principal leadership: The roles of professional community, trust, efficacy, and shared responsibility. *Educational*

Administration Quarterly, 44 (4), 458-495. http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.836.9333&rep=rep1&type=pdf

Wood, B., A. (2017). Classroom-based action research with secondary school students of English Literature: *A teacher-researcher's reflection. English Teaching: Practice & Critique, 16 (1), 72-84.* https://www.emerald.com/insight/content/doi/10.1108/ETPC-08-2016-0100/full/html

Woodland, R. H. (2016). Evaluating PK-12 Professional learning communities: An improvement science perspective. *American Journal of Evaluation, 37*(4), 505-521. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1177/1098214016634203

Yuan, R., Zhang, J. (2016). Promoting teacher collaboration through joint lesson planning: Challenges and coping strategies. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher, 25(5-6),* 817-826. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40299-016-0300-7

About the author:

Rexhep Krasniqi completed his doctoral studies in the field of Teacher Education and Educational Sciences in December 2021. His research interests include educational leadership, the role of the principal in teacher quality, and continuous teacher learning and professional development. He has been involved in education consultancy projects focused on principal training.

E-mail: rexhep.krasniqi@gmail.com

Book Review

Educational Justice: Liberal Ideals, Persistent Inequality, and the Constructive Uses of Critique

By: Michael S. Merry

Palgrave Macmillan

2019, pages 286

ISBN: 978-3-030-36023-8

Eda Abbasioğlu Akkaya

Yıldız Technical University, İstanbul, Turkey

Book Review

This book was written with the aim of discussing the ideas taken for granted about the school system in terms of educational justice. The author offers a clear and strong arguments to find the answers to the question how it is possible to find a fair school system with empirical, sociological and philosophical approaches. The discussions and examples given make the readers to query their own ideas and beliefs related to educational justice. The author has been successful in discussing the ideas of liberals on the one hand and the advocates of the present school system on the other. The interrelations among students, parents and school system which have been inured are also elaborately handled. Readers encounter with many disputed

liberal thoughts on educational justice and some examples or compared ideas of the advocates of the contrast beliefs.

The author outlines the book, including 286 pages, into three parts and nine chapters. The first part, consisting of two chapters, warns the readers about their beliefs and encourages them to question their ideologies and paradigms related to educational justice. Besides, the writer criticizes the ideals of liberals maintaining that schools should be public and equal for all. The second part accounts for the relationship between educational justice and three different themes as public school, citizenship and diversity and this relationship is exemplified with some liberal ideals in three chapters. These involve three liberal notions pointed out as schools should be public, should foster citizenship, and must be diverse. Even if the author thinks that diversity can extinguish dogmas, he criticizes diversity as a proxy of justice. Instead of promoting diversity, he proposes that non-diverse schools should alter the situation by implementing more diversity-opponent policies. This brings about a dilemma, as the author is not genuinely in favor of diversity because he believes that diversities based on fears and hopes might increase tension in schools. In the last part, there are four chapters dealing with exclusion, ethics, and pragmatic alternatives, and this part is detailed with some references to inclusion of school system with the examples of disabled students, religious schools, and selection issues to schools. The upshot of the last chapter comes with his hopes to find alternative ways for educational justice.

In my opinion, even if the author does not prescribe anything, he stresses his ideas about the issue repetitively in every chapter, at the end of each part in conclusion. Furthermore, there are two caveat parts in Chapter 2 and Chapter 8 and one possible objections part in Chapter

7 (which may be granted as the topics he handles are really sensitive). Another point is that he mentions the outline of the chapters in detail in many places; even when I finished the introduction chapter, I thought that probably I knew everything about the book and wondered if there was something else worthy of continuing reading, which killed the curiosity about the rest of the book. These summaries are given repetitively as well; in the conclusion part, at the end of chapters, and even there are summaries about previous ones in the introductions of new chapters. Besides, an abbreviation list would be helpful for the readers as in some parts of the book the initials used as abbreviations make it complicated to follow. Lastly, there are a lot of Latin words in the book, making reading hard for readers.

Overall, the author offers an informative, interrogative and criticizing discussion on educational justice, and makes me think about my beliefs which may seem as dogma. While trying to find the answers to how to establish a fair educational system, he successfully underlines the false proxies and forces the reader to reconsider the present system. I support that we should find new alternatives to reach justice in education, be more critical germane to certain beliefs preventing us from making progress and, last but not least, be honest with the past applications comparing them to the present.

References

Merry, M. S. (2019). *Educational justice: liberal ideals, persistent inequality, and the constructive uses of critique.* Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-36023-8

Cite as:

About the author:

Eda Abbasioğlu Akkaya is a PhD candidate in the Educational Administration Department at Yildiz Technical University. Besides she is currently working as an instructor of School of Foreign Languages at the same university. Her research interests include educational justice, philosophy of education, comparative education and international educational policies related to administration.

E-mail: eda_abbasioglu@yahoo.com/ edaabbas@yildiz.edu.tr

ANNUAL LIST OF REVIEWERS

The following is the annual list of reviewers who contributed to the REAL in 2021:

Adem Bayar
Ahmet Aypay
Ali Çağatay Kılınç
Alper Çalıkoğlu
Alvaro Gonzalez
Amanda Potterton
Anette Forssten Seiser
Anna Saiti
Arslan Bayram
Barış Uslu
Bekir Gür
Berna Tarı Kasnakoğlu
Bernardita Moreno
Betül Bulut Şahin
Burcu Erdemir
Ceyhun Kavrayıcı
Christine Forde
Clelia Pineda-Baez
Çiğdem Apaydın
Deborah Netolicky
Deniz Örücü
Ebru Kılıç-Bebek
Ecem Karlıdağ-Dennis
Elisabet Nihlfors

Emre Er
Engin Karadağ
Esra Töre
Eugenie Samier
Fatih Şahin
Fatma Kesik
Fatma Nevra Seggie
Fernenda Kri
Firdevs Melis Cin
Gökhan Arastaman
Hasan Yücel Ertem
İmmaculada Gonzalez
Falcon
İsmail Çimen
Jasna Kovacevic
Julia Mahfouz
Katherine C. Mansfield
Kristin S. Huggins
Lejf Moos
M. Cevat Yıldırım
Martin Scanlan
Martin Thrupp
Mehmet Bellibaş
Mehmet Sincar

Melike Çağatay
Meltem Akbulut
Merve Zayim Kurtay
Murat Esen
Murat Özdemir
Mutlu Uygur
Müyesser Ceylan
Nicola Sum
Niyazi Özer
Nuriye Karabulut
Ömer Çalışkan
Pamella Angelle
Paul Campbell
Pınar Ayyıldız
Sedat Gümüş
Şengül Uysal
Taner Atmaca
Tony Bush
Veysel Okçu
Vuyisile Msila
Yakup Öz
Zeynep Kurnaz
Zübeyde Yaraş