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Understanding Democratic and Distributed Leadership: How Democratic Leadership of School Principals Related to Distributed Leadership in Schools?

Derya Kılıçoğlu

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine democratic and distributed leadership perceptions of teachers in their school and to explore the relationship between democratic and distributed leadership. This study intended to enrich and expand scholarly reflections on democratic and distributed leadership as regards considering the association between them, thereby deepening our understanding of leadership. Correlational research design was used as a research design in the study. Study population included teachers working at high schools in Eskişehir district in Turkey. Stratified sampling was used as a sampling method. The study sample included 462 teachers working at high schools. Descriptive statistics for democratic leadership suggested that respondent teachers perceive democratic leadership in their school in moderate level. Support and supervision were perceived as distributed leadership functions of the leadership team in schools. Regarding the leadership team characteristics, it was concluded that leadership teams are moderately perceived as coherent. The study results also revealed that there is a strong relationship between democratic leadership, distribution of leadership functions and coherent leadership team characteristics.

Keywords: *Democratic leadership, distributed leadership, school principals.*

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Introduction

The idea that leadership need to be distributed to be most effective in enhancing learning in schools gains a powerful momentum in leadership studies. In order to increase student learning, creating a culture of sharing responsibility and leadership in schools, not merely among school members but collectively within the community, plays an important role (Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom, & Anderson, 2010). Even though school leaders are key agents to promote students in receiving learning opportunities and to sustain continuous improvement in schools, the traditional view of a leader has been changing. Leaders at the organizational apex are not believed as the unique sources of change and vision in school organizations (Woods, 2005). New tendencies for leading and managing schools are asserted to be based on shared responsibilities of all members of the learning community in participative environments (Delgado, 2014). Since school improvement is difficult to be performed merely by school leaders, meaningful involvement of students, teachers, and parents in planning or implementation processes is necessary. It cannot be assumed that school improvement could be meaningfully succeeded and sustained only by the efforts of the school leaders. Democratic approaches of leadership (Gunter, 2001; Harris et al., 2003) have been proposed to address the challenges that the schools face with (Delgado, 2014).

In schools where democratic approaches are embraced, all school members engage to work as a team in the decision making, implementation or monitoring processes, and sense of ownership is developed with the participation of all school members. Therefore, democratic schools can easily cope with the challenges that the schools are facing by exceeding the capabilities of individual leaders through the participation of all school members. By means of using democratic approaches, decision making authority is spread throughout the school by providing all school members opportunity to participate in key decisions in schools (Delgado, 2014). Shared, collective and democratic leadership approaches have been addressed as the most affective approaches for providing responsibilities to lead and manage change and school improvement.

Distributed leadership where two or more individuals are in the practice of the principalship is pointed as an example of democratic leadership (Woods, 2005). It is assumed that distributed leadership fits within the collective and democratic approaches (Delgado, 2014). Indeed, distributed leadership emerged as an alternative to charismatic leadership, which portrays super talented characteristics with a single figure that persuade, inspire or direct followers towards the goals of organizational success (Hartley, 2007; Woods, 2005), is believed to be more likely to have an influence on student outcomes compared to traditional top-down leadership (Bell, Bolam & Cubillo, 2002, Silins & Mulford, 2002). Distribution of leadership roles and responsibilities is asserted to be associated with improvement of pupil outcomes and development of students as human beings and active participants (Day et al., 2009; Kensler, 2010; Woods, 2011). Distributed leadership also

enables change in educational performance and organizational culture (Avisar, Alkahr & Gan, 2017). In this context, distributed leadership is asserted to open up the boundaries of leadership beyond those in formal leadership positions and challenge hierarchies in school organizations. It is also indicated that distributed leadership is effectively performed in schools where an atmosphere of trust, collegiality and cooperation exist. Indeed, the schools in the communities with democratic values and devolution of power will provide a sound ground for adoption of distributed leadership (Saadi, Hussain, Bhutta, Perveen, Kazmi & Ahmad, 2009).

There are several empirical investigations of democratic and distributed leadership that help refine the theory and shed light on educational leadership literature. Even though the distinctiveness of democratic leadership in comparison with distributed leadership is delineated (Woods, 2004), these two leadership styles or approaches are related in the broadest sense like Spillane and Sherer (2004) noted as “scholars and practitioners often use shared leadership, democratic leadership and distributed leadership interchangeably, suggesting that, at least for some, distributed leadership may be no more than a new label for a familiar phenomena” (p.3). While in some cases, these terms are used interchangeably, some scholars describe those terms differ in meaning by trying to indicate fine distinctions (Oduro, 2004). Even though there is considerable attention to these leadership approaches, it is obvious that there is a definitional problem is further evident in the leadership literature and it is suggested that distributed leadership is the repackaging of familiar leadership concepts (Lakomski, 2005; Storey, 2004). There is therefore a need to understand how distributed and democratic leadership are interrelated.

The purpose of this study is to determine democratic and distributed leadership perceptions of teachers in their school and to explore the relationship between democratic and distributed leadership. The questions that guided the research were twofold:

- How do teachers perceive democratic and distributed leadership in schools?
- What is the relationship between democratic and distributed leadership in schools?

From this point of view, this study intended to enrich and expand scholarly reflections on democratic and distributed leadership as regards considering the association between them, thereby deepening our understanding of leadership.

Democratic Leadership

Democratic leadership has flowed in popularity throughout the history of education and repackaged numerous times by the educational theorists and researchers (Klinker, 2006). Indeed, the ideas about democratic leadership developed in the late 1930s, experiment undertaken by Kurt Lewin

and Ronald Lippitt in the United States. In the experiment, three groups of school children operated under three differential leadership styles: authoritarian, democratic and laissez-faire. The authoritarian leader offers clear expectations about what will be done, when and how. All decisions are taken by authoritarian leader with minimum input from other group members. The democratic leader offers guidance to group members with participating in the group and encouraging member involvement in decision making while laissez-faire leader offers little or no guidance to group members with leaving all decision-making up to group members. Each three group took place in common activity project in the experiment and democratic leadership found as the most effective of the three leadership styles regarding the fact that group members feel more engaged and motivated, work together more cooperatively and creatively. However, the members in the authoritarian group were found as less creative, more dissatisfied and uninvolved. Similarly, the members in laissez-faire group were found as the least productive showing little cooperation and satisfaction (Rustin & Armstrong, 2012). As in the experiment, it is clear that democratic leadership facilitates leaders' and others' growth toward human potential (Woods, 2005). Indeed, the heart of democratic leadership rests a respect for what is to be human, a sense of cultivation of the common good, and the individual freedom to act according to one's direction (McClain, Ylimaki & Ford, 2010). Therefore, democratic leadership created an environment in which people are encouraged and supported in aspiring to truth in an open-hearted way (Woods, 2005, p.xvi).

Democratic leadership is concerned with meaningful participation and decision making to establish conditions for respectful relationships, collaborative associations, active cooperation, and enable the formation of social, learning and culturally responsive educational organizations, in part by employing strategies for achievement, enabling particular conversations and struggling to determine what is needed, when, and how to get there in specific situations by developing a politically informed commitment to justice for all (Gale & Densmore, 2010). It is also necessary to state that "democratic leadership entails rights to meaningful participation and respect for and expectations toward everyone as ethical beings" (Woods, 2004, p.4).

Democratic leadership based on philosophical tradition of Dewey's pragmatism cultivates "an environment that supports participation, sharing of ideas, and the virtues of honesty, openness, flexibility and compassion" (Starratt, 2001, p. 338). Indeed, democratic leadership implies that school principals are responsible to build educational organizations around central democratic values such as supporting equity and social justice, as well as in the wider community. It emphasizes social justice, dignity, rights and welfare of minorities and all individuals in the school. Democratic leadership requires value base of leadership practice and the processes creating or sustaining social justice, empowerment and community (Harris, Moos, Møller, Robertson & Spillane, 2007; Møller, 2003). By means of balancing power and trust in leadership and management areas of the school, empowerment

can be achieved which in turn creates a stimulating learning environment where students develop as citizens (Harris, et al., 2007).

Educational administration studies of democratic school leadership have frequently focused on how principals show democratic behaviors, use cooperative relationships and shared decision making in schools to improve schools, and some of the research emphasized the relationship between some organizational variables (Adeyemi & Adu, 2013; Bhatti, Maitlo, Shaikh, Hashmi, & Shaikh, 2012; Blasé & Blasé, 1997; Blasé, Blasé, Anderson & Dungan, 1995; Bozdoğan & Sağnak, 2011; Harris & Chapman, 2002; Mbera, 2015; Riley, 2003; Terzi & Derin, 2016; Yörük & Kocabaş, 2001).

Distributed Leadership

Distributed leadership has come to prominence in school management and leadership discourse as means to provide teachers participation and empowerment in schools (Torrance, 2013). School leaders may not accomplish all the leadership tasks alone in the school and request for support from school staff because it is clear that “the common ideal of a heroic leader is obsolete [...] the task of transforming schools is too complex one person to accomplish single handedly” (Lashway, 2003, p. 1). Therefore, school leaders have to run the school with multiple leaders to perform all leadership functions, allow teachers to participate in decision making processes and enhance mutual reinforcement (Gronn, 2002; Leithwood, Mascal, Strauss, Sacks, Memon & Yashkina, 2007; Wai-Yan Wan, Hau-Fai Law & Chan, 2017). Since large schools with task complexity and large amount of school members may lead to limited daily interaction of school staff, traditional view of school leadership is left in favor of distributed leadership (Gronn, 2002).

There is variety of meanings attached to the concept of distributed leadership in leadership literature (Bennett, Wise, Woods & Harvey, 2003; Woods, 2004). This favored notion is defined as emergent property of a group or network of interacting individuals in which group members pool their expertise (Gronn, 2002; Woods, Bennett, Harvey & Wise, 2004). Indeed, distributed leadership highlights a multi-faceted leadership, involving both formal and informal leadership positions (Torrance, 2013). As Harris affirms that leadership “is shared and collected endeavor that engages all members of the organization” (2003, p.75), distributed leadership challenges the traditional trait of individualistic leader. Distributed leadership is noteworthy in that it is enacted collaboratively as two or more leaders engage in a particular situation (Spillane, 2006). Specifically, leadership that is distributed among all school staff provides multiple leaders, formally recognized or not, practice in a wide range of leadership and management activities in schools (Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2004). Following the same line of thought, distributed leadership is “a shared process of enhancing the individual and collective capacity of people to accomplish their work effectively” (Yukl, 2002, p. 432).

In regard to the origin of distributed leadership, it was pointed out that there is a tendency to move away from the heroic leadership style to an approach focusing on distribution of leadership among school staff due to questioning the “single leadership” paradigm and the complexity of school leaders’ tasks (Bush & Glover, 2003; Goleman, 2002; Harris, 2004; Hartley, 2007). In distributed leadership perspective, leadership is not considered as a school leader’s characteristic, knowledge or skill, rather it is regarded as a process based on daily interactions or functions of multiple leaders in the school and the situation, including organizational routines, structures and tools (Spillane, 2005; Spillane et al., 2004). As Spillane (2006) asserted that distributed leadership is stretched over a number of individuals and based on expertise, rather than hierarchical authority (Bennett et al., 2003; Woods et al., 2004). Indeed, distributed leadership provides a way of thinking about the practice of school leadership (Gronn, 2002; Spillane et al., 2004). As Bolden (2004) elaborates distribution of leadership is a less formalized model of leadership, separated from the organizational hierarchy, provides individuals at all levels leadership influence and roles, as cited in Oduro (2004). Thus, the responsibilities for leadership functions can be distributed on multiple leaders working in a coordinated manner (Heller & Firestone, 1995; Spillane, 2005) Existing scholarship shows that the core functions of leadership are necessary to be distributed. Leadership functions involves setting directions and articulating a school vision, developing and stimulating teachers, monitoring and evaluating teachers’ performance (Hulpia, Devos & Rosseel, 2009, Spillane, 2005). By distributing leadership functions to other people in the school, the workload of school leaders is expected to decrease (Hulpia & Devos, 2009).

The mainstay of the literature regarding distributed leadership appears to focus on educational organizations (Baloğlu, 2011; Currie, Lockett & Suhomliinova, 2009; Gosling, Bolden & Petrov, 2009; Gunter, Hall & Bragg, 2013; Harris, 2008; Leithwood, Mascall & Strauss, 2009, Özdemir, 2012; Spillane, 2006; Williams, 2011). These is evidence to show that where school staff work collaboratively and leadership responsibilities are distributed, teachers’ expectations, morale, confidence, professional development, stimulation and enjoyment in schools are enhanced (Court, 2003; Hulpia & Devos, 2009). Furthermore, distribution of leadership contributes to school effectiveness and improvement (Harris, Muijs & Crawford, 2003; Harris et al., 2007; Silins & Mulford, 2004). Distributed leadership also enhances teachers’ job satisfaction since working collectively foster the teachers’ feelings about being valued and supported in schools (Ereş & Akyürek, 2016; Hulpia & Devos, 2009). In addition, distributed leadership is asserted as potential contributor to positive change and transformation in schools (Harris et al., 2007), as well as enhancing organizational trust, organizational support and school success (Ereş & Akyürek, 2016; Yılmaz & Turan, 2015).

METHOD

Study Design

The aim of this study was to explore the relationship between democratic and distributed leadership from teachers' point of view. Correlational research design was used to test whether democratic leadership of school principals is related to distributed leadership in schools.

Participants

Study population included teachers working at high schools in Eskisehir district in Turkey. Stratified sampling was used as a sampling method in the study. The study sample included 462 teachers working at high schools. Different type of 22 high schools included in the sample was determined regarding their socio economic environment. Based on the information obtained from teachers and Eskişehir Provincial Directorate of National Education, the high schools were separated into three groups: lower, middle and upper layers. Of the selected high schools, 9 of them were Anatolian high school, 6 of them were one of them was social sciences high school, 3 of them were high school and 4 of them were science high school, social sciences high school, İmam Hatip high school and teacher training high school. Of the respondent teachers, men ($n=240$) and women ($n=217$) were close in number and their ages were between 25 and 62 years ($M=41.72$, $SD=8.28$). Great majority of the sample (80.3%) hold the degree of Bachelor of Arts and the average work experience of the participants was 18.48 years. Demographic characteristics of the study sample were presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the study sample

Options		1	2	3	4	5	6	Total/ response rate
Gender		Women	Men					
	<i>n</i>	217	240					457*
	<i>%</i>	47.0	51.9					98.9
Age		25-35 years	36-45 years	46-55 years	56+ years			
	<i>n</i>	88	218	108	26			440*
	<i>%</i>	19.0	47.2	23.4	5.6			95.2
	<i>M</i>							41.72
	<i>S D</i>							8.28
Education level		Pre bachelor program	B.A. program	Graduate program (MA)	Graduate program (Ph.D.)			
	<i>n</i>	15	371	63	7			456*
	<i>%</i>	3.2	80.3	13.6	1.5			98.7
Work experience		1-10 years	11-20 years	21-30 years	30+ years			
	<i>n</i>	63	219	122	38			442*

	%	13.6	47.4	26.4	8.2		95.7
	<i>M</i>						18.48
	<i>S</i>						
	<i>D</i>						7.54
Field of experience		Turkish language and literature	Mathematics	English language	Biology	History	Other
	<i>n</i>	75	52	48	27	23	225
	%	16.2	11.3	10.4	5.8	5.0	48.7
							450*
							97.4

Note. * There are missing parts in the data collection tool that participants did not answer all the items.

Data Collection Tools

The data of the study were collected through two scales. The first one was Leadership Style Questionnaire, which was used to determine democratic leadership style of school principals. The second one was Distributed Leadership Inventory (DLI), which was used to identify distributed leadership in the school, based on the teachers' view. Moreover, demographic characteristics of the participants were collected via specific questionnaire items.

Leadership Style Questionnaire

Leadership Style Questionnaire developed by Northouse (2011) was administered on participants in the study. The questionnaire provides three subscales with 18 items measuring autocratic, democratic and laissez faire leadership styles. Since the present survey emphasized on democratic leadership styles of school principals, only the subscale measuring democratic leadership style was used. Democratic leadership subscale of the questionnaire comprised of six items. After adaptation of the questionnaire into Turkish language, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was used to determine construct validity of the scale. The CFA results revealed acceptable goodness of fit indices ($\Delta\chi^2=36.09$, $\Delta df=9$, $\Delta\chi^2/\Delta df=4.27$, RMSEA=.09, AGFI=.91, GFI=.97, SRMR=.034) which indicate that the scale items fit the collected data (Hu & Bentler 1998; Jöreskog & Sörbom 2001; MacCallum, Browne & Sugawara 1996). Furthermore, the reliability of the current study was analyzed and the Cronbach Alpha coefficient was found as .87, which shows an acceptable internal consistency, as shown in Table 2.

Distributed Leadership Inventory (DLI)

Distributed Leadership Inventory (DLI) developed by Hulpia and her colleagues (2009). The inventory comprised two parts focusing on *distributed leadership functions of the members of the leadership team* and *characteristics of the leadership team*. Leadership functions part of the inventory identify whether supportive leadership behavior and supervising are achieved in the school leadership team. Leadership team characteristics emphasize a clear management framework characterized by group cohesion. Leadership functions were measured by 13 scale items with two sub-scales (support and supervision) while leadership characteristics were measured by 10 scale items.

Confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to confirm the underlying two-component structures for the leadership functions of the leadership team and one-component structure of leadership team characteristics. The first CFA was carried out on the items corresponding to the leadership functions. The analysis assure that the two-factor model of the leadership functions revealed good model fit results ($\Delta\chi^2 = 252.47$, $\Delta df = 60$, $\Delta\chi^2/\Delta df = 4.20$, RMSEA=.09, AGFI=.87, GFI=.91, SRMR=.027). The second CFA was conducted on the items corresponding to the characteristics of the leadership team. The one-factor model of the leadership team characteristics was fit for the scale and indicated acceptable goodness of fit indices ($\Delta\chi^2=169.32$, $\Delta df=30$, $\Delta\chi^2/\Delta df=5.64$, RMSEA=.10, AGFI=.87, GFI=.93, SRMR=.021). The two CFA indicated that the scale items fit the collected data (Hu & Bentler 1998; Jöreskog & Sörbom 2001; MacCallum, Browne & Sugawara, 1996).

The reliability of the scores of the DLI was determined through Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The scores of the coherent leadership team characteristics had a high internal consistency ($\alpha = .98$). The internal consistencies of the leadership functions were as follows: support scale scores were high ($\alpha = .96$) and the scores of the supervision scale had high reliability coefficient ($\alpha = .95$) as well, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Fit statistics for confirmatory factor analysis and cronbach alpha values

Model	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	$\Delta\chi^2/\Delta df$	GFI	AGFI	SRMR	RMSEA	α
Democratic leadership	36.09	9	4.27	.97	.91	.034	.09	.87
DLI-Leadership functions	252.47	60	4.20	.91	.87	.027	.09	.97
*Support								.96
*Supervision								.95
DLI-Leadership team characteristics	169.32	30	5.64	.93	.87	.021	.10	.98

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics such as mean and standard deviation were used in the study to determine democratic and distributed leadership in schools. Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to determine the correlation between democratic and distributed leadership. Path analysis was used through structural equation modeling to test developed theoretical model which asserts that democratic leadership is related to distributed leadership in schools. IBM SPSS Statistics 20 and LISREL 8.7 software were used for statistical analyses in the study.

Findings

The mean, standard deviations, and the correlation coefficients between democratic and distributed leadership are presented in Table 3. Descriptive statistics for democratic leadership suggest that respondent teachers perceive democratic leadership in their school in moderate level ($M= 3.43$; $SD= .78$). Descriptive statistics also showed that support ($M= 3.38$; $SD=1.07$) and supervision ($M= 3.47$; $SD= 1.11$) are perceived as distributed leadership functions of the leadership team in schools. Indeed, the results suggested that supervision is more equally distributed among the leadership team than support according to the respondents. Regarding the leadership team characteristics, it was concluded that leadership teams are moderately perceived as coherent ($M= 2.97$; $SD= .91$).

Before testing the theoretical model which investigates the relationship between democratic and distributed leadership, Pearson correlation was conducted to determine the correlation between democratic and distributed leadership in schools. As seen in Table 3, positive relations, ranged between moderate to strong, were found between democratic leadership, leadership functions and leadership characteristics of distributed leadership.

Table 3. Means, standard deviations, and correlation coefficients between democratic and distributed leadership

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis	1	2	3	4
1.Democratic leadership	3.43	.78	-.42	.31	-	.59*	.52*	.58*
2.DLI-Leadership functions-distribution of support	3.38	1.07	-.42	-.60	.59*	-	.85*	.66*
3.DLI-Leadership functions-distribution of supervision	3.47	1.11	-.52	-.50	.52*	.85*	-	.62*
4.DLI-Leadership characteristics	2.97	.91	-.34	-.54	.58*	.66*	.62*	-

Note. * Correlation is significant ($p < .01$)

Path analysis was conducted to determine the correlations between variables by calculating the goodness of fit indices for the developed model. The goodness of fit indices of the theoretical model which are presented in Table 4 determined with GFI, AGFI, SRMR, RMSEA, $\Delta\chi^2$ and $\Delta\chi^2 / \Delta df$ ratio statistics. GFI, AGFI, SRMR and RMSEA goodness of fit values were considered as the indication that the theoretical model was suitable for the obtained data (Hoyle, 2012; Hu & Bentler 1998; Jöreskog & Sörbom 2001; MacCallum et al., 1996).

Table 4. Goodness of fit statistics for the theoretical model

Model	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	$\Delta\chi^2/\Delta df$	GFI	AGFI	SRMR	RMSEA
1	418.94	109	3.84	.90	.86	.060	.08

The results of the path analysis conducted on the theoretical model to determine the correlation between democratic and distributed leadership are presented in Figure 1. The first part and the independent variable of the model of structural equation designed between democratic and distributed leadership, the democratic leadership scale included 6 observed variables. The second part and the dependent variable of the structural equation model, distributed leadership includes two sub-scales, leadership team characteristics and distributed leadership functions. Leadership team characteristics included 10 observed variables while distributed leadership functions involved 13 observed variables.

When the relations between democratic and distributed leadership were examined through t-test in the model, the study results revealed that there is a strong relationship between democratic leadership, distribution of leadership functions and coherent leadership team characteristics. In the model, democratic leadership explained .71 standard deviation variance of distributed leadership functions while democratic leadership explained .70 standard deviation variance of coherent leadership team characteristics, as shown in Figure 1.

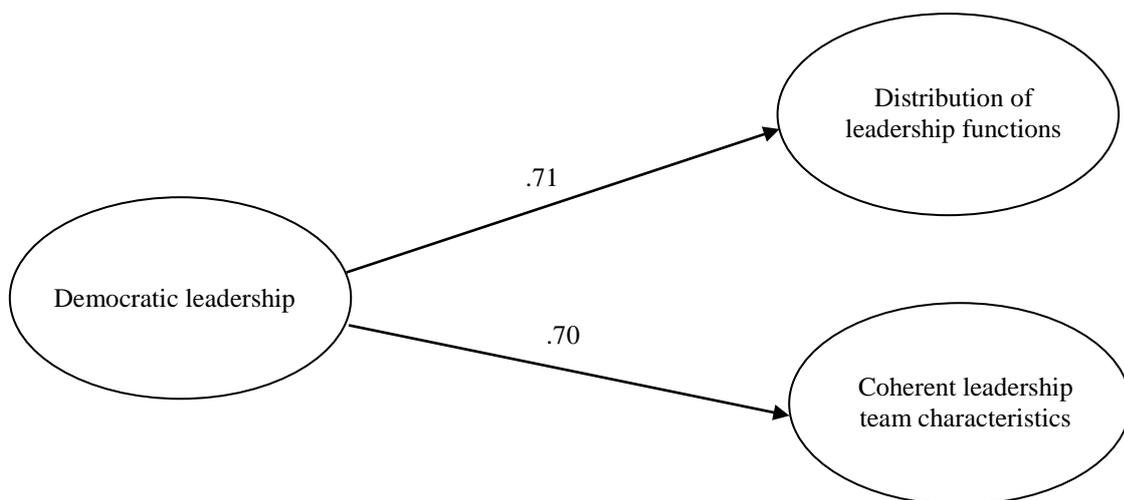


Figure 1. Model for democratic and distributed leadership

Discussion, Conclusion and Suggestions

This article focuses on democratic and distributed leadership in schools as perceived by teachers. The main purpose of the study was to determine democratic and distributed leadership perceptions of teachers and to examine how democratic leadership is associated with distributed leadership in schools. In conducting such an empirical research about democratic and distributed leadership in schools, it was responded to close the gap that exists in the literature concerning the relationship between democratic and distributed leadership approaches.

Descriptive statistics results revealed that democratic leadership was shown in moderate level in schools. This means that school principals provide meaningful group participation and decision making with enabling collaborative associations and cooperation in schools (White & Lippitt, 1969; Woods, 2004). Furthermore, support and supervision were perceived as distributed leadership functions of the leadership team in the current study. This shows that supporting leadership behaviors of school members, providing instructional support, supervising and monitoring teachers regarding their performance are core functions of distributed leadership in schools (Blasé & Blasé, 2002; Hallinger, 2003; Hoy & Tarter, 1997; Southworth, 2002). It was also concluded that leadership is distributed among members of the leadership team, which were moderately perceived as coherent. This means that leadership team in schools have unambiguous roles known and accepted by school members (Chrispeels, Castionno & Brown, 2000; Grubb & Flessa, 2006; Hulpia et al., 2009; Sanders, 2006), trust communicate and cooperate with each other (Holtz, 2004).

The result in this study also revealed that there is a strong relationship between democratic leadership, distribution of leadership functions and coherent leadership team characteristics. Even though it is asserted in the related literature that democratic leadership is not synonymous for distributed leadership, distributed perspective in leadership practice allows for leadership can be democratic or autocratic (Spillane, 2005) and leadership is stretched over multiple individuals in a school with different type of functions or activities (Spillane, 2005; Spillane & Camburn, 2006). Based on the study findings, it can be concluded that democratic leadership is significantly associated with coherent leadership team and distributed leadership functions such as distribution of support and supervision. As Woods asserts that 'Democracy adds to the emergent character of distributed leadership the notion that everyone, by virtue of their human status, should play a part in democratic agency' (2004, p. 12). Since characteristics of democratic leadership are distributing responsibility among members, encouraging, cooperating, guiding, empowering group members, permitting self-determination and aiding decision making process of the group (Gastil, 1994; Kuczarski & Kuczarski, 1995), democratic leadership can pave way for distributed leadership in schools. Furthermore, it is implicit that distributed leadership is related to more democratic and equitable forms of schooling (Harris, 2011).

Although this study sheds new light on the relationship between democratic and distributed leadership, this research was not without limitations, and a number of steps could be taken in future research to elaborate and extend the perspectives put forth in the present study. Firstly, limitation of the research instruments is acknowledged in the study. Data collection is limited by a number of items directed to the participants in the survey measuring democratic leadership in one aspect with six items, and just two core leadership functions of distributed leadership. However, it is obvious that the role of school leaders is too complex and more functions are performed by school leaders. Therefore, it is advisable to extend the study by investigating the relationship between democratic leadership and distribution of other leadership functions. Future studies can also expand democratic leadership instrument to get a more in-depth approach. Moreover, “leadership team” concept for distributed leadership was described participants as school principals and leader teachers in the school. However, some schools may not have teacher leaders and respond the survey only by considering the school principal or some schools may have multiple leaders including stakeholders. However, the role of policy-makers or parents needs to be thought as regards developing a cooperative team for the goals of the school by working collaboratively and advancing democratic approaches in schools.

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The Effect of Motivational Language on School Culture and Work-Related Quality of Life in Turkish School Settings

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Abstract

The relationship between motivational language, school culture and work-related life quality was researched by structural equation modeling (SEM) in this study. The population of the research was composed of 378 school teachers teaching at different schools of in Manisa province of Turkey. The volunteer teachers were selected using convenience sampling method. A qualitative design of correlational research model was employed. The correlations among the variables, and the research questions were tested employing SEM. We offered three models. The first model was not verified but the second and the third models were verified according to the data obtained from the survey. As a result of the research, the motivational language (ML) did not have a correlation with school culture (SC) and work-related life quality (WRQoL) in model 1. WRQoL did not show a correlation with ML but it had a relationship with SC in the model 2. SC showed a good correlation with work-related life quality but it did not show a relation with ML in model 3.

Keywords: *Motivational language, school culture, work-related life quality, school principal, structural equation model.*

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Introduction

When you look for convincing, persuading or changing other people's ideas, how you use the language is quite important. Each word we use is a parcel of purview from which the other person you try to communicate infers understanding. Trials sometimes becomes even more complex when words combine in the semantics of whole sentences (Vygotsky, 1965). For example, rhetorical tropes are ways of using words that may seem unusual but have a specific and desired effect which are common in eloquent speech. Language is core to all people lives. It is also arguably the sociological way that distinguishes humans apart from any other species. And on some accounts, language is the symbolic mean that allowed human culture and values to occur. Essentially, all of the context in which we live, language allows us express ourselves effectively, and gives an intellectual means of encoding subtle and complex ideas (Schneider, 2011). Finally, the messages that we want to give transmitted by speaker, and interpreted by hearer fulfills a symbolic function and effective social role. The use of effective language in the age we live, of course, is knowledge and human capital. Thus, knowledge is one of the key element for competitiveness in developing knowledge society. Human capital and knowledge are what create the human schemes and growth we take for granted. In an increasingly free world, the knowledge of language becomes indispensable. Let's think about how the advent of the democracy, motivation, communication, job satisfaction, stress, and exhaustion has changed our work lives. Those concepts have come to existence with the great effect of the use of language.

Motivational Language Theory

With the widespread acceptance of the view that research efforts should focus on the interactions between leaders and their followers rather than the features or behaviors of the leaders. The language that the leader uses in interacting with his followers has also begun to attract attention in leadership domain. Parallel to these developments, the role of language in leadership has been explored starting from Austeen (1962), but particularly in the 1990s and beyond, and the assumptions underlying the previous research have begun to be questioned (Sullivan, 1988; Mayfield, Mayfield & Kopf, 1995). The Speech Act Theory classified the use of communication approaches into three categories: perlocutionary acts, what the speaker wants to attain; illocutionary acts, which deals with what the speaker is doing while he is talking, and locutionary acts, which focus on the meaning of the words (Austen, 1962). Sullivan's Motivational Language Theory (MLT) was developed based on Austen's Speech Act Theory. Both the Speech Act Theory and the MLT examined links among managerial communication, workers' job satisfaction and workers' performance. Sullivan's MLT (1988) implied that leaders' motivating language has three types of speech, namely, perlocutionary act (direction-giving); illocutionary act (sharing feelings); and locutionary act (explaining culture) (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2006; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2010). Three kinds of speech acts in accordance with the MLT can described as such: direction-giving language is used if leaders try to make clear

aims and elucidate the importance of each duty to followers; empathetic language is employed by leaders to show their consideration and being sympathetic to followers to communicate friendly with them or to motivate them to meet the aim; and meaning-making language is spoken by leaders to provide the rules and the culture to followers to create common points among partners and reach them or tell them stories to enhance organization culture (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2006; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2010).

Work-Related Quality of Life

The World Health Organization (WHO) explain the quality of life as the individual's sensations of their stance in life, and in the organizations' ethos in which they live, and in relation to their aims, expectations, attachments, and apprehensions (2001). The concept quality of life could imply different things to different people, reflecting the intellectual background, experience, and values of the particular individual. Quality is linked with different practices, from the complex experiences and views of the individual to the very limited and shared categories of social life that make sense of our life styles (Patrick & Erickson, 1988; Goldschmidt, 1987; Fayers & Machin, 2000). Quality of life came to the forefront right after the World War II with the effort to show the view that having a good life is much more than just being financially secure (Clark, 2000). Definitions of quality of life have some subjective and objective indicators implying it as both physical and psychological phenomena (Lubkin, 1986).

Some major facets were proposed ranging from adequate and fair compensation to the social relevance of work that they provide a framework for analyzing some features of the work-related quality of life (WRQoL) (Walton, 1973). The first facet is adequate and fair compensation because the typical impetus for employment is earning a living. How well and fair that aim is completed affects the WRQoL. If the income from full-time work meet determined social and physical standard of the recipient, it can be accepted that adequate income is supplied. If the pay received bear an appropriate relationship to the pay received for other work, then, the fair compensation is achieved. The second facet is safe and healthy working conditions. There exist some aspects such as reasonable hours enforced by a standardized normal work period beyond which premium pay is required (Walton, 1973). The third facet is immediate occasions to use and advance human intellectual and technical skills. The revolution of industry has taken much of the meaning out of work. Work has tended to be fractioned, deskilled and tightly controlled. The planning of work has been separated from its implementation. Inclinations like autonomy, multiple capacities, emanation of knowledge and perspectives, whole tasks, planning the future have progressed in varying degrees from one job to the next. For that reason, the concept of job differs in how much employers enable employees develop their intellectual and new age technical capacity (Walton, 1973). Another facet is the future opportunity for sustainable growth and security. The term of sustainable development could be

explained as an advance that respond the needs of the recent moment without concession the skills of future generations to fulfil their own desires. In educational settings, sustainable development is mentioned to explain the learning styles and skills for the new era. Skills are not just related with work for individuals, which also serve important social aims. Intentions to excel a more inclusive country is up to young people graduating from a school with the skills they need to use in the future. If they lack such skills, their exclusion is likely to be entangled during their present and future lives (Parkin, Johnston, Buckland, Brookes & White, 2004). Prospective application is a main expectation to use expanded or newly acquired knowledge and skills in the future work assignments. Having held the availability of opportunities to excel in employees' organizational career, security with which income and employment security associated is required to maintain future opportunity for continuing growth in personal development. Finally, those facets under the name of WRQoL provide social integration to the modern life developing identity and self-esteem experiences such as freedom for prejudice, egalitarianism, mobility and supporting primary groups.

School Culture

Culture could be defined as how things act and effect our life, and is a lens through which the phenomena is viewed. Actually it defines reality for people in society, identifies and creates a framework for occupational social learning creating ethos that chip in the unique social and psychological environment of an organization (Schein, 1965; Schein, 1992). If we need to define the organization, it can be explained as such. It is a common scene on which individuals play their role, work collaboratively to earn their life as well as a sustenance of themselves. Every organization has its distinguished working style which often constitutes its culture. The ideologies, beliefs, rituals and values of an organization form its culture. The culture of the organization controls the way employees act both amongst themselves and with people outside the organization (Deal & Kennedy, 1984). Organizational culture contains the desires, philosophy, experiences, expectations and values of the organization that hold it together, and is reflected in its self being, languages, interactions with the outside world. It is based on accepted attitudes, shared beliefs, indigenized customs, and written and unwritten rules that have been collected over time and are considered valuable.

School is an important sociological organization that bring up children having several partners. The most important and obvious characteristic of school is accepting people as fundamental human capital which is raised and goes to community to serve for the nation. The school environment could influence the prosocial behaviors of human in their life span, if the school revitalize the meaning of sharing life together in peace and in connectedness (Eisenberg, 2006). However, the school partners, students and teachers often face a customary curriculum discerned by informal syllabus plans (Wren, 1999). This customary curriculum is called as school culture (SC). It also reflects the perceived distinguished values, languages, norms, beliefs, and standards that have formed over the years (Power,

Higgins, & Kohlberg, 1989). SC is an important contextual phenomenon influencing students' ontological attachment to school, and the perception on life (Markman, 2002). SC is an important and complex concept in education. Main properties of an organizations culture to be: the subtler level of basic ideas that are owned by members of an organization, that run unconsciously, and that explain in a mere taken for granted manner an organization's view of itself and its environment. If schools establish their own cultures, they can be more permanent. If a school that is different from the other schools changes its own characteristics, it can be more successful in compromising and improving the unique behaviors of its partners. SC must have such characteristics that must distinguish its school from the others. For that reason, school principals must be the creators of the apparatus that makes the school unprecedented. SC is an important but mostly neglected part of school effectivity. It can be claimed that SC puts more influence on school improvement than practicing standardized or unstandardized exams or curriculum changing policies to determine the academic standards of students (Wagner & Madsen Copas, 2002). SC is difficult to define and involved are people of all ages, tangible structures, and intangible structures, all of which interact with each other. Based on the literature reviewed for this study SC can be defined as: The interaction of school constituents (administrators, teachers, students) and the relationships among them, influenced by a school's size, rules and regulations, traditions, and goals (Bolman & Deal, 2003; Peterson, 2002; Senge, 1990; Deal & Peterson, 1990). One way of understanding the culture of a school is to observe and study the manifestations that represent that culture, which are the ways the culture of a school is made distinguishable. Those manifestations are symbols that are the center perspectives of the concepts of meaning in school. For example, trophies, banners, shared stories in the school lived in the past (Bolman & Deal, 1991). The second manifestation is rituals which encode an enormous variety of meaning and messages in observable ways. Moreover, they are routine observances that deals how devoted a culture is to a given value. Reciting a pledge of allegiance is given as an example for a ritual (Johnston, 1985; Johnston, 1987). The third manifestation is ceremonies that are the special recognition that celebrate heroes, myths or special events. The aim of the ceremonies is to shape behaviors that transpire in informal school ethos. Graduation ceremonies are given as an example for the third manifestation (Bolman & Deal, 1991). Heroes and Myths are the fourth manifestation for school culture. Stories are the fifth manifestation which assure, prospect general direction for hopeful future. According to Bolman & Deal (1991), stories are the fairy tales to clarify dreams, entertain the partners, give knowledge and security as a means of propaganda. Values and norms are the last manifestations. School values are the core beliefs that control the way an organization operates articulating the philosophy of the institution. Norms are the members' values held by the members of the organization about what to do and not to do under certain circumstances (Mills, 1984).

The model for explaining how ML influences SC and WRQoL, SC influences ML and WRQoL, and WRQoL influences ML and SC. Thus, we constructed several research questions on the basis of variables:

1. Research question: Does perceived ML directly influences SC and WRQoL?
2. Research question: Does perceived SC directly influences ML and WRQoL?
3. Research question: Does perceived WRQoL directly influences ML and SC?

Method

Research Design

We employed quantitative research design and correlational model was used in this research because we aimed to investigate the relationship between ML and WRQoL and SC in model 1. In model 2, we searched for the relationship between WRQoL and SC and ML. We searched for relationship between CS and WRQoL and ML in the model 3. It was assumed that there was cause and effect relationship among the variables. For that reason, variables were measured and the relationships were studied between them (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003; Johnson & Christensen, 2004).

Population and Sample

378 school teachers teaching at schools in Manisa during the fall term of the 2017-2018 academic years were included into the research population. We employed a convenience sampling method. . Because reaching the teachers was not available and reaching these teachers was easier than other methods, we chose the convenience sampling method. Of the teachers participating in the research, 303 (36.7%) were male, 75 (9.1%) were females. Their professional length of service was 30 (3.6%) 1-5 years, 90 (10.9%) 6-10 years, 28 (10.2%) 11-15 years, 96 (11.6%) 16-20 years, 33 (4.0%) 21-25 years and 45 (5.5%) 26 and on. The length of service in their recent schools 159 (19.3%) 1-5 years, 36 (4.4%) 6-10 years, 3 (0.4%) 11-15 years, 63 (7.6%) 21-25 years, 57 (6.9%) 26 and on. As for the teachers' branches, 63 (7.6%) were Turkish and Turkish literature teacher. 39 (4.7%) were social sciences teachers. The teachers of 45 (5.5%) were Mathematics teachers. The teachers of 6 (0.7%) were branch teachers. The teachers of another were 225 (27.3). The standard deviation (SD) of profession length of service was 1.48, length of service at school 2.56 and branch of teachers were 1.61.

Data Collection Tools

We collected the data using three questionnaires in this study. We designed them as a 5-point Likert scale from strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree to strongly disagree. The first questionnaire ML had three factors. Perlocutionary act is related with direction giving and uncertainty reducing.

When a school principal gives a feedback and information about a follower's tasks, goals, his/her job motivation is likely to increase. The second one is illocutionary act. It exists when a school principal shows empathy, encouragement, incentives through communication. The third one is locutionary act. It is also called as explanatory speech. Employing this kind of a motivational language act, a school principal could increase the partners' awareness of the organization's distinguished culture, climate, rules, norms and values. This act could be accepted as a meaning-making language style (Sullivan, 1988; Mayfield, Mayfield, & Kopf, 1995; Mayfield, Mayfield, & Kopf, 1998; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2008; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2009) We used the questionnaire called Motivational Language Scale for School Principals by Ozen (2013). Author applied some procedures to the mention scale. The first procedure was the result of an independent sampling t-test comparing the upper 27%-the lower 27%. This test showed no significant differences. The coefficients of item-total correlation were found between .56 and .83. The Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO) value was .946. It was found that The Bartlett Sphericity test was significant ($X^2=4859.252$, $p<.01$). Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was applied and showed that 3 factors came into existence. They were greater than Eigen value 1, explaining 69% of the total variance. The Pearson Moment correlation coefficients between factors were from .67 to .78. Factor loads of the scale were from .54 to .84. Cronbach's Alpha values for factors ranged from .88 to .94. Those findings showed that the translated Turkish form of the Motivational Language (ML) Scale is valid and reliable. The second questionnaire was SC questionnaire (Terzi, 2005). Data were analyzed employing frequencies and percentages, the independent sample t-test, The Pearson Moments Correlation coefficient. Factor analysis was used for examine the cultural properties extricating the dimensions of the scale. It showed that SC is a four sub-dimension scale. They are support oriented, success oriented, bureaucracy oriented and task oriented culture of an organization. Reliability of the instrument was assessed by Cronbach Alpha ($\alpha=.84$). The last questionnaire of work related quality of life scale (WRQoL) was adapted by Akar and Ustuner (2017). The Item Total correlation value of the scale were between .32 and .84, and the Cronbach Alpha coefficient was .95 showing that scale had a high reliability. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to verify the construct validity of the scale. It confirmed that scale had 23 items and 6 factors ($\chi^2 / SD=1.79$; RMSEA=.05; SRMR=.05; CFI=.96; NNFI=.95). The results obtained showed that factor loads of the dimensions changed between .33 and .97. Reliability analysis were by the test-retest and Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficients. The values of the dimensions and the total of the scale were as follows: job and career satisfaction .78; .73, general well-being .79; .81, control at work .89; .71, stress at work .70; .77, work conditions .80; .80, home-work interface .91; .75, and work-related quality of life in general .93; .88. Based on these findings, we could accept that the Turkish form of the scale was valid and reliable.

After questionnaires were made ready, there were eight high schools, and totally 516 teachers were working in those schools. 421 copies were distributed among teachers who worked at different schools. The questionnaires were administered during the daily visits. We made an appointment with the school principals. We met with the teachers at teachers' lounge without letting the principals in the lounge. Having collected the questionnaires, the questionnaires that were incomplete and perfunctory filled were discarded from the study. Finally, 378 completed questionnaires were decided to use for analyses. Cronbach's Alpha and Test-Retest was used to assess the reliability of the three scales. Table 1 presents the result of each scale. The reliability of the questionnaires was satisfactory.

Table 1. Cronbach's alpha and test/re-test reliability statistics of MD, SC and WRQoL scales

Scales	Cronbach's Alpha	Test/Re-Test	Number of Dimensions
MD	.91	.88	3
SC	.71	.75	4
WRQoL	.88	.91	6

Procedures

The main aim of this study was to research three theoretical models surveying the relations among ML, WRQoL SC. SEM is to explain the variables in the model because these models includes latent variables formulating the theoretical models, which establish causality. The equations in the models represent the covariance among latent variables. For that reason, we aim to test the models according to hypotheses. Some ways are used to form SEM schemes. Observed variables which are measured are shown as square or rectangle. Factors have more than two signs which are called as latent variables. In SEM schemes, factors are shown in circle or oval. The correlations between variables are shown by lines. If there is no line between variable, it means that direct correlation does not exist. Lines have bilateral or unilateral arrow. Unilateral arrow means that one-way correlation exists and the variable that arrow shows is the dependent, explained variable. If the variables have unilateral arrow line, it means that two variables have covariance (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

The first statistical procedure is to form the theoretical model. Figure 1, Figure 2 and Figure 3 show the causality among ML, WRQoL and SC. The first model in Figure 1 includes one exogenous variable, ML and two endogenous variables, WRQoL and SC. ML as an exogenous variable has three observable indicators that are directive language, sense of belonging and encouraging language. One of the endogenous variable which is WRQoL has job and career satisfaction, general well-being, control at work, stress at work, working condition, homework interface. Another endogenous variable which is SC has support culture, success culture, bureaucratic culture and task culture. The second model in Figure 2 includes one exogenous variable, WRQoL and two endogenous variables, SC and

ML. WRQoL as an exogenous variable has six observable indicators that are job and career satisfaction, general well-being, control at work, stress at work, working condition, homework interface. One of the endogenous variable which is SC has four observable indicators. They are support culture, success culture, bureaucratic culture and task culture. Another endogenous variable which is ML has directive language, sense of belonging and encouraging language of observable indicators. The third model in Figure 3 has one exogenous variable, SC and two endogenous variables, WRQoL and ML. SC as an exogenous variable has four observable indicators that are support culture, success culture, bureaucratic culture and task culture. One of the endogenous variable which is WRQoL has job and career satisfaction, general well-being, control at work, stress at work, working condition, home and work interface. Another endogenous variable which is ML has three observable variables that are directive language, sense of belonging and encouraging language.

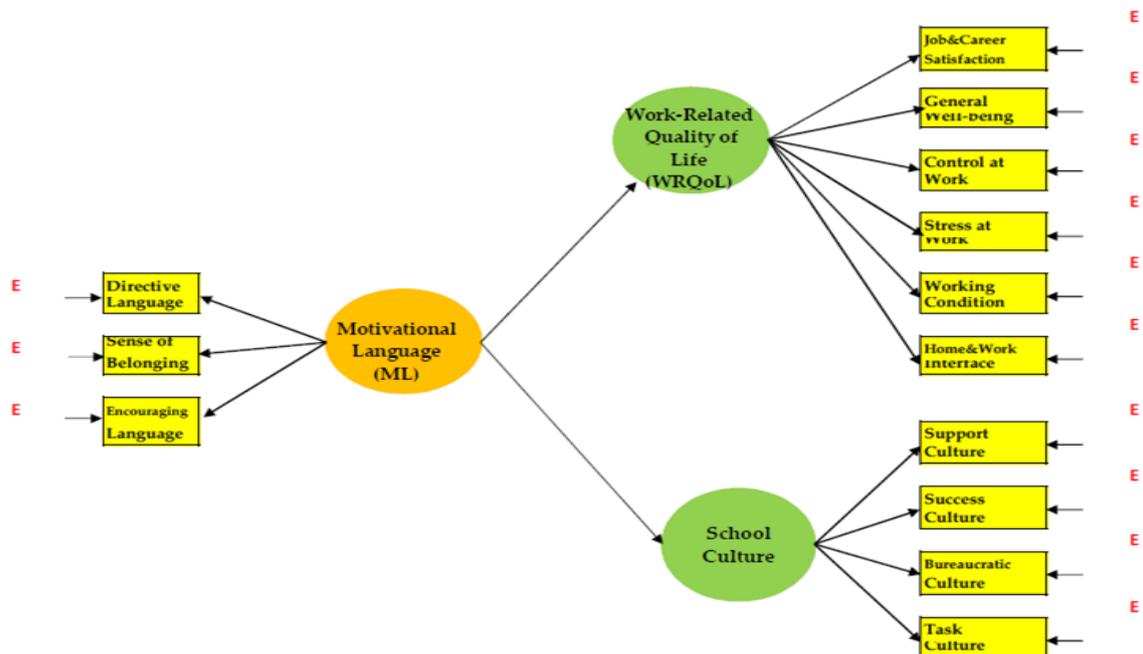


Figure 1. ML and WRQoL-SC Model

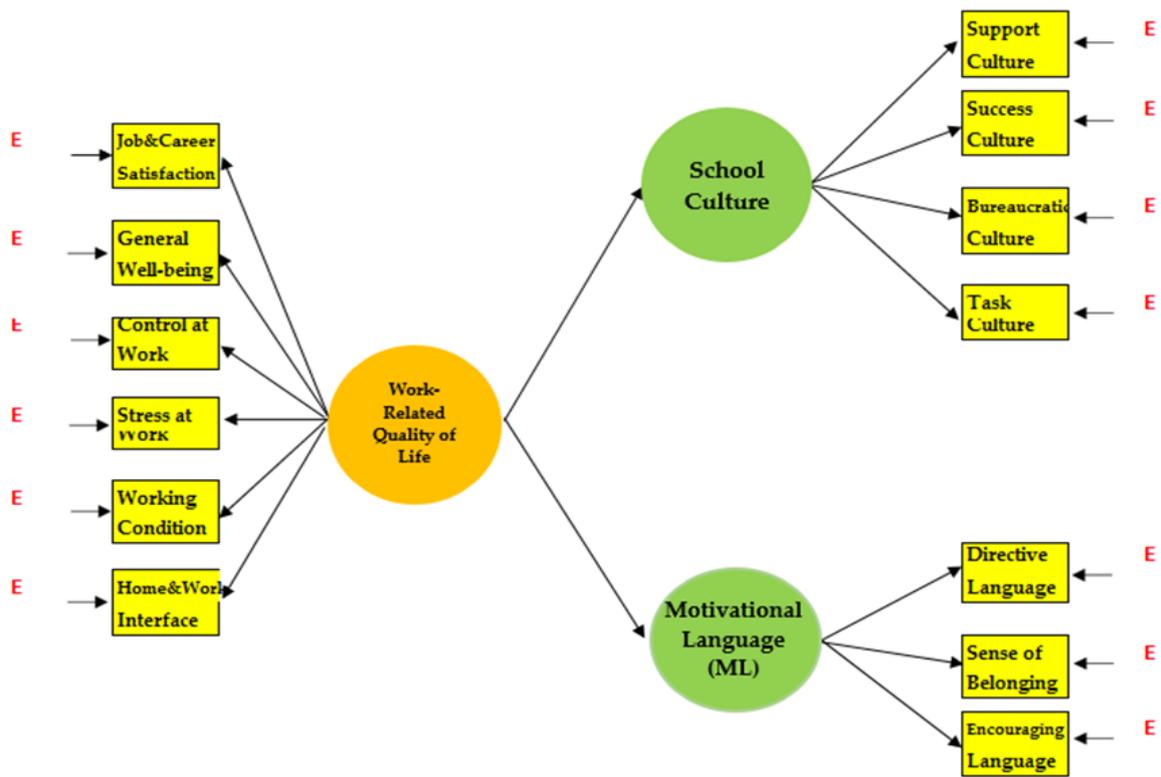


Figure 2. WRQoL and SC-ML Model

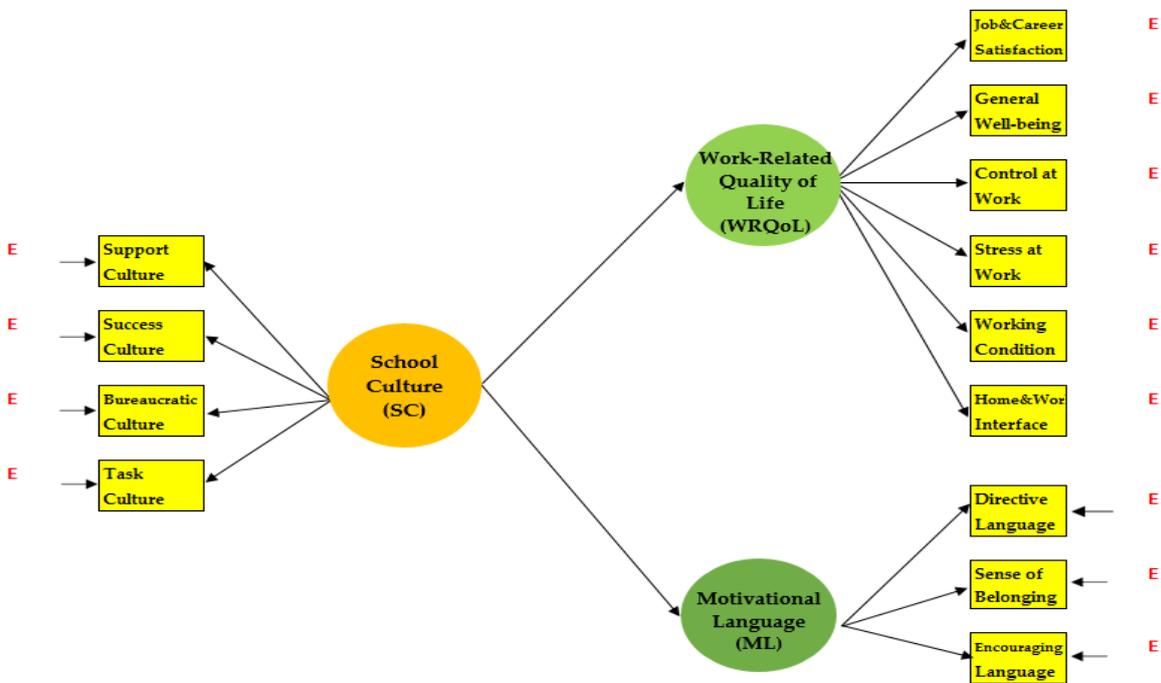


Figure 3. SC and WRQoL-ML Model

Data Analysis

The aim of the study which was explained beforehand was to establish a model of path analysis to display the influence of MD over SC and WRQoL SC over MD and WRQoL; WRQoL over MD and SC. For that reason, Lisrel 8.51 was used. Descriptive analyses, Pearson Correlation Coefficient analysis, and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) were employed to analyze the rapport between ML, WRQoL and SC in the study. Structural equation modeling's assumptions were taken into account, and the covariance matrix and maximum likelihood method which is a method of estimating the parameters of a statistical model assumed were opted for the analysis. Descriptive analyses and Pearson correlation coefficient analyses were carried out via SPSS 21.0 and the SEM was executed via the LISREL 8.54. Path analysis is an effective means for estimating direct and indirect effects of some variables on a specific proposed variable, which was MD, WRQoL and SC in our study. The strength of a path in a model is reflected by a coefficient conceptually equal to coefficients of standardized partial regression. A coefficient is in a range from -1 to $+1$. The higher the coefficient, the greater the effect one variable exerts on another. In order to value the significance of a path in a model of path model, the t value which is the ratio of the unstandardized estimate to standard error is used. If t is greater than 1.96, the path is significant at 0.05. If t is greater than 2.56, the path is significant at 0.01. In addition to each path, the goodness of fit of a path analysis model can also be defined employing indices available for such evaluations. Those indices can be divided into two core groups: absolute fit indices and comparative fit indices. Absolute fit indices mention how well the proposed model fits the data. The model χ^2 value, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), goodness-of-fit index (GFI) and root mean square residual (RMR) are some indices categorized in this group. χ^2 value of the model is very sensitive to the sample size and normally its value increases as the sample size increases. To curb this problem, the ratio of the χ^2 value to the df should be used so that a ratio lower than two is indicative of a satisfactory model fit (Wheaton, Muthen, Alwin, & Summers, 1977). RMSEA is another absolute fit index, popular because of its sensitivity and informative and easy-to-interpret nature. A RMSEA value lower than 0.07 indicates a good fit, values lower than 0.1 are indicative of mediocre fit and values higher than 0.1 represent unacceptable model fit (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996; Kline, 2005). In contrast, comparative fit indices explain how close the hypothesized model is to a baseline ideal model. Normed fit index (NFI) and comparative fit index (CFI) are two examples of such fit indices. Moreover, comparative fit indices with values higher than 0.95 indicate that a model has a good fit.

Results

The main aim of the study is to test three models that point out the relationship between ML and WRQoL and SC. Before testing the hypothesized model, the descriptive statistics related to the

variables of the and the correlations between them were examined. Correlational analysis results are given in Table 2.

Table 2. Correlations matrices of ML, WRQoL and SC

Variables	1	2	3
1-MLT	-	.02	.06
2-WRQoLT	.02	-	.73**
3-SCT	.06	.73**	-

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed),

If Table 2 is examined, it is seen that there are positive correlations between ML, WRQoL and SC. It was found that there is a positive relationship between ML and WRQoL ($r = .02$) but the value is not significant. ML has a positive correlation with SC ($r = .06$). However, it is not significant. WRQoL has a positive correlation with ML ($r = .02$) but it is not significant. It was found positive and significant correlation between WRQoL and SC ($r = .63$). We found a positive correlation between SC and ML ($r = .06$) but it was not significant. All correlation values are positive. This shows that WRQoL increases when SC increases, and WRQoL decreases when SC decreases, too. In addition, the relationships between all three variables are strong at a medium level since the correlation coefficients are between .02 and .73 (Green & Salkind, 2005).

Table 3. Various fit indices of the first, second and, third models

Model fit index	Acceptable level	First model	Second model	Third model
χ^2/df	> 5.00	18.75	1.71	1.70
RMSEA	< 0.70	0.11	0.07	0.07
GFI	> 0.90	0.83	0.89	0.90
AGFI	> 0.90	0.76	0.90	0.91

Note: GFI = goodness-of-fit index, AGFI = adjusted goodness-of-fit; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation

According to the hypothesis of the study, it was constructed three models affecting the school ethos that table 3 shows. We decided the good fit criteria of the submitted models according to the GFI, AGFI, RMSEA, χ^2 /df^2 . The Goodness-of-Fit statistic (GFI) is an alternative to the Chi-Square test and assesses the variance proportion that is explained by the computed population covariance. The GFI value ranges from 0 to 1. The larger samples increase its value. The GFI value of the first model was 0.83, the second model was 0.89, and the third model was 0.90. The GFI values showed that three models had good GFI scores. Together with the GFI is the AGFI value is similar to the GFI. It adjusts the GFI based on degrees of freedom. If the model is more saturated, it reduces the model fit (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Thus, more parsimonious models are accepted when

penalized for complex models. Besides, AGFI is intended to accrue with sample size. As with the GFI, values for the AGFI also change between 0 and 1 and it is usually common that values of 0.90 or greater indicate good fit models. The AGFI value of our first model was 0,76, the second model was 0.90, and the third model was 0.91. The AGFI values indicated that the second and third models showed good fit. RMSEA informs us how well the model we established that would fit the populations covariance matrix (Byrne, 1998). In other words, the RMSEA favors parsimony because it will decide the model with the less number of parameters. Recommendations for RMSEA values range from 0.05 to 0.10 was considered an indication of fair fit and values above 0.10 indicated poor fit. The RMSEA value of the first model was 0.11, the second model was 0.07, and the third model was 0.07. As for, RMSEA values, the first model was out of limits to meet the criteria. The Chi-Square value is the common measure for calculating the model fit and, estimates the magnitude of discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariance matrices (Hu & Bentler, 1999). A good fit for a proposed model would ensure an insignificant result at a 0.05 threshold, that is why the Chi-Square statistic is often ascribed to as either a badness of fit or a lack of fit measure (Kline, 2005). The first model of Chi-Square value was 218.87, the second model was 108.06, and the third model was 107.91. Due to the restrictiveness of the Model Chi-Square alone, researchers have sought alternative indices to assess model fit. One example of a statistic that minimizes the impact of sample size on the Model Chi-Square is relative/normed chi-square (χ^2/df). Although there is no consensus regarding an acceptable ratio for this statistic, recommendations range from as high as 5.0 (Wheaton, Muthen, Alwin & Summers, 1977) to as low as 2.0 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Thus, the first model χ^2/df was 18.75, the second model χ^2/df was 1.71, and the third model χ^2/df was 1.70. The values showed that only the second and the third models indicated well fit. Shortly, we claim that the first model was not a good fit model. However, the second and third model show good fit.

Table 4. Standardized and unstandardized regression matrix of three models

Path		Unstandardized Coefficient		Path Standardized Coefficient Beta	Path t	R ²
		B	SE			
Model 1						
ML	WRQoL	-0.54	0.22	-0.28	-2.41	0.04
ML	SC	0.17	0.23	0.64	7.11	0.06
Model 2						
WRQoL	ML	-0.09	0.03	-0.01	-0.24	0.02
WRQoL	SC	0.68	0.07	0.63	9.15	0.21
Model 3						
SC	WRQoL	0.59	0.06	0.63	9.15	0.22
SC	ML	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.71	0.06

Table 4 shows unstandardized regression coefficient for the theoretical models. It should be stressed that ML affected the WRQoL in negative way. However, ML predicted SC in the highest level among the three conceptual models. In the model 2, WRQoL affected the ML in negative way. Yet, the prediction of WRQoL to ML is lower than the model 1. WRQoL predicted the SC. In the model 3, SC affected the WRQoL and SC but the coefficient is bigger many times than ML. Also, we offered the R^2 which explain the percentage of change in the latent variables as observed variables. The ML explains only 0.04 percent of the change in WRQoL. ML also explains 0.06 percent of the change in SC in the model 1. In model 2, WRQoL explains the 0.02 percent of ML in conceptual diagram. WRQoL explains the 0.21 percent of SC which is a powerful affect. In the model 3; as SC explains WRQoL in 0.22 percent, SC illustrates only 0.06 percent of ML.

Table 5. Unstandardized and standardized structural equation for the measurement model

Parameter estimates	Unstandardized loading (SE)			Standardized loading		
	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model1	Model2	Model3
ML---ML1	0.83	1.00	1.00	0.88	0.88	0.88
ML---ML2	0.97	1.17	1.71	0.96	0.96	0.96
ML---ML3	0.74	0.89	0.98	0.80	0.80	0.80
ML---WRQoL	0.21	-	-	0.12	-	-
ML---SC	0.03	-	-	0.06	-	-
WRQoL---WRQoL1	1.00	0.55	1.00	0.88	0.89	0.89
WRQoL---WRQoL2	0.80	0.43	0.79	0.75	0.74	0.74
WRQoL---WRQoL3	0.92	0.50	0.91	0.68	0.68	0.68
WRQoL---WRQoL4	0.72	-0.40	0.73	0.43	-0.44	-0.44
WRQoL---WRQoL5	1.21	0.64	1.16	0.69	0.67	0.67
WRQoL---WRQoL6	1.21	0.66	1.21	0.77	0.89	0.89
WRQoL---ML	-	0.01	-	-	0.01	-
WRQoL---SC	-	0.46	-	-	0.86	-
SC---SC1	1.00	1.00	0.53	0.82	0.84	0.84
SC---SC2	1.20	1.14	0.61	0.93	0.90	0.89
SC---SC3	-0.13	-0.14	-0.07	-0.11	-0.13	-0.13
SC---SC4	0.77	0.77	0.41	0.69	0.71	0.61
SC---ML	-	-	0.03	-	-	0.04
SC---WRQoL	-	-	0.47	-	-	0.86

*p<0.001

Results of the unstandardized and standardized loadings for the measurement of the three structural equation models were given in Table 5. Standardized factor loading of the model 1 ranged from -0.11 to 0.96. In model 2, it changed from -0.44 to 0.96. In model 3, factor loading ranged from -

0.44 to 0.96. When Table 3 which explains the estimated structural equation between the variables, it is seen that ML1 explains 77% of the perceived ML variance implicitly and ML2 explains 93% of the perceived ML variance. ML3 explains %64 variance of ML. In total, ML explains the %0 variance of perceived WRQoL. Moreover, ML predicts the %0 variance of SC. As for WRQoL, WRQoL1 explains the %77 variance of WRQoL. WRQoL2 explains the %56 variance of WRQoL. WRQoL3 explains the %46 variance of WRQoL. WRQoL4 explains the %18 variance of WRQoL. WRQoL5 explains the %48 variance of WRQoL. WRQoL6 explains the %59 variance of WRQoL. SC1 predicts the %67 variance of CS. SC2 explains the %86 variance of SC. SC3 predicts the %1 variance of SC. Finally, SC4 explains the %48 variance of SC. These findings and the model 1 offered did not verify the hypothesis 1. When Model 2 in Table 3 is examined, it is seen that ML1 defines 75% of the perceived ML variance indirectly and ML2 explains 90% of the perceived ML variance. ML3 explains %64 variance of ML. As for WRQoL, WRQoL1 explains the %79 variance of WRQoL. WRQoL2 explains the %55 variance of WRQoL. WRQoL3 explains the %46 variance of WRQoL. WRQoL4 explains the %19 variance of WRQoL. WRQoL5 explains the %45 variance of WRQoL. WRQoL6 explains the %60 variance of WRQoL. In total, WRQoL explains the %0 variance of ML. Besides WRQoL explains the %75 variance of SC. SC1 predicts the %70 variance of CS. SC2 explains the %81 variance of SC. SC3 predicts the %16 variance of SC. Finally, SC4 explains the %50 variance of SC. These findings and the model 2 offered verified the hypothesis 2. When Model 3 in Table 3 is controlled, it is seen that ML1 defines 77% of the perceived ML variance indirectly and ML2 explains 91% of the perceived ML variance. ML3 explains %76 variance of ML. As for WRQoL, WRQoL1 explains the %70 variance of WRQoL. WRQoL2 explains the %49 variance of WRQoL. WRQoL3 explains the %38 variance of WRQoL. WRQoL4 explains the %22 variance of WRQoL. WRQoL5 explains the %01 variance of WRQoL. WRQoL6 explains the %65 variance of WRQoL. SC1 predicts the %70 variance of CS. SC2 explains the %80 variance of SC. SC3 predicts the %65 variance of SC. Finally, SC4 explains the %58 variance of SC. In total, SC predicts the %30 variance of ML. Besides, SC explains the %27 variance of WRQoL. These findings and the model 3 offered verified the hypothesis 3.

Conclusion, Discussion and Recommendation

We aimed to investigate the relationship among ML, SC and WRQoL in our study. In accordance with this purpose, In model 1, there was no relationship first between ML and WR. Second, it was found a relationship between ML and SC. Structural equation modelling found that first model was not proper model in Turkish educational settings. These findings show that no matter how much a school principal increases his/her motivational language, WRQoL and SC do not change. It is an expected situation that school principals are assigned through some procedures that are not based on competence of school principals. Turkish Ministry of National Education (MoNE) changes these

procedures frequently and performs according to ideological intimacy not to personal capability, quality and objective criteria. Besides, someone who is candidate for being a school principal should be a member of a union which is close to political power and work the oracle finding a political person to be assigned. The era in which we live is known as continuous development that depended mostly on the effective knowledge management strategies. The schools, as knowledge oriented organizations, must strive for enhancing and putting into practice the effective knowledge management strategies. The school principals with effective leadership abilities are seen as the key people who can bring innovation and improvement and change schools to learning organizations (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999). School principals can promote some knowledge management strategies by creating effective communication and cooperation not only with the teachers, students and employees at schools, but also with the people and organizations outside of the schools as well (Ozmen & Muratoglu, 2010). ML enhances the school principals' effectivity and credibility. Despite the fact that mentioned the sentence before, our study is not consistent with Mert, Keskin & Bas (2013) because school principals do not have real power in their hand. School principals who were assigned pulling the strings, to whom teachers and the school partners do not pay respect in Turkish educational settings. Another reason is that MoNE managerial structure is highly hierarchical. Decision are given by MoNE in capital. School principals are the last part of the chain of command. Thus, they cannot show their managerial power.

In second model, it was found that WRQoL has a relationship between with ML but the relationship is very weak. The finding before mentioned there is no relationship between ML and WRQoL was based on the assignment procedures of school principals which was performed not in accordance with personnel merit but WRQoL can increase not only the satisfaction but also the ML of school principal. This can be based on the school teachers' individual competencies such as communication, desire for students' success. The relationship between WRQoL and SC is positive and high. The model it was offered is suitable for the educational settings. These findings show that the more WRQoL increases, the better SC becomes effective. A positive relationship was found between WRQoL and its last substructure named family-work life balance. When the balance is established better, the WRQoL perceived is getting higher. On the contrary, The WRQoL has a negative relationship stress at work. If the stress increases at work the WRQoL diminishes. Stress causing dissatisfaction with working life affects the teachers some time or another, regardless of position or status. The frustration, boredom, anxiety and anger common to employees can be costly to both individuals and schools. School principals seek to reduce job stress at all organizational levels, including their own. This is a complex problem, however, because it is difficult to isolate and identify the attributes which affect the quality of working life. Effective schooling of educational settings is linked to satisfaction of its work force. A school that does not measure and improve employee satisfaction and stress may face increasing turnover, declining success and limited ability to attract and

retain qualified replacements (Goldschmidt, 1987). SC has a negative relationship with school bureaucratic culture which means that when bureaucratic culture increases school climate is affected in a negative way. It can be assumed that the bureaucratic structure of schools makes it difficult to commence needed and expected appropriate changes when it is desired by organization. Disseminating the dominant culture through the education is a heated topic of social debate in a pluralistic society. Religious, cultural, and ethnic groups can feel marginalized and alienated when the teachers, students are forced to conform to bureaucratic school structures (Van Beck, 2011).

As for the model 3, we found that SC has a weak relationship with ML. We found the same result related with ML in the model 2. It can be understood that school principals' qualifications and personal merits are of great importance. Language is very important means through which humans have the capability to communicate and interact with one another. As with anything inhuman life, there are positive and negative ways of using effective language. One of the first base a school principal needs to think about when looking at language use is appropriateness which takes important personal and intellectual qualities. By appropriate, it means whether the language is suitable or fitting for him/herself, as a school principal; his/her followers; the speaking context; and the speech itself.

Besides, School culture has an important relationship with WRQoL which is the quality of relationship between employees and the total working environment, with human, technical and economic aspects (Chelte, 1983). Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2013) measured the quality of work life of employees in private technical institutions and found that work environment, organization culture and climate have strong focus on WRQoL. School principals are expected to show leadership behaviors, and should pay attention on teachers' beliefs, include them into decision making processes, to increase their school culture perceptions (Witziers, Boskers & Kruger, 2003). Hallinger and Heck (1998) also purport that school principals who try to increase the positive school culture can yield to collaborative teacher and student works, project developing soul, and partner based schools' atmosphere.

The following recommendations are presented for future works proposed by authors, based on the research discussion. The ML is an important means to form a good SC and Arlo. In order to high level of WRQoL and SC, school principals must be aware of the importance of ML. School principals are not only managers but also they are educational leaders and good role models for teachers, students. Thus, they must be assigned for their personal merits, academics background and intellectual capacity. Support and educational opportunities such as master and doctorate degree can be offered to increase their 21. century technical and intellectual capacity. Turkish educational settings and management are highly structured, bureaucratic and politized. Moreover, teacher unions are involved in ideological obsession that keeps wisdom and human mind away from analytical and

critical thoughts. Data were collected and examined from the small city of Manisa province. Similar researches can be performed in another city. New researches can be performed using different sampling methods for the future. Part of the findings were obtained through correlational statistics methods in the research. The methods through which more deep and significant information can be obtained via qualitative researches.

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Analysis of the Relationship between Pre-service Teachers' Value Orientations and Empathic Tendencies

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Abstract

This research aimed at analyzing pre-service teachers' value orientations and empathic tendencies. It was based on quantitative, descriptive and relational approach. Pre-service teachers' value orientations and empathic tendencies were evaluated according to the variables including gender, subject area and types of education. Following this evaluation process, the correlation relationship between value orientations and empathic tendencies was examined. According to the independent variables, it was found that pre-service teachers' value orientations show significant differentiations for some value dimensions as opposed to the other value ones. Besides, pre-service teachers' empathic tendencies show significant differences with regard to gender, subject area and types of education variables. Based on gender variable, a significant difference occurs in favor of the female pre-service teachers and a significant difference takes place in favor of those pre-service teachers graduated from non-formal education in respect to types of education variable. The correlation value for pre-service teachers' value orientations and empathic tendencies are significant and low. It was revealed that the relationship between the value orientations and the empathic tendency dimensions are positive and low for some value dimensions and negative and low for the other ones.

Keywords: *Pre-service teacher, value orientation, empathic tendency.*

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Introduction

Values, which affect thoughts, attitudes, behaviors and decisions, shape preferences in one's life, shortly give meaning to life, are a consensus base which societies value and share (Zevalsiz, 2014:1744), "enduring belief" (Rokeach, 1973), deep rooted abstract motivators which lead individuals' thought, attitude and behaviors or account for them (Schwartz, 2017, p.261). As values are concerned with the principles to solve problems among people in addition to dealing with the relationships between people and nature, it has a long-lasting history as communal living (Doğan, 2007:38).

Values have a significant role in preferring one particular behavior to other one on account of creating social life criteria (Yıldız, Dilmaç and Deniz, 2013, p. 741). It is an important expectation for individuals to arrange their lives according to the value systems they embrace. Therefore, values constitute a basic perception source for individuals who are a member of any social group (Şişman, 2002, p. 93).

As a result, values are inspiration sources for people and societies indicating what it is "good, beautiful, important and positive and so forth". They are also defined as an evaluation criterion to enable people to justify what they do (Bacanlı, 2011:19-21, Doğan, 2016). In this respect, value refers to "**good**" in ethics, the "**quality**" of objects and events according to societies in sociology, "**truth**" in logic, "**beauty**" in esthetics. In dictionary, it is defined as "**abstract measure**" helping describing an important thing and "**a value for something**"(Hançerlioğlu, 1976: 275. Türk Dil Kurumu, 2005: 483, Püsküllüoğlu, 2003: 352-353). The fact that value concept has been a research issue in different fields in social sciences for a long time can be explained through its role in understanding people (Asan, 2011, p. 16).

A significant consensus point for a number of social scientists is that values are a crucial social fact and, therefore, can be a subject for scientific research and examination. So, value concept has an interdisciplinary characteristic used in social sciences including psychology, sociology, social psychology, anthropology, economy and politics (Güney, 2011. p.31). However, social disciplines prefer explaining value concept from the point of subjective view. To illustrate, Allport (1968) dealt with the concept psychological perspective and defined the value as "perceived meanings with regard to self". According to Allport's evaluation, value means perceiving any object valuable, psychologically attaching to that object or making an effort to acquire or preserve it. Based on the social evaluation, value is "basic moral principles or beliefs reflecting the shared thoughts, aims and interests which are regarded as true and necessary by the majority of group members to enable a society or any social group to keep its entity, unity, running and continuation" (Kızılçelik & Erjem, 1996). Güngör, who explains the value concept through social psychology approach, defines value as

"belief indicating what can or cannot be desired" and regards it as a component of our thoughts, emotions and knowledge with regard to any part of our life in a belief dimension. In other words, value involves three components namely, knowledge, emotion and behavior. When we have a value, we think that value the most accurate way to follow, emotionally focus on it developing a positive attitude and are led towards a particular direction by that value (Güngör, 1998: 27-29).

Where does the importance of knowing people's value orientations stem from? The easiest and clearest answer for this question is that values are mostly concerned with basic reasons and explanatory factors underlying an individual's whole thought, emotion, attitude and behaviors. In this regard, knowing an individual's value can give an idea about what affects and activates that person (Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 157). It is important to know value orientations consisting of the values which have a power to affect and shape individuals' thought, emotion, attitude, perception and behaviors.

Value orientation comprises of a set of values which influences people's decisions, preferences and behaviors. If those values are consistent with each other and can shape people's life, they can live free of inconsistencies. Otherwise, they can continue their life with inconsistencies.

People's value orientations enliven their whole concepts in their life more or less (Genc & Eryaman, 2008). Empathy can be regarded as one of the basic values affecting the concepts. The quantity of empathy density experienced in relationships can be found in people's different value orientations.

Empathy has functions in modern history of psychology including psychological counseling and guidance and clinical psychology (Akkoyun, 2001: 74-83). Besides, empathy is one of the important concepts in self-psychology and social psychology literature (Dökmen, 2002). Concept of empathy in social psychology refers to the inner sense of an individual who has been affected and impressed. It is known as a capacity to predict other's reactions in interpersonal relationships. In this regard, an individual with a high sense of empathic tendency can experience another's feelings better and evaluate an issue from his/her perspective better. Empathy which is, generally, a psychological effort to understand the opposite person as "other" and guess other's potentials, stresses out the capacity to put oneself in other's position. So, this effort requires individual to get away from self-centered thinking to other's perspective/approach instead of evaluating outer world and other from his/her self-centered perspective (Bilgin, 2003: 101-102).

Dökmen (cited from Rogers, 1970 & 1983) indicates that empathy is a process where counselor puts himself/herself in counselees' position, enters their phenomenological world, correctly understand their feelings and thoughts, feel their feelings and convey this counseling case to them.

Counselor should avoid reflecting his/her own feelings to counselees. Besides, counselor should use his/her own sentences while conveying the emphatic reaction formed in his/her mind to counselee. However, counselee's words should be sometimes included in those sentences (Dökmen, 1988 & 2002).

Individual realizes his/her inner self who he/she has not been aware of before as a result of his/her inner self revealed by another through empathy (Tangül Özcan, Oflaz & Türkbay, 2003). People feel understood and cared when they are empathized with. The fact that they are understood and cared, makes them relax and feel good. Empathic skill has a significant role in ensuring interpersonal and healthy communication (Yüksel, 2004).

Empathy, which is a shared emotional and cognitive effort, can be utilized in every area where healthy and effective communication is needed. Empathy strengthens solidarity capacity. Besides, it is an activity which makes positive contributions to social behaviors and is a counselee centered emotional and cognitive understanding and sharing process. If such a profound and intense empathy becomes a part of teacher's personality, his/her student is expected to develop his/her academic, pedagogic, religious, moral and social behaviors (Aydın, 2009).

This research is based on the premise that if empathy becomes a crucial part of a teacher's personality, it will make significant contributions to his/her students' achievements in life. So, in this research, the answer of the question "how is the relationship between pre-service teachers' value orientations and empathic tendencies?" was sought.

Purpose

The general purpose of this research is to analyze the relationship between pre-service teachers' value orientations and empathic tendencies. Besides, it is to reveal whether there are significant differences in the relationships of their value orientations and empathic tendencies according to gender, subject area and types of education variables.

Method

Relational screening model was employed in the current descriptive research. The model is a research model which aims to determine the existence of significance between two or more variables (Karasar, 1998, p.81).

The population of the research consisted of 1000 students who attended the Pedagogical Formation Training Certificate Program held at Mardin Artuklu University in 2016-2017 academic year. Its sampling comprised of 230 students who were randomly selected.

Table 1. Data concerning the sampling group

Gender	N	%	Subject Area	N	%	Type of education	N	%
Female	139	60.4	History	39	16.9	Formal	181	78.7
Male	91	39.6	Philosophy Group	67	29.1	Non-formal	49	21.3
			Theology	46	20			
			Art	19	8.2			
			Turkish Literature	21	9.1			
			Health	38	16.5			

When the data in Table 1 is examined, it is seen that the participants were 39.6% (N=91) male students and 60.4% (N=139) female students. 16.9% (N=39), 29.1% (N=67), 20% (N=46), 8.2% (N=19) and 9.1% (N=21) and 16.5% (N=38) of the students study in History, Philosophy Group, Theology, Art, Turkish Literature and Health, respectively. 78.7% (N=181) of the participants graduated from formal education, whereas 21.3% (N=49) of them graduated from non-formal education.

The Portrait Values Questionnaire with 40 questions developed by Schwartz and Bilsky (2001) and "Personal Information Form" were used to collect the data concerning pre-service teachers' value orientations. A fictional individual is described corresponding to the aims or desires in ten values types for each item in the questionnaire. The value types and the related item numbers are displayed below (Demirutku, 2004: 9-10).

1- Power: he/she wants to have much money and expensive things; **2- Achievement:** he/she wants people to admire what he/she has accomplished; **3- Hedonism:** it is important for him/her to do the things which give pleasure; **4- Stimulation:** he/she always looks for something to try; **5- Self-direction:** he/she wants to perform an action distinctively and originally; **6- Universalism:** he/she believes that everybody should have the equal opportunities; **7- Benevolence:** it is very important to help people around him/her; **8- Tradition:** he/she thinks about the best way to do the things is in traditional ways; **9- Conformity:** he/she believes that people should do what they are asked; **10- Security:** he/she avoids everything which will jeopardize his/her security.

The validity and reliability were tested on the questionnaire in the research which was adapted into Turkish. The validity and reliability of the Portrait Values Questionnaire were conducted during the adaptation for Turkish (Demirutku & Sümer, 2010, p. 21-22). According to these results, it can be expressed that the empirical structure in the research does not show significant fluctuations from the theoretical model and the observed fluctuations are consistent with the previous ones.

The coefficients for Cronbach's Alpha and test-retest reliability were calculated for value (types) orientations in the Portrait Values Questionnaire. According to the calculations, the lowest coefficient value occurred in "*Self-direction*" with .56, whereas the highest coefficient one happened in "*Achievement*" with .82. Besides, test-retest reliability calculations indicated that the lowest reliability coefficient value was in "Self-direction" with .65 and the highest one in "*Tradition*" with .82.

"Empathic Tendency Scale" developed by Dökmen (1988) was used to collect the data concerning pre-service teachers' empathic tendencies. 1st, 2nd, 4th, 5th, 9th, 10th, 15th, 16th, 17th, 18th, 19th and 20th items in the scale are positive and in standard calculation, whereas 3rd, 6th, 7th, 8th, 11th, 12th, 13th and 14th items are negative and in reverse calculation. The high point derived from the scale demonstrates high empathic tendency and the low point indicates low empathic tendency. In the context with the validity of the scale, the correlation for the scores obtained from Empathic Tendency Scale and "Understanding Feelings" part in Edwards Personal Preference Schedule which were applied with 24 participants, were examined and it was found that the correlation value was 0.68. Test-retest and split test methods were used to test the reliability of the scale. The reliability of the scale based on test-retest occurred as $r=0.82$. The correlation between even and odd items in the scale was $r=0.86$ (Dökmen, 1988). The formula for Cronbach's Alpha was used in this research and Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient was calculated as .60.

Data Analysis

Arithmetic mean and standard deviation were used to analyze the data in the research. In addition, correlation technique was employed to test the relationship between value orientation and empathic tendency. T-test or Mann-Whitney -U were utilized for the variables including "gender" and "type of education", while One-Way Anova or Scheffe tests were used for "subject area" variable. Tukey HSD test was implemented to reveal the source of differences for significant F values.

Findings

The findings of the research as follows: 1. Pre-service teachers' value orientations with regard to the variables; 2- Pre-service teachers' empathic tendencies with regard to the variables; and 3- The correlation between pre-service teachers' value orientations and empathic tendencies.

The findings concerning value orientations

The findings for general value orientations

Table 2. The findings for general value orientations

Pre-service Teachers' Value Orientations	N	\bar{x}	S
Universalism	230	1,64	,66
Self-direction	230	1.86	,65
Benevolence	230	1,88	,73
Security	230	2.08	,80
Conformity	230	2.20	,91
Tradition	230	2.51	,88
Stimulation	230	2.57	,97
Hedonism	230	2.79	1.05
Achievement	230	2.82	1.07
Power	230	3.49	1.64

When the data in Table 2 is taken into account, it is seen that pre-service teachers' uppermost preferences go for "*Universalism*", "*Self-direction*" and "*Benevolence*" values as opposed to "*Power*", "*Achievement*" and "*Hedonism*" values. Low arithmetic mean indicates high similarity and high mean for low similarity.

Findings for value orientations with regard to gender variable

As the normal distribution was observed among the value orientations except "*Universalism*", t-test was used. Therefore, Mann-Whitney-U test was implemented for "*Universalism*" value.

Table 3. The findings for general value orientations with regard to gender variable

Gender	N	\bar{x}	S	sd	T	P
Female	139	2.32	.866	228	-3.255	.001
Male	91	2.45	.901			

* p<.05

According to Table 3, female teachers' arithmetic mean with regard to value orientations is \bar{x} =2.32, while the mean for male teachers is \bar{x} =2.45. As a result of t-test analysis, it was found that the significant difference is in favor of the female teachers (t=3.255; p<0.05).

Table 4: The results of Mann-Whitney-U test for Universalism with regard to gender variable

Group	N	Mean Rank	Rank Sum	U	P
Female	139	109.38	15204.50	5474.500	.082
Male	91	124.84	11360.50		

* p<.05

Table 4 reveals that there is not a significant difference for pre-service teachers' "*Universalism*" value orientation with regard to gender variable (U=5474.500; p>0.05)

Table 5. T-test results for value orientations with regard to gender variable

Value Orientation		N	X	SS	Sd	T	p	
Self-direction	Gender	Female	131	1.77	.65	228	-2.15	0.03
		Male	91	1.96	.65	228		
Benevolence	Gender	Female	131	1.81	.66	228	-1.54	0.12
		Male	91	1.96	.81	228		
Security	Gender	Female	131	1.98	.76	228	-1.82	0.06
		Male	91	2.18	.84	228		
Conformity	Gender	Female	131	2.28	.93	228	1.20	0.23
		Male	91	2.13	.89	228		
Tradition	Gender	Female	131	2.52	.91	228	0.24	0.81
		Male	91	2.49	.85	228		
Stimulation	Gender	Female	131	2.48	.98	228	-1.33	0.18
		Male	91	2.66	.95	228		
Hedonism	Gender	Female	131	2.59	1.06	228	-2.86	0.00
		Male	91	3.00	1.04	228		
Achievement	Gender	Female	131	2.72	1.07	228	-1.32	0.18
		Male	91	2.92	1.06	228		
Power	Gender	Female	131	3.57	1.06	228	0.95	0.34
		Male	91	3.42	1.17	228		

* p<.05

According to Table 5, there are significant differences in favor of female pre-service teachers in "*Self-direction*" (t=-2.15; p<.05) and "*Hedonism*" (t=-2.86; p<.05) value orientations with regard to gender. Significant differences have not been observed in "*Power*", "*Achievement*", "*Stimulation*", "*Conformity*", "*Security*", "*Benevolence*" and "*Tradition*".

Findings for value orientations with regard to subject area variable

One-Way Anova test results indicate that there are not significant differences in pre-service teachers' value orientations including "*Universalism*", "*Benevolence*", "*Security*", "*Tradition*", "*Conformity*", "*Stimulation*", "*Achievement*", "*Hedonism*" and "*Self-direction*". The difference occurs in "*Power*" value orientation.

Table 6: One Way test results for power value orientation with regard to subject area

Value orientation	Subject area	N	X	SS	Variance Source	Sum of Squares	sd	Mean of Squares	F	P	Difference
Power	History	39	3.70	0.97	Inter groups	19.380	5	3.876	3.32	0.006	*
	Philosophy	67	3.83	1.16	Within groups	261.405	22	1.167			
	Theology	46	3.26	1.16	Total	280.785	22				
	Art	19	3.66	1.28			9				
	Turkish Literature	21	3.00	0.76							
	Health	38	3.27	0.93							
	Total	230	3.51	1.10							

* p<.05

Table 6 revealed that there is a significant difference in pre-service teachers' "*Power*" value orientation with regard to subject area variable ($F(5.224)=3.32$; $p<0.05$). Tukey test results were consulted to learn in which groups the significant difference took place.

Table 7: Tukey test results for power value orientation with regard to subject area

Subject Area	Subject Areas	Mean difference	P
Philosophy	History	0.12	0.99
	Theology	0.56	0.06
	Art	0.16	0.99
	Turkish Literature	0.83*	0.02
	Health	0.55	0.11

* p<.05

According to Table 7, it is seen that there is a significant difference in pre-service teachers' Philosophy Group and Turkish Literature subject areas and this difference is in favor of Turkish Literature ($p<0.05$).

Table 8: Kruskal-Wallis-H test results for "Achievement" value orientation with regard to subject area

Value orientation	Subject Area	N	Mean rank	Sd	X ²	P
Achievement	History	39	137.28	5	15.963	0.007
	Philosophy Group	67	122.51			
	Theology	46	110.95			
	Art	19	110.11			
	Turkish Literature	21	68.21			
	Health	38	115.,12			
	Total	230				

* p<.05

When Table 8 is examined, it is revealed that "*Achievement*" value orientation has statistically significant difference ($X^2(2, 230)= 15.963; p>0.05$). When the mean rank is taken into account, it is seen that the significant difference is favor of Turkish Literature subject area. Mann Whitney-U test was implemented to find out which subject area has statistically significant difference. The test results are provided in Table 9.

Table 9: Mann-Whitney-U test results with regard to subject area

Subject Areas	N	Mean Rank	Rank Sum	U	P
History	39	57.47	2241.50	1151.500	0.309
Philosophy Group	67	51.19	3429.50		
History	39	48.42	1888.50	685.500	.061
Theology	46	38.40	1766.50		
History	39	31.45	1226.50	294.500	.206
Art	19	25.50	484.50		
History	39	36.77	1434.00	165.000	.000
Turkish Literature	21	18.86	396.00		
History	39	43.17	168.50	578.500	.096
Health	38	34.72	1319.50		
Philosophy Group	67	59.34	3975.50	1384.500	.359
Theology	46	53.60	2465.50		
Philosophy Group	67	44.40	2975.00	576.000	.528
Art	19	40.32	766.00		
Philosophy Group	67	49.29	3302.50	382.500	.002
Turkish Literature	21	29.21	613.50		

Philosophy Group	67	54.30	3638.00	1186.000	.560
Health	38	50.71	1927.00		
Theology	46	33.08	1521.50	433.500	.960
Art	19	32.82	623.50		
Theology	46	38.11	1753.00	294.000	.010
Turkish Literature	21	25.00	525.00		
Theology	46	41.76	1921.00	840.000	.759
Health	38	43.39	1649.00		
Art	19	23.08	438.50	150.500	.182
Turkish Literature	21	18.17	381.50		
Art	19	28.39	539.50	349.500	.845
Health	38	29.30	1113.50		
Turkish Literature	21	20.98	440.50	209.500	.003
Health	38	34.99	1329.50		

* p<.05

According to Table 9, the mean ranks of the "*Achievement*" value orientation with regard to History and Turkish Literature are 36.77 and 18.86, respectively. The mean rank difference is (U=165.000; p<0.05). The mean ranks of Philosophy Group and Turkish literature are 49.29 and 29.21, consecutively. The mean rank difference is (U=382.500; p<0.05). The mean ranks of Theology and Turkish Literature are 38.11 and 25.00, respectively. The mean rank difference is (U=294.000; p<0.05). The mean ranks of Turkish Literature and Health are 20.98 and 34.99, respectively. The difference for this mean rank is statistically significant (U=209.500; p<0.05). These differences are generally statistically significant.

When Table 9 is regarded, it is seen that the mean ranks of the "Achievement" value orientation in terms of History and Philosophy Group subject areas are 57.47 and 51.19, respectively. The mean rank difference is (U=1151.500; p>0.05). The mean ranks of History and Theology are 48.42 and 38.40, consecutively and the mean rank difference is (U=685,500; p>0.05). The mean ranks of History and Art are 31.45 and 25.50, respectively and the mean rank difference is (U=294.500; p>0.05). The mean ranks of History and Health are 43.17 and 34.72, consecutively and the mean rank difference is (U=578.500; p>0.05). The mean ranks of Philosophy Group and Theology are 59.34 and 53.60, respectively and the difference is (U=1384.500, p>0.05). The mean ranks of Philosophy Group and Art are 44.40 and 40.32, consecutively and the difference is (U=576.000; p>0.05). The mean ranks of Philosophy Group and Health are 54.30 and 50.71, respectively and the difference is (U=1186.000; p>0.05). The mean ranks of Theology and Art are 33.08 and 32.82, consecutively and the difference is (U=433,500; p>0.05). The mean ranks of Theology and Health are 41.76 and 43.39, respectively and the difference is (U=840,000; p>0.05). The mean ranks of Art and Turkish Literature

are 23.08 and 18.17, consecutively and the difference is (U=150.500; p>0.05). The mean ranks of Art and Health are 28.39 and 29.30, respectively and the difference is (U=349.500; p>0.05). These differences are not statistically significant.

Findings for value orientations with regard to type of education variable

Table 10: T-Test results for value orientations with regard to type of education

Value orientations			N	X	SS	Sd	T	P
Power	Type of edu.	Formal	181	3.55	1.13		1.33	.25
		Non-formal	49	3.37	.99	228		
Achievement	Type of edu.	Formal	181	2.8679	1.08	228	.40	.52
		Non-formal	49	2.5731	1.00			
Hedonism	Type of edu.	Formal	181	2.8250	1.09	228	.71	.39
		Non-formal	49	2.5238	.96			
Stimulation	Type of edu.	Formal	181	2.6179	1.02	228	4.63	.03*
		Non-formal	49	2.3401	.76			
Self-direction	Type of edu.	Formal	181	1.8895	.69	228	9.71	.00*
		Non-formal	49	1.6990	.48			
Universalism	Type of edu.	Formal	181	1.6869	.71	228	18.41	.00*
		Non-formal	49	1.3980	.37			
Benevolence	Type of edu.	Formal	181	1.9641	.77	228	17.85	.00*
		Non-formal	49	1.5612	.42			
Tradition	Type of edu.	Formal	181	2.5387	.93	228	4.33	.03*
		Non-formal	49	2.4133	.71			
Conformity	Type of edu.	Formal	181	2.3039	.94		3.35	.06
		Non-formal	49	1.9439	.75	228		
Security	Type of edu.	Formal	181	2.1271	.84	228	2.82	.09
		Non-formal	49	1.8490	.60			

* p<.05

Table 10 indicates that there are statistically significant differences in favor of the pre-service teachers who attended in non-formal education in "*Stimulation*" ($t= 4.63$; $p< 0.05$), "*Self-direction*" ($t= 9.71$; $p< 0.05$), "*Universalism*"($t= 18.41$; $p< 0.05$), "*Benevolence*" ($t= 17.85$; $p< 0.05$) and "*Tradition*" ($t= 4.33$; $p< 0.05$) value orientations. However, statistically significant differences do not occur in "*Power*" ($t= 1.33$; $p> 0.05$), "*Achievement*" ($t= 0.40$; $p> 0.05$), "*Hedonism*"($t= 0.71$; $p> 0.05$), "*Conformity*"($t= 3.35$; $p> 0.05$) and "*Security*" ($t= 2.82$; $p> 0.05$) value orientations.

Findings for pre-service teachers' empathic tendencies

The findings for pre-service teachers' empathic tendencies were evaluated with regard to "gender", "subject matter" and "type of education" variables, respectively.

Table 11: The findings for empathic tendencies with regard to gender variable

Gender	N	\bar{x}	S	sd	T	P
Female	139	3.39	.352	228	3.440	.001
Male	91	3.22	.386			

* $p<.05$

According to Table 11, the arithmetic mean for female pre-service teachers' empathic tendency with regard to gender is $\bar{x}=3.39$, whereas the mean for male ones is $\bar{x}=3.22$. T-test result indicates that there is a significant difference in female teachers' perceptions for empathic tendency ($t=3.440$; $p<0.05$).

Table 12: One-Way Anova Test results for empathic tendencies with regard to subject matter

Dimension	Subject Matter	N	X	SS	Variance Source	Sum of Squares	sd	Mean of Squares	F	P	Difference
Empathy	History	39	3.27	.342	Inter-groups	3.192	5	.638	4.926	0.000	*
	Philosophy	67	3.46	.378		29.031	224	.130			
	Theology	46	3.34	.381	Within groups	32.222	229				
	Art	19	3.25	.405	Total						
	Turkish Literature	21	3.40	.365							
	Health	38	3.12	.282							
	Total	230	3.33	.375							

* $p<.05$

When the analysis results of pre-service teachers' subject areas with their empathic tendencies are examined, it is revealed that the results are statistically significantly different ($F(4.926)=0.000$; $p<0.05$). Tukey test was implemented to identify in which groups significant difference occurred.

Table 13: Tukey test results for pre-service teachers' empathic tendencies with regard to subject area

Subject area	Subject areas	Mean difference	P
Philosophy Group	History	.19462	.211
	Theology	.11968	.698
	Art	.21115	.408
	Turkish Literature	.06166	.993
	Health	.4010*	.001

* $p<0.05$

When Table 13 is taken into account, it is seen that pre-service teachers' empathic tendencies indicate statistically significant differences between their subject areas, namely Philosophy Group and Health and this difference is favor of Philosophy Group ($p<0.05$).

Table 14: *The findings for empathic tendencies with regard to type of education*

Type of education	N	\bar{x}	S	sd	T	P
Formal	181	3.26	.355	228	-5.297	.000
Non-formal	49	3.56	.352			

* $p<0.05$

Table 14 indicates that the arithmetic mean of empathic tendencies for the pre-service teachers who graduated from the formal education is $\bar{x}=3.26$, whereas the mean for those who graduated from non-formal education is $\bar{x}=3.56$. There is a significant difference in favor of the pre-service teachers who graduated from non-formal education with regard to empathic tendency ($t=-5.297$; $p<0.05$).

Correlation findings for pre-service teachers' value orientations and empathic tendencies

Table 15: Correlation results for value orientations and empathic tendencies relationships

	General means for value orientations	Empathy
R	1	-.116
P		.079
N	230	230
	Value orientations	
	Power	
R	1	.030

P		.653
N	230	230
	Achievement	
R	1	-.052
P		.430
N	230	230
	Hedonism	
R	1	-.141*
P		.032
N	230	230
	Stimulation	
R	1	-.100
P		.129
N	230	230
	Self-direction	
R	1	-.019
P		.778
N	230	230
	Universalism	
R	1	.282**
P		.006
N	230	230
	Benevolence	
R	1	.266*
P		.012
N	230	230
	Tradition	
R	1	.148
P		.471
N	230	230
	Conformity	
R	1	-.048
P		.473
N	230	230
	Security	
R	1	-.009
P		.897
N	230	230

According to Table 15, it is seen that the general relationship of pre-service teachers' value orientations and empathic tendencies is negative and weak. This relationship is statistically not significant ($r=-.116$; $p>0.05$). The relationship of pre-service teachers' value orientations "**Power**" ($r=.030$; $p>0.05$), "**Universalism**" ($r= .282$; $p>0.05$), "**Benevolence**" ($r=.280$; $p>0,05$) and "**Tradition**" ($r= 0.148$; $p>0.05$) with their empathic tendencies are positive and low, whereas the relationship between their value orientations "**Achievement**" ($r=-0.052$; $p>0.05$), "**Hedonism**" ($r=-.141$; $p>0,05$), "**Stimulation**" ($r=-.100$; $p>0.05$), "**Self-direction**" ($r=-.019$; $p>0.05$), "**Conformity**" ($r=-.019$; $p>0.05$) and "**Security**" ($r=-.019$; $p>0.05$) and their empathic tendencies are negative and weak.

Discussion, Result and Suggestions

In this part, pre-service teachers' value orientations and empathic tendencies with regard to the independent variables including gender, subject area and type of education in addition to the correlation between their value orientations and empathic tendencies were discussed. Besides, the results of the current research were summarized and the suggestions were put forward.

In our research, it was revealed that the pre-service teachers' uppermost preferences include "**Universalism**", "**Self-direction**" and "**Benevolence**" values. Besides, the participants mostly prefer "Universalism", "Benevolence" and "Self-direction" in the study by Akın (2018); "Benevolence", "Self-direction" and "Security" in the study by Özcan and Erol (2017); "Self-direction", "Benevolence" and "Security" in the study by Acar, Akar and Acar (2016); "Benevolence", "Universalism" and "Security" in the study by Kızılgöçit, Acuner and Toklu (2015); "Tradition", "Benevolence" and "Conformity" in the study by Yapıcı and Emre (2015); "Benevolence", "Security" and "Universalism" in the study by Dündar (2013); "Benevolence", "Universalism" and "Security" in the study by Arslan and Tunç (2013); "Universalism", "Benevolence" and "Security" in the study by Oğuz (2012a); "Benevolence", "Universalism" and "Security" in the research by Dilmaç, Deniz and Deniz (2009); "Universalism", "Security" and "Benevolence" in the study by Kuşdil and Kağıtçıbaşı (2000).

In the current research, the pre-service teachers infrequently prefer "**Hedonism**", "**Achievement**" and "**Power**" values. It is found that the least preferred values are "Achievement", "Hedonism", and "Power" in the study by Akın (2018); "Power", "Stimulation" and "Hedonism" in the study by Özcan and Erol (2016); "Power", "Stimulation" and "Hedonism" in the study by Acar, Akar and Acar (2016); "Power", "Hedonism" and "Stimulation" in the study by Kızılgöçit, Acuner and Toklu (2015); "Hedonism", "Power" and "Stimulation" in the study by Yapıcı and Emre (2015); "Achievement", "Tradition" and "Power" in the study by Dündar (2013); "Conformity", "Stimulation" and "Power" in the study by Arslan and Tunç (2013); "**Stimulation**" and "**Hedonism**" in the

research by Oğuz (2012a); "**Stimulation**", "**Hedonism**" and "**Power**" in the study by Dilmaç, Deniz and Deniz (2009).

When the results of the above-mentioned studies are, on the whole, taken into account, it is deduced that teachers and pre-service teachers mostly embrace "**Benevolence**", "**Universalism**" and "**Security**" values, whereas they least embrace "**Hedonism**", "**Stimulation**" and "**Power**" ones. Based on these results, it can be understood that teachers and pre-service teachers should pay more attention to "**Benevolence**", "**Universalism**" and "**Security**" and less attention to "**Hedonism**", "**Stimulation**" and "**Power**" ones. Depending on the adoption of these values, it can be possible to train responsible, good people, citizens and students who have healthy and balanced personality with respect to health for feelings, mind and behavior.

In our research, it was indicated that there is a significant difference in favor of the female pre-service teachers' perceptions for "**Hedonism**" value orientation with regard to **gender** variable. This finding is also supported with the study by Akın (2018) indicating that there are significant differences in "**Hedonism**" value orientation in both qualitative and quantitative data in terms of gender variable. The significant difference is favor of the female pre-service teachers in the quantitative data, while the difference is in favor of the male pre-service ones in the qualitative data. A significant difference is found in favor of the male pre-service teachers in the study by Dilmaç, Deniz and Deniz (2009), whereas a significant difference with regard to gender does not occur in the researches by Şahin-Fırat and Açıköz (2012), Oğuz (2012a), Sarıcı Bulut (2012), Dilmaç, Bozgeyikli and Çakılı (2008). These findings conclude that teachers and pre-service teachers' preferences for hedonism value in relation to gender variable show differentiations. It can be interpreted that these differentiations can stem from the different meanings they attach to hedonism value.

It was found in the current research that the pre-service teachers' perceptions for "Self-direction" value in relation to **gender** variable show significant differentiations in favor of the female teachers. In this regard, it was revealed in the research by Dilmaç, Bozgeyikli and Çakılı (2008) that there is a significant difference in favor of the female pre-service teachers with regard to "**Self-direction**" value. This finding overlaps with our research finding. On the other hand, Dilmaç, Deniz and Deniz (2009) indicated that there is a significant difference for the male pre-service teachers in relation to "**Self-direction**" value. Furthermore, a significant difference does not take place in the teachers and pre-service teachers' "**Self-direction**" value with regard to gender variable in the studies implemented by Akın (2018), Sarıcı Bulut (2012) and Şahin-Fırat and Açıköz (2012). It is understood that there are inconsistent findings for the teachers and pre-service teachers' perceptions for "Self-direction" value concerning gender variable in the above-mentioned studies. Teachers and pre-service teachers' having socio-economic-cultural differences and their psychological mood filling

out the data collection instruments could have an impact on deriving the contradictory findings for "Self-direction" value.

In our research, the male and female teachers' perceptions for "**Power**", "**Benevolence**", "**Tradition**" and "**Universalism**" values do not differ with regard to *gender* variable. Likewise, a significant difference is not observed in the male and female pre-service teachers' perceptions for "**Power**", "**Universalism**", "**Benevolence**" and "**Tradition**" values with regard to gender variable in the quantitative and qualitative data in the research conducted Akın (2018). In this regard, Sarıcı Bulut (2012) found that a difference does occur between the male and female pre-service teachers concerning "**Power**", "**Universalism**", "**Benevolence**" and "**Tradition**" values. This finding is also supported with the study by Dilmaç, Bozgeyikli and Çakılı (2008) indicating that there is not a significant difference in the male and female pre-service teachers' perceptions for "**Benevolence**" and "**Tradition**" value orientations. Besides, a significant difference does not occur in the male and female pre-service teachers' perceptions for "**Universalism**" and "**Tradition**" value orientations in the research by Dilmaç, Deniz and Deniz (2009). Şahin-Fırat and Açıkgöz (2012) indicated that there is not a significant difference in the male and female pre-service teachers' perceptions for "**Power**" and "**Benevolence**" value orientations. It can be deduced from the findings of the above-mentioned studies that a significant difference, in general sense, does not happen in the teachers and pre-service teachers' perceptions concerning "Power", "Universalism", "Benevolence" and "Tradition" with regard to gender variable. Based on these findings, it can be asserted that the male and female teachers and pre-service teachers have similar thoughts concerning these value orientations.

In the current research, the male and female pre-service teachers' perceptions for "**Achievement**" value orientation with regard *gender* variable do not differentiate. On the other hand, there is a significant difference in favor of the females with regard to "**Achievement**" value in both the quantitative and qualitative data (Akın, 2018). Likewise, Şahin-Fırat and Açıkgöz (2012) revealed a finding in favor of the female teachers with regard to gender variable. However, a significant difference is not observed in pre-service teachers' perceptions for "Achievement" value orientation with regard to gender variable in the studies conducted by Oğuz (2012a), Sarıcı Bulut (2012), Dilmaç, Deniz and Deniz (2009), Dilmaç, Bozgeyikli and Çakılı (2008). It is seen that these studies have inconsistent findings for the participants' perceptions for "Achievement" value with regard to gender variable. It can be justified for the significant differences in favor of the female pre-service teachers that they prefer "Achievement" value at a higher rate compared with their counterparts, feel obliged to prove themselves ontologically, want to acquire a social statue or need to meet changing social expectations.

In our research, a significant difference does not occur in the male and female pre-service teachers' perceptions for "*Stimulation*" value orientation with regard to *gender* variable. It is indicated in the study conducted by Akın (2018) that there is a significant difference in favor of the females concerning "*Stimulation*" value in the quantitative data, whereas this difference does not occur in the qualitative data. Sarıcı Bulut (2012) found a significant difference in favor of the female pre-service teachers. However, a significant difference is not found in the studies implemented by Şahin-Fırat and Açıkgöz (2012), Oğuz (2012a), Dilmaç, Deniz and Deniz (2009) and Dilmaç, Bozgeyikli and Çakılı (2008). These findings support our research. It can be deduced from these findings that teachers and pre-service teachers' preferences show differentiations for stimulation value with regard to gender variable. This result can stem from teachers and pre-service teachers' perceived differences for stimulation value.

It was revealed in our research that the male and female teachers' perceptions for "*Security*" value orientation do not show differences with regard to *gender* variable. Akın (2018) found that there is a significant difference in favor of the females for "Security" value orientation in relation to gender variable in the quantitative and qualitative data. Besides, a significant difference is revealed between the male and female teachers and pre-service teachers in the studies conducted by Şahin-Fırat and Açıkgöz (2012), Oğuz (2012a), Sarıcı Bulut (2012) and Dilmaç, Deniz and Deniz (2009). However, the significant difference does not occur in the study by Dilmaç, Bozgeyikli and Çakılı (2008). In the light of the findings of the above-mentioned studies apart from one study finding, it is seen that the significant difference happens in favor of the female teachers and pre-service teachers for "Security" value with regard to gender variable. The reason why the differences occur in favor of the female participants can be accounted for motherhood, affection and compassion psychology based on the notion "Women make houses".

Our research indicates that male and female pre-service teachers' perceptions for "*Conformity*" value orientation with regard to *gender* variable do not show differentiations. It was derived from the study conducted by Akın (2018) that a significant difference in terms of gender variable occurs in "*Conformity*" value in the quantitative data as opposed to the finding in the qualitative data. A significant difference is observed in favor of the female teachers in the studies implemented by Sarıcı Bulut (2012), Oğuz (2012a), Dilmaç, Deniz and Deniz (2009). On the other hand, this difference is not found between the male and female pre-service teachers in the results of the studies implemented by Şahin-Fırat and Açıkgöz (2012) and Dilmaç, Bozgeyikli and Çakılı (2008). Based on these findings, it can be stated that teachers and pre-service teachers' preferences differentiate according to "Conformity" value orientation. This result can be originated from the different meanings teachers and pre-service teachers attribute to conformity value.

It was found in our research that the male and female pre-service teachers' perceptions for "**Power**" value with regard to "**Subject Area**" variable significantly differentiate. The significant difference between Turkish Literature and Philosophy Group is favor of those pre-teachers who study in Turkish Literature. Akın (2018) found that there is not any significant difference in the pre-service teachers' perceptions for "**Power**" value with regard to subject area variable. On the other hand, Yapıcı, Kutlu and Bilican (2012) revealed that subject area factor makes a significant difference in preference for "**Power**" value. However, it was indicated in the studies conducted by Oğuz (2012a) and Şahin-Fırat and Açıkgöz (2012) that the teachers and pre-service teachers' subject areas do not differentiate with regard to power value. It can be concluded that the findings, as a whole, are inconsistent. This inconsistent result can stem from the different objectives, acquisitions and/or activities included in the subject areas.

In the current research, it was revealed that the male and female pre-service teachers' perceptions for "**Achievement**" value in relation to "**Subject Area**" variable show significant differences. This significant difference occurs in pre-service teachers' subject areas including "**History-Literature**", "**Philosophy-Literature**", "**Theology-Literature**" and "**Health-Literature**". It was found in the study by Akın (2018) that the significant difference occurs in Turkish Literature-Theology, History-Theology and Philosophy Group-Theology in the quantitative data, whereas the difference happens in Turkish Literature-Theology and Philosophy Group-Theology subject areas in the qualitative data. Yapıcı, Kutlu and Bilican (2012) and Dönmez and Cömert (2007) indicated that the teachers and pre-service teachers' subject areas differentiate value systems. However, according to Oğuz (2012a), different subject areas do not make significant differences in power value orientations. When these findings are, as a whole, evaluated, it is seen that there is a significant difference between teachers and pre-service teachers' subject areas and their value orientations apart from one study finding. Although teachers have similar qualities, their attribution to achievement value may differ owing to the objectives, acquisitions and activities of the subject areas.

It was found in our research that the male and female pre-service teachers' perceptions for "**Hedonism**" value with regard to "**Subject Area**" variable do not significantly differ. It was revealed in the study conducted by Akın (2018) that there are significant differences in "**Hedonism**" value with regard to Health-Theology, Turkish Literature-Theology and History-Theology subjects areas in the quantitative data and Health-Theology, Turkish Literature-Theology and History-Theology subject areas in the qualitative data. It was indicated in the studies conducted by Hofmann-Towfigh (2007) and Emre and Yapıcı (2015) that there is a negative relationship between hedonism and religiousness. Besides, Şahin-Fırat and Açıkgöz (2012), Yapıcı, Kutlu and Bilican (2012) and Dönmez and Cömert (2007) found that teachers and pre-service teachers' subject areas differentiate their value systems. When the findings are, as a whole, evaluated, it is seen that there is a significant difference in the

teachers and pre-service teachers' perceptions for hedonism value. However, these findings are not supported with the current research finding. Although teachers share similar qualities, their attribution to achievement value may differ owing to the objectives, acquisitions and activities of the subject areas.

In our research, it was revealed that the male and female pre-service teachers' perceptions for "*Stimulation*" value orientation with regard to "*Subject Area*" do not significantly differentiate. On the other hand, Akın (2018) found that there are significant differences with regard to "*Stimulation*" among Health-Theology and Turkish Literature-Theology subject areas in the quantitative data and Health-Theology and Turkish Literature-Theology subject areas in the qualitative data. Likewise, it is revealed in the studies conducted by Oğuz (2012a), Yapıcı, Kutlu and Bilican (2012) and Dönmez ve Cömert (2007) that the teachers and pre-service teachers' subject areas differentiate their value orientations. These results indicate that the above-mentioned studies confirm that the teachers and pre-service teachers' subject areas have a significant impact on their stimulation value, which is not supported with our research finding. Based on this result, it can be deduced that these results can originate from the differences concerning teachers and pre-service teachers' knowledge, skills, comprehension and understanding and making sense of life though they have common qualities.

It was found in our research that the male and female pre-service teachers' perceptions for "*Self-direction*" with regard to "*Subject Area*" variable do not significantly differentiate. Akın (2018) indicated in his study that there are significant differences concerning "*Self-direction*" value in Health-Theology and Turkish Literature-Health pre-service teachers in the quantitative data and Health-Theology and Turkish Literature-Health pre-service teachers in the qualitative data. It was derived from the studies conducted by Oğuz (2012a) and Dönmez and Cömert (2007) that the teachers and pre-service teachers' subject areas make different their value systems. However, Yapıcı, Kutlu and Bilican (2012) revealed in their studies that the different subject areas do not have a significant difference on their perceived Self-direction value. When the findings are, as a whole, taken into account, it is understood that the studies have inconsistent findings. Based on these results, it can be claimed that the differences can stem from the differences concerning teachers and pre-service teachers' knowledge, skills, comprehension and understanding and making sense of life.

Our research indicated that there is no significant difference in the male and female pre-service teachers' perceptions for "*Universalism*" with regard to "*Subject Area*". Likewise, this finding is in parallel with the finding derived from Akın's study (2018). On the other hand, Oğuz (2012a), Yapıcı, Kutlu ve Bilican (2012) ile Dönmez ve Cömert (2007) found in their studies that the teachers and pre-service teachers' subject areas have an impact on their value systems. It is seen that the findings of the above-mentioned studies do not overlap concerning Universalism value. Based on

this result, it can be deduced that these different results can stem from the differences in socio-economic variables though all teachers and pre-service teachers should embrace universalism as a central value.

It was revealed in the current research that there is no difference in the male and female pre-service teachers' perceptions for "**Benevolence**" with regard to "**Subject Area**" variable. The quantitative and qualitative data in Akın's study (2018) showed that there is only significant difference among Turkish Literature and Philosophy Group pre-service teachers concerning "**Benevolence**" value. It was found in the studies conducted by Oğuz (2012a), Yapıcı, Kutlu and Bilican (2012), Dönmez and Cömert (2007) that the teachers and pre-service teachers' subject areas significantly differentiate their value systems. Excluding the current research finding, it is seen based on the above-mentioned findings of different studies that there is a significant difference in the teachers and pre-service teachers' perceptions for benevolence value. This result indicates that the differences can stem from the differences concerning teachers and pre-service teachers' knowledge, skills, comprehension and understanding and making sense of life, though they have similar qualities.

Our research indicated that there is no significant difference in the male and female pre-service teachers' perceptions for "**Tradition**" with regard to "**Subject Area**". In the research conducted by Akın (2018), it was found that there are significant differences among Health-Turkish Literature, Turkish Literature-Philosophy Group and History-Philosophy Group pre-service teachers with regard to "**Tradition**" value in the quantitative data, whereas there is no significant difference among the subject areas in the qualitative data. Besides, Oğuz (2012a), Yapıcı, Kutlu and Bilican (2012), Şahin-Fırat and Açıkgöz (2012), Dönmez and Cömert (2007) revealed that the teachers and pre-service teachers' subject areas significantly differentiate their value systems. According to these findings, it can be deduced that teachers and pre-service teachers' perceptions for tradition value orientation differ. It can be argued that the differences can stem from the differences in their subject areas including knowledge, skills, comprehension and understanding and making sense of life, though they have similar qualities.

It was revealed in the current research that there is no significant difference in the male and female pre-service teachers' perceptions for "**Conformity**" with regard to "**Subject Area**" variable. The quantitative data in the study conducted by Akın (2018) indicate significant differences among Turkish Literature-Philosophy Group and History-Philosophy Group pre-service teachers with regard to "**Conformity**" value, while the qualitative data do not show such a significant difference among the pre-service teachers. It was found in the studies implemented by Oğuz (2012a), Yapıcı, Kutlu and Bilican (2012), and Dönmez and Cömert (2007) that the teachers and pre-service teachers' subject areas significantly differentiate their value systems. According to the findings of the different studies,

there is a difference among the teachers and pre-service teachers in terms of their conformity value orientations. It can be argued that the differences can stem from the differences in their subject areas including knowledge, skills, comprehension and understanding and making sense of life in addition to socio-economic variables, though they have similar qualities.

It was derived from our research that there is no significant difference in the male and female pre-service teachers' perceptions for "*Security*" with regard to "*Subject Area*". Akın (2018) found significant difference among only Turkish Literature-Philosophy Group pre-service teachers with regard to *Security* value orientation in the quantitative and qualitative data in his study. Oğuz (2012a), Yapıcı, Kutlu and Bilican (2012) and Dönmez and Cömert (2007) revealed in their studies that the teachers and pre-service teachers' subject areas significantly differentiate their value systems. Excluding the current research finding, it is understood from the above-mentioned findings of different studies that there is a significant difference in the teachers and pre-service teachers' perceptions for security value orientation. It can be claimed that the differences can stem from the differences in their subject areas including knowledge, skills, comprehension and understanding and making sense of life, though they have similar qualities.

It was derived from the current research that there is a negative and low relationship between the pre-service teachers' value orientations and their empathic tendencies. This relationship is not statistically significant. Yeniçeri, Yıldız, Seydaoğulları, Güleç, Sakallı Çetin and Baldemir (2015) found in their studies that there is a positive relationship between the emotional intelligence scores for the medical faculty students and their empathic tendencies. This finding does not support the current research finding in relation to the direction of the relationship. When the relationship between the pre-service teachers' value orientations and their empathic tendencies is concerned, we find positive and low relationships among "*Power*", "*Universalism*", "*Benevolence*", and "*Tradition*" value orientations and negative and low relationships among "*Achievement*", "*Hedonism*", "*Stimulation*", "*Self-direction*", "*Conformity*" and "*Security*" value orientations.

It was found in the current research that there is a significant difference in the pre-service teachers' "Empathetic Tendencies" in favor of the female pre-service teachers with regard to "*Gender*" variable. Brightwell, Devenish, Hartley, McCall, McMullen, Munro, O'Meara and Webb (2012) revealed in their studies that there is a significant difference among the prospective nurses' empathic tendencies in favor of the female nurses in terms of gender variable. Likewise, it was derived from the studies conducted by Palavan and Agboyraz (2017), Elikesik (2013), Oğuz and Altun (2011), Ekinçi and Aybek (2010), Akbulut and Sağlam (2010), Kapıkıran (2009) that there is a significant difference in the teachers and pre-service teachers' empathic tendencies with regard to gender variable. On the other hand, a significant difference does not occur in the teachers and pre-service teachers'

empathic tendencies concerning gender variable in the studies implemented by Beyaz (2016), Engin and Genç (2015), Yaşar and Erol (2015), Çelikkaleli and Avcı (2015), Kay (2016), Maden and Durukan (2011), Genç and Kalafat (2010), Ekinçi (2009), Yılmaz and Akyel (2008) and Genç ve Kalafat (2008). Based on these findings, it seems that there is not a consensus for the teachers and pre-service teachers' empathic tendencies with regard to gender variable. It can be claimed that the differences occurring in the teachers and pre-service teachers' empathic tendencies in favor of the female ones can stem from their qualities of womanhood and sometimes their perceived teaching profession.

The current research indicated that the pre-service teachers' "Empathic Tendencies" with regard to "*Subject Area*" variable, show difference among Philosophy Group and Health pre-service teachers and the difference is in favor of Philosophy Group teachers. Besides, Pala (2008) found significant difference among the pre-service teachers in relation to their subject areas and this difference is among Social Sciences-Science and Social Sciences-Primary School pre-service teachers and in favor of Social Sciences subject area. This finding is in parallel with the current research one. A significant difference was found in the pre-service teachers' empathic levels in relation to their subject area. This difference is favor of the subject areas including Pre-school, Psychological Guidance and Counseling and German teaching. This difference is against the subject areas such as Social Sciences, Computer Education and Instructional Technologies, Philosophy Group and English teaching (Ekinçi & Aybek, 2010). These findings overlap with the current research findings in the sense that there is difference among the subject areas. However, the differences in the particular subject areas are not supported with the current research ones. Based on these findings, it can be deduced that subject area variable differentiate their empathic tendencies. It can be argued that the differences can stem from the content differences in the subject areas, teachers' personality, knowledge, skills, thoughts and so forth.

We derived from the current research that a significant difference happens in "Stimulation", "Self-direction", "Universalism", "Benevolence" and "Tradition" value orientations with regard to type of education variable and this difference is in favor of the pre-service teachers who graduated from non-formal education. Besides, there is not a significant difference in "Power", "Achievement", "Hedonism", "Conformity" and "Security" values. Other research findings have not been confronted on this issue. It can be claimed that type of education has a significant impact on some value orientations. Educators and teachers should think about the reason why some value orientations such as "Universalism" and "Benevolence" occur at a higher rate in the pre-service teachers who graduated from the non-formal education.

Results

Some results derived from the current research as follows:

- 1- The teachers and pre-service teachers mostly embraced "*Benevolence*", "*Universalism*", and "*Security*" values. They at the least embraced "*Hedonism*", "*Stimulation*" and "*Power*" values.
- 2- The teachers and pre-service teachers' preferences for "*Hedonism*", "*Self-direction*", "*Achievement*", "*Stimulation*" and "*Conformity*" values with regard to gender variable differed.
- 3- The teachers and pre-service teachers' preferences for "*Power*", "*Universalism*", "*Benevolence*", "*Tradition*" values with regard to gender variable did not differ.
- 4- A significant difference with regard to gender variable occurred in favor of the female teachers and pre-service teachers' preference for "*Security*" value.
- 5- There were significant differences in the teachers and pre-service teachers' preferences for "*Power*", "*Self-direction*" and "*Universalism*" with regard to subject area variable.
- 6- There was generally a significant difference in the teachers and pre-service teachers' perceptions for "*Achievement*", "*Hedonism*", "*Stimulation*", "*Benevolence*" and "*Security*" value orientations with regard to subject area variable, which is not supported with only one study finding.
- 7- The teachers and pre-service teachers' perceptions for "*Tradition*" and "*Conformity*" value orientations with regard to subject area generally differentiated.
- 8- There was a positive and low correlation between the pre-service teachers' value orientations including "*Power*", "*Universalism*", "*Benevolence*" and "*Tradition*" and their empathic tendencies. On the other hand, there was a negative and weak correlation in "*Achievement*", "*Hedonism*", "*Stimulation*", "*Self-direction*", "*Conformity*" and "*Security*" value orientations.
- 9- The teachers and pre-service teachers' perceptions for "*Empathic Tendency*" with regard to gender and subject area variables differentiated.
- 10- The empathy scores for the pre-service teachers, who graduated from non-formal education, in "*Stimulation*", "*Self-direction*", "*Universalism*", "*Benevolence*" and "*Tradition*" value orientations with regard to type of education variable turned out to be higher. Type of education did not have an impact on "*Power*", "*Achievement*", "*Hedonism*", "*Conformity*" and "*Security*" value orientations.

Suggestions

1- Different studies concerning pre-service teachers' value orientations and empathic tendencies could be conducted with different study groups.

2- Empathetic related courses could be included in teacher training programs to strengthen pre-service teachers' empathetic tendencies.

3- Studies could be conducted to identify the reasons why the empathic level of those pre-service teachers who graduated from non-formal education are higher than the level of those teachers who graduated from formal education.

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Determining the Difficulties Female Managers Experience in Higher Education and the Factors Supporting Themⁱ

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Abstract

The purpose of the study is to analyse managerial process of women managers in higher education institutions. The study was conducted with qualitative research methods and descriptive case study design was used. The study group of the research consists of 15 instructors determined with criterion sampling techniques within purposive sampling methods. The criteria taken into consideration during the determination of the sampling were the instructors to be woman and they should have the managerial positions in higher education. Data of the study were collected by the interview form prepared by the researcher. The participants were reached via telephone or e-mail. The participants answered the open-ended questions prepared in a semi-structured form. Content analysis technique was used in analysing of the data. While conducting content analysis, codes were initially created in accordance with the data. In line with the findings, it was observed that management process of female managers were shaped as the factors effective in becoming manager, sources of motivation, the barriers they encountered in their managerial process, the reflection of management process on their private life, the perceptions and attitudes towards female managers and the precautions to be taken for increasing the effectiveness of female managers.

Keywords: *Leadership, female managers, higher education.*

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Introduction

As in many parts of the World, in Turkey too, it is well known that women encounter with many problems in every aspect of social life. Especially women in business life, due to socio-economic, cultural and traditional characteristics of Turkey, often must perform more compared with men. However, it was underlined in many national and international studies that women encounter with more barriers than men in career development process (Besler and Oruç, 2010; Bedük, 2005; Kalaycıoğlu and Toprak, Kauser and Tlaiss, 2011; Örucü, Kılıç and Kılıç, 2007; Panigrahi, 2013; Tüzel, 2014).

The social and economic structure and cultural factors not only lead women to be excluded from social life, but they have turned into serious problems in labour force participation as well. Many factors such as educational status, number of children, immigration, socio-cultural elements, marital status and wages have influenced with labour force participation of women (World Bank, 2009).

It is also known that besides the difficulties in getting a start in business, women experience many problems after beginning their business. In the studies, it is stated that women should deal with some problems such as education in social and business life and inequality in training programmes, housework and child care, running business and family life together (Kaya, 2009). In working life, the biggest problems awaiting women are low wages, inequality of women and men in wages policy, non-standard forms of employment, (Erkek and Karagöz, 2009), employment, inequality in the process of placement and promotion, sexual and emotional harassment at work, not benefiting from social rights (Kaya, 2009), and the discriminatory attitude practised by the employer (Durmaz, 2016). Additionally, it is expressed that physical and psychological fatigue of women is another problem women in business life encounter with (Kocacık and Gökçaya, 2005).

It is emphasized in many studies that in Turkey and in many countries in the world, as well as labour force participation rate of women, their representation rate in senior management is also at low levels (Acar, 1998; Aycan, 2001; Berry and Franks, 2010; Elmuti, Jia, Davis, 2009). The focus point of the discussions about women's involvement into the business life is generally linked with leadership roles and process (Alomair, 2015). It is stressed in the studies about gender and leadership that women are represented inadequately in senior positions of management (Haslam and Ryan, 2008). In 2014, senior management rate of women is detected as 9,4 % (TÜİK, 2015).

Conceptual Framework: Women Leadership in Academy and Glass Ceiling

To get senior positions in business life for women includes in many difficulties (White, 2003). There are many reasons why women cannot get senior managerial positions. Aycan (2004) states that women cannot get senior management positions because of the barriers men determine, the barriers

resulting from female managers and the barriers that are set up by the person himself. Taşkın and Çetin (2012) express that the factors that prevent female managers to get senior positions are based on gender differences and tackled with under three groups; individual factors (playing multiple-roles, personal choices and perception), organizational factors (organizational culture, policy of the organization, atmosphere of the organization, lack of mentorship, equal opportunity deficiencies, unable to join communication networks, the barriers made by male managers, the barriers made by female managers, perceptions about working woman) and social factors (professional discrimination, social prejudice).

The barriers women encounter cause representation rate of women to decrease in managerial position in general and in higher education management in private. There are several studies proving the number of women in higher education management is few (Çalışkan Maya, 2012; Peterson, 2016). In the studies focusing on process of global feminization, it is stated that there is no equality in the number of men and women in higher education management (Peterson, 2016).

When the number of women in managerial positions is fewer than men, it is described as “glass ceiling” effect (Anafarta, Savran and Yapıcı, 2008; Berry and Franks, 2010; Chliwniak, 1997; Davis and Maldonado, 2015; Yousaf and Schmiede, 2017). Glass ceiling effect is regarded as a factor which limits the preferences of women and prevents them from taking charge in top-level leadership positions and in the stages in which they should show high performance while they are progressing in their career (Garrett, 2015). Glass ceiling is also used to explain several implicit and explicit barriers based on cultural and organizational attitudes, which prevents women in their career progress (Luke, 1998).

Carol Hymowitz and Timothy Schellhardt used “glass ceiling” metaphor for the first time in 1986 and it was described as the barriers women encounter while they are making progress towards top level in institutional hierarchy (Jarmon, 2014). Morrison (1987) who was one of the first users of the metaphor defined glass ceiling as a transparent barrier that kept women from rising above a certain level in corporations (Baxter and Wright, 2000). Cornell University describes glass ceiling as the barriers women encounter after they have reached middle management positions (Yousaf and Schmiede, 2016). According to Cotter et al. (2011), glass ceiling emerges when sex discrimination is the part of something that does not result from business; when a gender inequality occurs in level of income; when a gender inequality occurs in the process of progressing for senior levels and when an increasing gender inequality happens in process of career development.

Griffin (1993) states that the reasons such as slowdown progress in women’s career during bringing up children, the assumption that women are lack of abilities in engineering, management and leadership and the belief that this situation will barrier them to get senior management positions,

women's attempts to balance between work and family, women's lack of work experience for senior management and thinking women's emotional well-being leads them not to get senior management positions are glass ceiling barriers (as cited: Kocacık and Gökkaya, 2005).

Preventing sex discrimination in business life depends on overcoming glass ceiling barriers. Yoğun Erçen (2008) states that the strategies to break glass ceiling are raising the level of education, strengthening social relationships and showing high performance; however, Öztürk (2011) underlines the importance of taking help from mentor and Taşkın and Çentin (2012) emphasizes on participating in career development programs. According to Knutson and Schmidgall (1999), in order to overcome glass ceiling barriers, legal rules should be enacted to prevent sex discrimination, equal pay act should be carried out, women should be given equal rights in employment and promotion and women should be guided in the process of professional development (Korkmaz, 2014).

In Turkey, in higher education institutions, several studies were performed to increase in employment of female academics and provide social equality. The policies aggravating employment of female academics in Turkey have been the factors such as the effect of governmental policies, institutional transparency, the growing demand for retirement, the factors decreasing role conflict between home and work, collaboration of the professors among each other (Tahtalıoğlu, 2016; Healy, Özbilgin and Aliefendioğlu, 2005: 259-260). In 2015, Women's Studies Centre was founded under Higher Education Board for the purpose of protecting social gender equality and human rights of women and determining policies about increasing awareness of violence and psychological abuse women are exposed to. Furthermore, the rate of women in higher education institutions in Turkey is higher compared with western countries. However, this is not the case for higher education management. The representation rate of women in higher education management is at quite a low level. according to data of TÜİK (2016), of 112 state universities in Turkey, only 2 was managed by women. The fact that the representation rate of women in these managements is low can only be explained by glass ceiling barrier.

Increasing the representation rate of women in higher education, supporting them in managerial positions and solving the problems they encounter are only possible with removing glass ceiling barriers. In this study, managerial process of female managers, factors supporting them in the process, sources of motivation and the problems they encounter were analysed with an internal point of view and some recommendations were made about empowering women leadership in higher education.

Purpose of the Study: The purpose of the study is to analyse managerial process of women managers in higher education institutions.

METHOD

The study was conducted with qualitative research methods and descriptive case study design was used. Case study is a method of learning about a complex phenomenon through extensive description and analysis of that instance in its contextual settings (Yin, 2005).

Study Group

The study group of the research consists of 15 instructors determined with criterion sampling techniques within purposive sampling methods. The criteria taken into consideration during the determination of the sampling were the instructors to be woman and they should have the managerial positions in higher education.

Table 1. Demographic Data about the Study Group

Manager Code	Age	Seniority	Period of Office in Management	Manegerial Position
M1	29	4	3 Month	Vice Dean
M2	34	5	1	Chief of Department
M3	38	15	7	Vice Dean
M4	38	15	7	Chief of Department
M5	42	19	5	Head of the Department
M6	46	20	17	Vice Principal
M7	50	27	16	Vice Dean
M8	33	9	3	Vice Principal
M9	47	22	14	Chief of Department
M10	52	7	7	Head of the Department
M11	46	20	3	Chief of Department
M12	48	22	12	Vice Dean
M13	38	15	5	Vice Dean
M14	46	21	5	Deputy Dean
M15	37	11	2	Vice Dean

Data Collection and Analysis

Data of the study were collected by the interview form prepared by the researcher. The participants were reached via telephone or e-mail. The participants answered the open-ended questions prepared in a semi-structured form. The duration of the interviews lasted one hour on average.

The data was transcribed before data analysis. Content analysis technique was used in analysing of the data. Content analysis can be used to scrutinize written material and recorded communication and thereby used in number of fields such as ethnography and cultural studies, marketing and media studies, in literature and public speaking, sociology and political science (Kulatunga, Amaratunga&Haigh, 2007). Content analysis as any kind of qualitative data reduction and interpretation attempt in order to determine the basic differences and meanings by identifying voluminous qualitative materials (Patton, 2014). While conducting content analysis, codes were initially created in accordance with the data. Creating the codes facilitated summarizing and analysing the data. Subsequently, themes were created according to the codes.

Validity and Reliability Studies

Creswell (2009) used concepts of persuasiveness, transmissibility, consistency and confirmability while describing validity and reliability process in qualitative researches. In the context of validity (internal validity) of the study, in-depth interviews were conducted and experts' opinions were taken. Additionally, results obtained from data analysis were sent to 5 managers within the participants of the study and feedbacks were taken to see whether the results reflect their opinions. In order to provide transmissibility (external validity), all the stages of the study such as determining the participants, data collection and analysis were described in detail. Moreover, direct quotations were taken from the participants. In order to provide consistency (internal reliability) and confirmability (external reliability), raw data based on the interviews and the themes made up as a result of analyses were asked the experts' opinions.

FINDINGS

In this chapter, the findings about leadership process of female managers in higher education were given. The findings obtained from data analysis were shown as themes, sub-themes and codes. In line with the findings, it was observed that management process of female managers were shaped as the factors effective in becoming manager, sources of motivation, the barriers they encountered in their managerial process, the reflection of management process on their private life, the perceptions and attitudes towards female managers and the precautions to be taken for increasing the effectiveness of female managers.

The Effective Factors in the Process of Becoming a Manager

The effective factors for women in the process of becoming a manager depend on some personal elements such as communication skills, academic success, open to innovations, organizational commitment and sense of responsibility and support of colleagues and senior management, and some managerial elements such as organizational skills, ability of problem solving, being solution-oriented and business follow-up. M4, who assessed the effective factors in the process

of becoming a manager in the context of personal elements, stated that “Characteristically, I like communicating with people, listening them, solving their problems, guiding them. I mean, I think I am an over-social person and most of the time, this becomes an advantage for me, when both our dean and other managers supported me, I found myself as a manager. M9, who are in charge of managing the head of the department, underlined that he became a manager because of the qualifications he had and stated “...coming to the faculty earlier and staying there for long hours are among the things making me happy. The question how I can contribute more to the faculty is always in my mind, it was so before I became the head of the department. Because I loved my job and still love it...”

Sources of Motivation

Female managers stated that they were motivated by internal and external sources during managerial process. They defined they were motivated by internal sources such as solving problems, managing decision-taking process, having the right to comment, having prestige and developing business networks, and by some external sources such as providing a healthy work atmosphere for the shareholders, providing a healthy work atmosphere for the students, being rewarded in return for doing right things. M13 (Vice Dean) stated “...I would think the management had a different air even when I studied at the university, I found it prestigious, I think what is important is this, to choose the difficult one, I also thought that if someone would be there, why not me?”.

The barriers Encountered in the Process of Management

In the study, the female managers encountered with glass ceiling barriers in managerial process. The female managers expressed that they had to handle both their private and work life together, which can be explained with glass ceiling metaphor and depending on this, they experienced feeling of inadequacy. Besides, they added they had to cope with the barriers based on organizational culture, the barriers out by colleagues and managers and social prejudices; therefore, they were hesitant to desire for managerial positions and they just wanted to keep their position. M5, who emphasized on the pressures put by the colleagues and managers, stated that “Maybe I would think to become the head of the department, but in these circumstances, I was daunted. As you know, the position of head of the department has not so many responsibilities, but nevertheless, some friends in the department especially male ones can make a fuss about this, while scheduling the classes, a prejudiced attitude can be shown, not just for schedule, I can tell that I have similar feelings in every moment I demand something from them”.

Other barriers that female managers encounter can be categorized under organizational barriers such as bureaucracy, lack of finance and lack of mentor. M1, indicating that she has difficulty in finding a female manager in the university who will guide and help her in some way, stated that “I don’t have much work experience, and I have almost no experience in management. I profoundly feel

the lack of this, I try to do my best, but I don't think it is adequate. My colleagues who manages in the same position as me are mostly males, whenever I talk to them about a problem that I have encountered, they assess the situation in men's eyes and direct me accordingly. I don't want to make a sex discrimination but I often feel that I am not understood, in that case I say to myself if a female manager were my guide, it would be better...".

Effects of Management Process on Private Life

Data of the study shows that the effects of management process on private life are one of the reasons why females do not prefer managerial positions. The position of management was described as a duty requiring extra time by female managers. Effects of management process on private life were formed in the framework of time. About this, M14 stated "... when you become an instructor, you should participate in some meetings also, but not so frequent as that of a manager; almost every day you have meetings to participate in, these meetings force you to work extensively, preparations before the meetings require extra time, you need much more time, there are some days that you should sacrifice your family on, you should reduce the time you separated not only for family but also close friends, relatives and your academic studies also...".

Perceptions and Attitudes towards Female Managers

Data of the study show that the attitudes towards female managers are an important factor affecting the management process of females. It was described by female managers that protective instinct, self-sacrifice and wish to establish the authority imposed by men lead to lack of self-confidence and need of acceptance. Additionally, these feelings and attitudes were assessed as establishing authority culturally and "male-dominant" aspect of this culture was underlined. The feelings/attitudes such as greed, jealousy and competition imposed by female colleagues were described as feelings and attitudes causing energy loss. M15 stated about this "Surely, it is difficult to say all female or male colleagues are of the same attitude. Women can sometimes be overwhelmed their ambition, or they act unfavourable attitude assuming others as rivals, on the other hand men generally act with protective instinct, I mean they are using some expressions such as, you go, I can handle it, if something bad happens, tell us or assign us about this.

Measures about Increasing Effectiveness of Female Managers

Data of the study includes some measures to increase effectiveness of female managers. While talking about management process, the women especially put emphasis on this and they stated they could increase their potentials by top level with these measurements. Female managers found necessary to take measures against behaviours such as mobbing and intimidation, to take encouraging measures to increase the representation rate of women in management positions and to develop mentorship system for female managers. M3, who made some suggestions about increasing

representation rate of women in management positions stated her opinion as such “the number of female managers are few, rather few and the statistics always indicate this number. Though there are several reasons, but for me, the most important one is that their work load increases since the profit is too little and the idea that they have no need. I think there is no profit for women to become a manager, so the women perceive the management as trouble, fatigue and extra-time. The women will be more ambitious, when they are supported. How can they support? By considering about collaborative mechanisms, working hours and providing flexibility”.

Discussion, Conclusion & Recommendations

According to the results of the study, factors encouraging females to become managers are collected under personal and organizational factors. When the literature is reviewed, it is observed that the personal characteristics are emphasized in the studies about the reasons why women are preferred for senior management positions. For instance, Özmutaf, Aktekin, Ergani and Çıta, (2015) points out that women’s distinctive characteristics, innovative ideas and insights are known to facilitate the management process. According to Eagly and Carli (2007), women’s personal characteristics such as being democratic and giving importance to participation are among the reasons why they are preferred (as cited: Rincon, Gonzalez, Barrero, 2017). Besides, regulations about leadership practices are assessed as an effective factor for women to become managers (Eagly Carli, 2003). There are also some researches claiming that women are more advantageous for academic leadership positions. Effective factors for women to become managers can be attributed as their success in organizing and motivating, their effectiveness in thinking and observation process and thus having a powerful creativity, being more reliable and developing (Zulu, 2007). However, their success in the process to increase their level of performance to a greater degree (Adams and Funk, 2012) being more liable to meet others’ needs (Eagly and Carli, 2007) can be regarded as two of the reasons why they are preferred as managers. Sally Helgesen (1995) studied women during the process of decision-taking, collecting information and dissemination, decentralization, restructuring the organizations and motivating staff. In her study, she concluded they put more emphasis on relations and share in leadership process.

In our study, it is reached a conclusion that women are motivated by internal sources of motivation such as problem solving, managing decision-taking process, having the right to comment, having prestige and developing business networks, and external sources such as providing a healthy work atmosphere for shareholders, providing a healthy educational atmosphere for students and being rewarded in return for doing right things. While female managers are talking about the factors motivating them, they emphasized mostly on individual factors, but they don’t mention about the supports taken from family, colleagues and environment. When the factors motivating or supporting female managers are reviewed in literature, it is encountered with some emphasis on inter-personal

relationships and support groups. For instance, in their studies about the factors making women successful in the leadership of higher education, Shahtalebi, Yarmohammedian and Ajami (2011) determines the factors as being decisive, being social, making effort in reaching aims, having a supportive family, having a supportive partner, having good relationships with sub-groups and colleagues and opening to collaborations. Hannum, Muhly, Shockley-Zalabak and White (2015) concludes in their study that the factors supporting women in higher education are formal development experiences, early leadership experiences and having a role model.

According to the results of the study, the barriers female managers encounter with are mostly those which can only be explained with glass ceiling metaphor. In the study, it is concluded that women encounter with barriers put by their colleagues and managers, and some problems such as managing the work and family life together, feeling of inadequacy and social prejudices. Women state that they encounter with individual, social and institutional barriers. When the literature about the barriers female managers encountered in the process of management is reviewed, it is proved that similar results are obtained. For instance, Diehl (2014) states that the barriers women encounter in leadership process are at social, individual and institutional levels. According to Keohane (2004), the first barrier women encounter in leadership process results from role conflicts about family and home. For almost all societies, women are responsible for child care and house works. Without an egalitarian husband, managing the responsibilities for children, house and powerful leadership together causes a deterrent effect on women. House works based on gender, gender clichés (such as women should be well-groomed and sexy, a strengthening belief with the effect of popular culture) and lack of mentor are the barriers for women (Keohane). Şiyve (2004) states that glass-ceiling barriers for women are those resulting from themselves and environmental factors. Özbey (2004) who analysed the factors preventing women from reaching senior management positions emphasized social prejudices and inequality of opportunity as well. It is stated in Higher Education Women's Leadership Workshop (2012) that female managers encounter with several problems in higher education management caused by academic culture/work atmosphere, lack of legal regulations, socio-cultural factors and personal characteristics. In the study describing about the problems female managers encounter and factors supporting them, Hannum, Muhly, Shockley-Zalabak and White (2015) concludes that the barriers female managers encountered are lack of leadership experiences, deprivation of some various opportunities and supports, discouragement and sabotage and different expectations from men and women. In literature, there are some studies not only emphasizing on the barriers female managers encounter but also negative aspects of being a female manager. For instance, Hannum, Muhly, Shockley-Zalabak and White (2015) in their study reaches the conclusion that the negative aspects of senior management role are broad scope of the job, isolation, not fitting in-not being heard, pressure of ultimate accountability, scrutiny and criticism, and time demands of the job.

In our study, it is understood that the reflection of management process to private life is one of the reasons why women do not prefer management positions. Management position is regarded as a time demanding job by female managers. Similarly, Çetin (2011) states that women in Turkish society performing multiple roles such as mother, wife and working woman encounter with lots of tension resulting from conflicting of roles with time-based pressures and different expectations of each role. It is also stated in the literature that the most difficult stage for female leaders are to build balance between private life and their careers. However, one of the results of the study indicates that some women who wish to get senior management positions do not want to have children (Näsman and Hyvönen, 2016). In some studies, it is observed that the reflection of private life into management process is discussed. Wood and Newton (2006) points out that responsibilities for family and children can be a barrier for women to reach senior management positions. Malovi (2014) states that women can realize their professional dreams only after they perform their cultural roles.

It is concluded in the study that attitudes and perceptions against female managers are reflected differently by man and women colleagues. Male colleagues have attitudes such as protective instinct, self-sacrifice and providing authority, yet it is defined that these attitudes have negative effects on female managers. The attitudes/feelings such as greed, jealousy and competition are described as the emotions causing loss of energy. In literature, it is possible to come across similar results with our study. For example, Omar (1996) states that when women work under a female manager, this can sometimes turn into jealousy. In literature, there are some studies indicating negative attitudes against female managers while there are some studies including neutral attitudes. Ali, Khan and Munaf (2013) concludes in their study that the attitudes against female managers are neutral. However, Preko (2012) points out that male colleagues do not want to work with female managers and they have negative attitudes against them.

In the study, it was concluded that some precautions should be taken against the behaviours like mobbing and intimidation to increase the effectiveness of female managers, some promoting measures should be taken for women to increase the representation rate in top management and mentorship system should be developed. Empowering female managers depend on removing the barriers before them. Therefore, the barriers should be removed. The barriers preventing women from empowering are described as change of male dominant workplace culture (Mizrahi and Aracı, 2010), the misfortune of women about role-model since the number of females working in senior positions are fewer than males (Özünlü, 2013), stereotypes and perceptions, mentorship and communication networks, discrimination, private life issues (Cai and Kleiner, 1999), social prejudices, responsibilities within family, lack of equality of opportunity (Aksu, Çek and Şenol, 2013). It can be said that the effectiveness of female managers will be increased by removing these barriers.

Based on the results of the study, some recommendations could be given to policy-makers, practitioners and researchers. It was observed in the study that no legal basis exists about increasing effectiveness and number of female managers in senior positions in higher education. In this point, the policies to empower women can be adopted. It is considered necessary that notably the administrative level should encourage the woman at low level positions for senior management positions and in this process, they should adopt a supportive approach instead of protective one. This study was conducted with female academics in managerial positions in higher education. A similar research could be performed with male managers and instructors.

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Thinking Development Techniques Used By Pre-service Turkish Language Teachers in Informative Text Writingⁱ

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Abstract

The purpose of the current study is to determine the pre-service Turkish language teachers' level of using thinking development techniques while writing informative texts. In the study, descriptive analysis-based qualitative method was employed. The study group determined by means of purposive sampling method is comprised of a total of 33 fourth-year students attending the Department of Turkish Language Teaching at the Education Faculty of Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University in the spring term of 2015-2016 academic year. In order to collect the data in the study, discussion and video display activities were performed with the pre-service teachers and then they were asked to write informative texts. The produced texts were analyzed to explore their level of using thinking development techniques. At the end of the study, it was concluded that the pre-service Turkish teachers had used the providing examples technique the most while writing informative texts and it is followed by the defining, showing witness and comparing techniques. Moreover, it was found that the pre-service teachers were limited to some certain thinking development techniques in terms of their level of using thinking development techniques.

Keywords: *Writing instruction, text, informative text, thinking development techniques.*

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Introduction

Understanding based on the individual's perception of the external world includes "listening and reading" skills and explaining based on expressing one's feelings and thoughts to another person and expressing oneself include "speaking and writing". According to Kurudayıoğlu (2011, p. 216), while individuals are reading, listening and watching, they try to understand and while they are speaking and writing, they try to express. During understanding, the existing thoughts are fed, new constructions are made and they are compared with the already existing structures and during expressing, the existing thoughts are explained and are conveyed to another person.

One of the most frequently used skills in both the daily life and academic life of an individual, writing enables the individual to convey his/her feelings and thoughts in a planned manner. General objectives stated in the Turkish Language Curriculum aim to enable students to express their feelings and thoughts and opinions and theses about a subject effectively by developing their writing skills and to make them use Turkish language in a conscious, accurate and meticulous manner in compliance with the speaking and writing rules of Turkish (MEB, 2017, p. 10).

Mental factors play an important role in grasping, administering and getting into the habit of writing skill (Tiryaki, 2017, p. 1036). As the written expression as a complicated and metacognitive activity requiring the skill of organizing personal knowledge, basic skills, strategies and multiple processes is based on producing a synthesis by capitalizing on the individual's feelings, thoughts and experiences, it involves the simultaneous use of more elements than the other skill domains (Arıcı, 2008, p. 217; Ceran and Kordak, 2015, p. 49). Allowing a systematic expression of feelings and emotions, the act of writing is a multi-dimensional mental process. Within this process, there are many mental operations such as analysis, synthesis, comparison, matching, criticizing and questioning.

Writing skill is systematically developed starting from the first years of elementary education. Senemoğlu (2010) noted that from the fourth grade onwards –especially after the sixth grade– students' thinking skills should be developed in tandem with their basic language skills (cited in Kurudayıoğlu, Tüzel and Karakaş, 2011, p. 186). When the general objectives of the Turkish Language Curriculum are examined, it is seen that students are expected to develop their information seeking, discovering, interpreting and constructing in the mind skills, learn how to have access to information through printed materials and multi-media sources and how to organize, question, utilize and produce this information and to comprehend what they read and evaluate and question them from a critical viewpoint and the thinking-based skills such as communicating in the mother tongue, mathematical competence and competence in science/technology, digital competence and learning how to learn are among the basic skills stated in the curriculum. As stated here, through the language education, it is intended to develop language skills such as listening, speaking, writing on the one

hand, and to promote the individual's communication and thinking skills on the other. Thus, mother tongue education should not be limited to mere conveyance of information, it also should have a content aiming to enhance thinking skill (Aktaş and Baki, 2013, p. 3). Seen from this perspective, utilization of thinking development techniques for enhancing writing skill has an important place in the effective expression of feelings and thoughts.

In fact, on the basis of developing thinking lays perceiving and making sense of abstract and concrete entities. Actually, this process starts with the activation of the five sense organs. Humans recognize and describe other creatures, environment and nature through these five sense organs, evaluate and interpret them on the basis of similarities and differences and come to conclusions specific to their lives. For the development and promotion of informative text writing skills, first, five sense organs should be trained in such a way as to perceive and make sense of concrete and abstract entities. In this training, ways of educating students not hearing but listening, not smelling, tasting and touching but recognizing smells, tastes and objects and consciously discriminating them according to their qualifications should be sought and students should be enabled to acquire the skills of discovering the essence, constructing the essence and restructuring it by establishing entity-perception-language-making sense-thinking relationship.

One of the text types in which thinking development techniques are frequently used, informative texts are written to give information and they can help develop thinking skills such as discussion, criticizing, comparing. Akyol (2006, p. 160) states that informative texts do not have a fixed structure unlike narrative texts; therefore, they are more difficult to understand. Due this characteristic, there is a need for serious and progressive training to write informative texts. One of the important stages of this training is constituted by thinking development techniques. According to Temizkan (2011, p. 17), the use of thinking development techniques allows the detailed processing and presentation of the topic addressed in the writing in various respects. The topic is better perceived by the reader in a more comprehensible and interesting way. As clear, comprehensible and effective expression is achieved, the retention of the writing is enhanced.

In informative texts, the author makes use of different techniques such as defining, providing examples, comparing, showing witness, using numerical data to justify his/her opinions to express them more effectively and persuade the reader. These techniques requiring higher metacognitive skills are explained below:

Defining: In the Turkish Dictionary, it is defined as “precisely describing and explaining the characteristics of a concept” and it is one of the techniques used to explain the unknown concepts related to the topic while writing informative text. Defining sentences usually found in the introductory parts of the text can take the form of objective sentences as well as subjective sentences.

Providing examples: The technique of providing examples usually used to reify the subject allows the information to be more permanent and the expression to be more effective through visualization in the mind. Examples given after the explanation of a certain topic can be selected from among the actual or would-be-actual events that took place in the past, are taking place at present or will take place in the future. According to Akbayır (2010, p. 80), sampling is based on similarity or the ability to represent; it is similar to the general one or exists inside of it.

Comparing: On the basis of similarities or differences, comparing aims to exhibit the characteristics of an event, a state or an object in a synchronic or diachronic manner and allows something to be seen as different from others or to be distinguished from others.

Showing witness: It is one of the techniques used to prove an event or a state, to increase the persuasiveness of the presentation and to support the discussion. In general, the opinions of people who are experts in their fields are given; thus, the technique of showing witness helps to convince the reader. According to Bilgin (2006, p. 554) *“the quotation is made with the aim of supporting the defended position or refuting the opposed discussion.”*

Using numerical data: This technique involves using numerical data found in documents such as scientific facts, statistics, historical heritages and correspondences to reinforce a discussion (Akbayır, 2010, p. 81). Numerical data are used to support, prove, reify and increase the credibility of a discussion presented in a text.

There is a need for a progressive training starting from the elementary education for the development of the skill of writing informative text which is one of the text types in which thinking development techniques are used the most frequently. This progressive training should attempt to develop students' mental structures and skills by adopting orientation approaches leading student from difficult to easy, from near to far, from surface to depth and from depth to surface. What is important in such activities and applications is to promote higher thinking.

Writing an informative text is more difficult and complex than writing other types of texts because the author needs to do many things in tandem such as organizing the ideas, explaining the topic to be conveyed to the reader in a precise and striking manner, making efforts to influence and persuade the reader. Therefore, teaching how to use thinking development techniques to students can help them develop their informative text writing skill. For pre-service Turkish teachers to impart informative text writing skill to their prospective students, first they need to have the skill necessary to use thinking development techniques in their written explanations. In this regard, the main purpose of the current study is to determine the pre-service Turkish teachers' level of using thinking development techniques.

METHOD

Research Model

In the current study conducted to determine the thinking developing activities used by the pre-service Turkish teachers while writing informative texts, the case study design; one of the qualitative research designs, aiming at a detailed investigation of one or more cases was employed. In the case study, the factors related to the case of interest (environment, individuals, events, processes etc.) are investigated through an integrated approach and the focus is on how they affect the target case and how they are affected from it (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2005, p. 77).

Study Group

The study group of the study is comprised of 33 fourth-year students attending the Department of Turkish Language Teaching at the Education Faculty of Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University. In the determination of the study group, the purposive sampling method allowing the deep investigation of the situations thought to include rich information was used (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2005, p. 107).

Data Collection and Analysis

In order to determine the extent to which they use thinking developing techniques while writing informative texts, it was planned to make the pre-service teachers write a composition about endangered animals. Before writing, some activities such as video shows and discussions about the issue were performed. After these activities, the pre-service teachers were given an hour to write their compositions on the basis of the videos watched and discussions conducted about endangered animals.

The collected data were analyzed by using the descriptive analysis, one of the qualitative research methods. The descriptive analysis approach involves the summarization and interpretation of the data on the basis of the pre-determined themes (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2005, p. 224). In the current study, as the texts written by the pre-service teachers are examined according to the pre-determined thinking developing techniques, the study is a descriptive analysis study based on the analysis of the data according to a thematic framework. The texts written by the pre-service teachers were examined according to the extent to which they had used the thinking developing techniques, frequencies and percentages were calculated for each technique and excerpts from the students' statements were frequently used.

For the reliability of the data, the researchers discussed to decide what they agree and disagree on. For the calculation of the reliability of the data, the reliability formula proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994) was used.

$$\text{Reliability} = \text{Agreement} / (\text{Agreement} + \text{Disagreement})$$

As a result of this calculation, the reliability of the study was calculated to be 90%; thus, the study is accepted to be reliable.

The written texts were analyzed to determine the level of using thinking development techniques and frequencies and percentages were calculated for each technique.

FINDINGS

In this section of the study, findings related to the thinking development techniques used by the pre-service Turkish language teachers while writing informative texts are presented.

Table 1. Thinking Development Techniques Used by the Pre-service Teachers While Writing Informative Texts

Thinking Developing Techniques	f	Percentage (%)	Mean
Providing examples	79	52	2.4
Using numerical data	32	21,1	1
Defining	28	18,4	0.8
Showing witness	8	5,3	0.2
Comparing	5	3,3	0.2
Total	152	100	4.6

As can be seen in Table 4.1, the most commonly used thinking developing technique by the pre-service teachers while writing informative texts is “providing examples” with 52%. This is followed by “using numerical data” with 21.1%, “defining” with 18.4%, “showing witness” with 5.3% and “comparing” with 3.3%.

When the arithmetic means of the thinking developing techniques used by the pre-service teachers in their texts are examined, it is seen that the pre-service teachers used the thinking developing techniques 4.6 times in total. From among these, the technique of providing examples was used 2.4 times, the technique of using numerical data was used once, the technique of defining was used 0.8 time and the techniques of showing witness and comparing were used 0.2 time each on average.

When the techniques used by the students are examined as a whole, it is seen that the technique of providing examples makes up more than half of the techniques used (52%). Moreover, the most frequently used techniques; providing examples, using numerical data and defining make up almost all of the techniques used (91.5%). The remaining techniques; showing witness and comparing

make up 8.6% of all the techniques used. This shows that the pre-service teachers' using the thinking developing techniques while writing informative texts is generally limited to some certain techniques in general.

Direct quotations from the compositions of the pre-service teachers regarding each thinking development technique are given below.

Examples from the pre-service Turkish language teachers' informative texts related to the technique "providing examples":

	EXAMPLES
PROVIDING EXAMPLES (29%)	K11- <i>"For instance, though polar bears are cute animals, and we love them from distance, they are becoming extinct as we restrict their habitats and due to globalization."</i>
	K12- <i>"Another example can be dolphins. They are used for therapeutic purposes and they remain distant from their natural habitats."</i>
	K14- <i>"For example, golden frog has not been encountered in any part of the world for years."</i>
	K15- <i>"Human beings continuously wanting to expand their domination have wiped out many animal species: These are Caspian tiger, whale species and endangered pandas and polar bears."</i>
	K21- <i>"For example dolphins; they are brutally destroyed in The Far East Asia by food industry and entertainment industry."</i>

Examples from the pre-service Turkish language teachers' informative texts related to the technique "using numerical data":

	EXAMPLES
USING NUMERICAL DATA (11.5%)	K2- <i>"Tasmanian tiger, endemic to Australia and carnivorous, lived up to 1930s."</i>
	K4- <i>"As a result of recent works, the number of these animals has been increased by 10%."</i>
	K7- <i>"The number of these endangered animals is about 200-300. This animal living in the Californian Bay uses only about 20% of its brain."</i>
	K17- <i>"The weight of Giant bullhead reaches up to 300 kilograms."</i>
	K30- <i>"It is known that more than 500 species have been extinct on earth."</i>

Examples from the pre-service Turkish language teachers' informative texts related to the technique "defining":

	EXAMPLES
	K7- “ <i>The Ganges River dolphins are also known as Indian river dolphins.</i> ”
	K12- “ <i>Poaching is one of the most serious problems.</i> ”
	K16- “ <i>Extinct species are species completely wiped out.</i> ”
	K29- “ <i>The Mediterranean seals live only in the Mediterranean and Western Africa coasts.</i> ”
	K29- “ <i>Java rhinos are hunted as their horns are valuable and they are endangered as their habitats are destroyed by construction companies.</i> ”

Examples from the pre-service Turkish language teachers’ informative texts related to the technique “showing witness”:

	EXAMPLES
	K21- “ <i>As a result many observations, it has been concluded that many animals have not been seen in their natural habitats or their numbers have been reduced to hundreds.</i> ”
	K22- “ <i>According to the data reported by the polar bears watching and tracking association, the number of these animals is fewer than 25,000.</i> ”
	K24- “ <i>According to the news I have watched recently, a new born dolphin died as some people wanted to be taken a photograph with it.</i> ”
	K31- “ <i>The Mediterranean seal has been accepted as one of the twelve endangered species by IUCN (International Union for Conservation of Nature).</i> ”
	K32- “ <i>Recent research has shown that many animal species are endangered.</i> ”

Examples from the pre-service Turkish language teachers’ informative texts related to the technique “comparing”:

	EXAMPLES
	K3- “ <i>Humans can express and protect themselves but animals and plant cannot.</i> ”
	K20- “ <i>While previously nature affected the people, now people have started to shape and exploit the nature as they wish.</i> ”
	K27- “ <i>The number of endangered animals is higher than it was before.</i> ”
	K30- “ <i>Lives of other living things are not less valuable than ours.</i> ”
	K32- “ <i>Borneo elephant is smaller than Asian elephants.</i> ”

DISCUSSION and CONCLUSION

For students to write informative texts about a topic, they first need to have good knowledge base about the topic. Thus, activities such as reading articles, watching films, conducting discussions etc. should be conducted. In the current study, the students were first made watch video about the topic of interest and they were exposed to text reading and discussion activities and then they were asked to write informative texts. As a result of the current study, it was found that the pre-service teachers used the techniques of providing examples, using numerical data and defining while writing their informative texts; yet, they used the techniques of showing witness and comparing relatively less.

When the relevant literature is reviewed, it is seen that in different studies, different techniques came to the fore (Kurudayıoğlu, 2011; Temizkan, 2011; Çetin and Can, 2012; Aktaş and Baki, 2013). Kurudayıoğlu (2011) investigated the pre-service Turkish language teachers' state of using thinking development techniques in their oral expression and found that the most frequently used techniques were "providing examples" and "defining"; Temizkan (2011) explored the university students' state of using the ways of thinking development and found that the most frequently used techniques were "comparing" and "providing examples"; Çetin and Can (2012) attempted to determine the secondary school students' frequency of using thinking development techniques in their writings and found that the most frequently used techniques are "providing examples". Despite the differences seen in the studies, "providing examples" seems to be the most frequently used technique while "showing witness" and "using numerical data" seem to be the least frequently used ones. This indicates that use of thinking development techniques varies depending on the topic, text genre and teacher's preferences. A well-planned instructional program is needed to eliminate these differences and make the equal use of all techniques.

The research focusing on ways of thinking development techniques is considerably limited. This issue has only been indirectly addressed in few studies on written expression. Tiryaki (2011, p. 69) investigated the argumentative writing proficiency of first-year 361 students from the Faculties of Economics and Administration, Letters and Science and Education of Mustafa Kemal University and in this regard, thinking development techniques used by the students to support their argumentative texts were explored. As a result, following ratios were found for the techniques used by the students "defining" (0.16), "showing witness" (0.02), "comparing" (0.05), "providing examples" (0.43), "analogy" (0.03), "using numerical data" (0.02). Here, the students most frequently used "providing examples" and they used "showing witness" (0.02) and "using numerical data" (0.02) the least. The common point of the two studies is that the ratio of using the techniques of "providing examples", "defining", "using numerical data" and "showing witness" is lower than 1. This yields some negativities such as not being able to develop texts from different aspects, committing comprehension mistakes and not being able to express clearly and efficiently.

As a result of the current study, it was found that the pre-service teachers used the thinking developing technique of providing examples the most and it is followed by the techniques of using numerical data and defining. These three techniques make up more than 90% of all the techniques used; on the other hand, the total ratio of the techniques of showing witness and comparing is 8%. Thus, it can be concluded that the pre-service teachers do not make adequate use of thinking developing techniques while writing informative texts and they are limited to some certain techniques.

For the development and promotion of informative text writing skills, first, five sense organs should be trained in such a way as to perceive and make sense of concrete and abstract entities. For this purpose, prior to informative text writing activities, different resources can be exploited such as museums and field trips, conferences, films, theaters, exhibitions, videos, pictures, written documents and listening materials. In this way, students can acquire the skill of making use of ways and techniques of defining, comparing, providing examples, showing witness and using numerical data while writing their informative texts.

Applied works should be performed to show how to use thinking development techniques more effectively within writing activities. Thus, students' use of thinking development techniques can be developed by conducting oral activities such as discussions and panels. Moreover, each thinking development technique can be individually focused on in paragraph writing activities.

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Miscellany

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