REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ÇANAKKALE ONSEKİZ MART UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAMME

ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS IN TERMS OF LEADERSHIP, ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOURS, TEACHER SELF-EFFICACY: THE ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION IN A SCHOOL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES CONTEXT

MASTER THESIS

GİZEM ARSLAN

SUPERVISOR
PROF. DR. ECE ZEHİR TOPKAYA

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ETİK BEYAN

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DECLARATION OF ETHICS

I hereby undertake and declare that in this master dissertation, which I prepared in accordance with the rules of dissertation writing of School of Graduate Studies of Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, I have obtained the data, information and documents, which presented in the dissertation within the framework of academic and ethical rules, I have presented all the information, documents, evaluations and results in accordance with the code of scientific ethics and ethics, all sources which I have benefited during the dissertation have been fully cited in the references, I have not made any changes to the data used that the study I have presented in this dissertation is original, which I have accepted all losses of rights that may arise against me otherwise.

Gizem ARSLAN
11/08/2022

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ABSTRACT

ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS IN TERMS OF LEADERSHIP, ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOURS, TEACHER SELF-EFFICACY: THE ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION IN A SCHOOL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES CONTEXT

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This study aimed to investigate the perceptions of the School of Foreign Languages (SFL) staff working at a non-profit university in İstanbul, Turkey towards organizational effectiveness (OE), leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, teacher self-efficacy, and organizational communication, besides their relation to each other. Additionally, the study aimed to reveal the role of leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, and teacher self-efficacy in OE. Furthermore, the study focused on the communication network of the SFL and to what extent it is related to OE as well as its mediating role between OE and leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, teacher self-efficacy. Finally, the study aimed to uncover the characteristics of the communication channels that facilitate and impair OE.

With respect to these aims, the study employed the embedded research design. Firstly, the quantitative data were collected by means of a survey instrument including five scales in order to reveal the instructors' perceptions of OE, teacher self-efficacy, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, and organizational communication as well as their relationships. Secondly, the collection of the qualitative data by means of one-on-one semi-structured interviews were undertaken in order to reveal instructors' perceptions of organizational communication and communication channels employed at the SFL. To

analyse the quantitative data SPSS v25 was employed and descriptive analysis, correlation analysis, multiple regression, and structural equation model were utilized. For the qualitative data analysis, inductive content analysis approach was used.

50 of the SFL staff, comprised of full-time instructors and administrators working in the 2021-2022 academic year, voluntarily participated in the quantitative phase of the study. On the other hand, 10 of the staff took part in the one-on-one semi-structured interviews.

The findings revealed that school-context teacher self-efficacy had the highest mean score while organizational communication had the lowest score. Also, all the variables were positively correlated at a moderate level. On the other hand, organizational citizenship behaviours and leadership predicted OE while teacher self-efficacy did not. Furthermore, the highest mediation role of communication was revealed to be between citizenship behaviours and OE, which was at a moderate level. Finally, the majority of the communication channels were comprised of electronic and online tools, which have become dominant since the Covid-19 breakout and all communication channels of the SFL were perceived to be contributing to OE to some degree despite having some barriers as well.

Concludingly, OE was found to be mainly related to the smooth functioning of internal operations, which was perceived to be ensured by the effort of the staff rather than the benefits provided by the institution. The staff devoted their efforts to benefit their colleagues rather than the institution.

Keywords: Organizational Effectiveness, Leadership, Teacher Self-efficacy, Organizational Citizenship Behaviours, Organizational Communication

ÖZET

LİDERLİK, ÖRGÜTSEL VATANDAŞLIK DAVRANIŞLARI, ÖĞRETMEN ÖZ YETERLİLİĞİ AÇISINDAN ÖRGÜTSEL ETKİLİLİK: YABANCI DİLLER YÜKSEKOKULU BAĞLAMINDA ÖRGÜTSEL İLETİŞİMİN ROLÜ

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Bu araştırma, İstanbul'da bir vakıf üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu (YDYO)'da görev yapan öğretim görevlilerinin örgütsel etkililik (ÖE), liderlik, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları, öğretmen öz-yeterliği ve örgütsel iletişime yönelik algılarını, bu algılarının birbirleriyle olan ilişkilerini araştırmayı amaçlamıştır. Bunun yansıra, çalışmada liderlik, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları ve öğretmen öz-yeterliğinin ÖE'deki rolünün araştırılması amaçlanmıştır. Ayrıca YDYO bünyesinde kullanılan iletişim ağına, iletişimin ÖE ile ne ölçüde ilişkili olduğuna ve bu ağın ÖE ve diğer değişkenler arasındaki aracılık rolüne odaklanılmıştır. Son olarak, iletişim kanallarının ÖE'i sağlayan veya ÖE'ye engel olan niteliklerinin ortaya çıkarılması amaçlanmıştır.

Araştırmanın hedeflerine ulaşmak için, iç içe geçmiş karma tasarım kullanılmıştır. İlk olarak, öğretim görevililerinin ÖE'ye, öğretmen öz-yeterliliğine, liderliğe, vatandaşlık davranışlarına ve örgütsel iletişime karşı algılarını ve bu değişkenlerin arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemek için anket aracılığıyla nicel veri toplanmıştır. İkinci kısımda, öğretim görevlilerinin örgütsel iletişim ve YDYO'da kullanılan iletişim kanalları hakkındaki algılarını belirlemek için yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme aracılığıyla nitel veri toplanmıştır. Nicel verilerin analizi için SPSS v25 programı kullanılmış ve Betimsel Analiz, Korelasyon Analizi, Çoklu Regresyon Analizi ve SEM Analizi yapılmıştır. Nitel veriler için ise tüme varımsal içerik analizi kullanılmıştır.

Çalışmanın nicel aşamasına 2021-2022 eğitim öğretim yılında görev yapan tam zamanlı öğretim görevlileri ve yöneticilerden oluşan YDYO personelinin 50'si gönüllü olarak katılmıştır. Öte yandan, yapılandırılmış görüşmelere aynı personelden 10 kişi katılmıştır.

Bulgular, okul bağlamında öğretmen öz yeterliğinin en yüksek ortalama puana sahip olduğunu, örgütsel iletişimin ise en düşük puana sahip olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca, tüm değişkenler arasında orta düzeyde pozitif korelasyon bulunmuştur. Öte yandan, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları ve liderliğin ÖE'yi yordadığı tespit edilirken, öğretmen öz yeterliğinin hiçbir etkisi bulunmamıştır. Ek olarak, iletişimin en yüksek aracılık rolünün ÖE ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları arasında orta seviye olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. Son olarak, kanalların çoğunluğunun, Covid-19'un patlak vermesinden bu yana baskın hale gelen elektronik ve çevrimiçi araçlardan oluştuğunu ve kullanılan tüm iletişim kanallarının bazı engellere rağmen bir dereceye kadar ÖE'ye katkıda bulunduğu ortaya çıkmıştır.

Sonuç olarak, ÖE'nin çoğunlukla örgüt içi işleyişin düzgün çalışmasıyla ilişkilendirildiği ve üniversite tarafından sağlanan olanaklardan ziyade öğretim görevlilerinin çabaları sayesinde sağlandığı ortaya çıkmıştır. Ayrıca, ÖE'yi sağlarken öğretim görevlilerinin üniversiteye fayda sağlamaktan ziyade iş arkadaşlarına fayda sağlamak için çaba harcadığı ortaya çıkmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Örgütsel Etkililik, Liderlik, Öğretmen Öz-yeterliği, Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışları, Örgütsel İletişim

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ABBREVIATIONS

CEFR   Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

SE   Self-efficacy

SFL   School of Foreign Languages

OC   Organizational Communication

OCB   Organizational Citizenship Behaviours

OE   Organizational Effectiveness

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

The introduction chapter consists of the background of the study, purpose statement along with the research questions, assumptions, limitations, significance of the study, relevant definitions, and the chapter summary.

1.2. Background of the Study

Currently, 141 universities in Turkey have founded school of foreign languages (SFL) which aim to equip students with listening, reading, speaking, writing and grammar knowledge and skills required for their academic studies in a foreign language within the purpose of high quality education meeting national and international criteria; and 101 of these SFLs implement English language education in these departments within their own organizational structure to enhance student language learning (YBYS, 2020). This need stems from that higher education (HE) institutions aim to prepare individuals to survive and thrive in an increasingly diverse world where the borders are diminishing rapidly by helping them develop with international 21st-century qualities as well as efficient language skills and capabilities (Green, 2005; Eriçok, 2020). In this respect, English language education becomes one of HE priorities since English is acknowledged as the dominant common language due to military, economic and cultural power, capitalist economic advancements, and financial investments in technology (Brumfit, 2004). Besides, training globally and interculturally competent individuals in the 21st century, HE institutions also employ English language education policies to stimulate international enrolment activities and attract students from overseas, make financial profits, and increase global prestige (Ferguson, 2007, as cited in Jenkins, 2014).

In order to meet the above-mentioned needs, HE institutions establish their own organizational structures defined as the official form of coordination and interactions created to combine the duties of individuals and groups in order to achieve organizational aims (Bartol & Martin, 1991). Organizational structure enables the distribution of the work and

authority as well as the development of capabilities required for the attainment of organizational aims and enhancement of organizational effectiveness (OE) (Lawler III & Worley, 2006). Considering that the main aim of the SFLs is improving student learning via enhancing the quality of teaching, the school structure, which is a key determinant of OE, plays a significant role in achieving these aims (Cameron & Whetten, 1981).

On the other hand, OE is a notion with multiple definitions as the researchers have explored the issue from different perspectives (Antalyalı, 2008; Ayık, 2007; Cameron, 1982; Yıldırım, 2015). In the literature, the definitions of OE include references to the level of performance in achieving organizational aims, the maximum level of goal achievement by using available resources, organized and clear procedures for organizational performance aligned with institutional mission and vision, the capability of an organization in accomplishing the objectives and outcomes, the amount of success in ensuring desired future state, sustainability of systems as planned, the level of providing benefits to the target individuals or groups (Atlaf, 2011; Başaran, 1996; Başaran, 2004; Daft, 2000; Dela Cruz, 2011; Miner, 1988). In parallel to the plurality of the definitions given for the global features of OE, effectiveness in education is also described from several perspectives in relation to outputs, achievement of goals, environmental orientation, flexibility, internal operations, problem-solving, communication, information supply, decision making quality and so forth (Cameron, 1978; Pfeffer, 1977; Steers, 1975; Yuchtman & Seashore, 1967, as cited in Hagerer, 2019). As these descriptions indicate, thus, quality of education largely depends on OE with the purpose of reaching the institutional goals, the main focus of which is enhancing student learning.

Aligned with ensuring OE, those characteristics such as leadership, supportive work climate, staff development, self-efficacy of teachers, citizenship behaviours teacher participation in decisions, and mutual support of teacher-management team are emphasized in the literature (Doran, 2004; Etxeberria et al., 2017; Lezotte, 2001; Özgenel, 2019; Turhan et al., 2017). Since this study aims to uncover the impacts of leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, teacher self-efficacy, and organizational communication and the interactions among them, these characteristics will be clarified in more detail. Firstly, leadership is one of the most significant characteristics since HE institutions await academic excellence only when the teachers share the same spirit with the help of leaders

(Ramsden,1998). The characteristics of leadership in HE have been listed as: "leadership in teaching" referring to generating new ideas in the department and encouraging colleagues, "leadership in research" referring to be an inspiration, a guide as a researcher, "strategy, vision and networking" referring to proposing department interests to the rest of the university, "collaborative and motivational leadership", "fair and efficient management", "development and recognition of performance" referring to praising the successes and supporting development, and "interpersonal skills" referring to considering others instead of being self-interested (Ramsden, 1998, p. 364). Secondly, organizational citizenship behaviours, which are defined as extra-role behaviours i.e. performing non-mandatory tasks without expecting recognition, are also among the significant variables of OE. Baltacı (2019) emphasizes that displaying only in-role behaviours, which involve prescribed tasks and duties in job descriptions, is not sufficient for the effectiveness of organizations. Similarly, Katz (1964) mentions that when an organization depends on only prescribed behaviours, it becomes a fragile social system (as cited in Baltacı, 2019). Communication could be considered as another essential characteristic. Organizations are consciously coordinated social systems, which are created and directed by human beings (Barnard, 1938; Başaran, 1982; Hogan, 2004; Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Peak & Cohn, 1998); therefore, communication as the only way of interacting at micro/individual and macro/institutional levels is a key component for the survival of organizations (Al-Kindi, 2019) and for the contribution to or detraction from the organizational excellence (Shockley-Zalabak, 2014). Similarly, Farace (1977) underlines that organizations display collective behaviours and outcomes of the individuals through communication. Therefore, effective communication of teachers with colleagues or other units in the institution influences the effectiveness of organizations (Pektaş, 2019). Finally, self-efficacy of teachers who are the significant implementers of successful education is included as another significant characteristic of OE. Friedman and Kass (2002) state that a teacher acts as a leader in the classroom and an employee in the school which results in being part of a group affecting political and social forces and working towards operational goals. In the school, the teacher performs educational duties as an "organizational person" (Whyte, 1956, as cited in Friedman & Kass, 2002, p. 5). Therefore, teacher self-efficacy should embrace the social systems of the classroom and the school and should relate to the stakeholders in the system such as students, colleagues, and management (Friedman & Kass, 2002). As "an organization person" (Friedman & Kass, 2002, p. 5), hence, teachers influence organizational operations and take active roles in them. For the

above-mentioned reasons, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, organizational communication and teacher self-efficacy are some of the fundamental variables in OE.

In the literature, the majority of the studies on OE in Turkey have been conducted at primary or high school levels (Çobanoğlu, 2008; Hallinger & Murphy, 1986; Yılmaz, 2006) with fewer studies in the HE context and none of these studies exclusively investigated OE in SFL context (Arlı, 2011; Beşiktaş, 2009; Çelik, 2017; Kurtulmuş, 2014; Öztürk 2019). As the only study conducted on OE in an SFL, Akpınar Yılmaz (2018) carried out a case study in a non-profit university to examine the perceptions of team leaders towards an organizational system based on teamwork and its impacts on OE and to emphasise the importance of sharing authority and team leaders. Her study revealed that the change in the system raises awareness of effectiveness and distributed leadership increases OE (Akpınar Yılmaz, 2018). Antalyalı (2008) investigated OE in Turkish state universities and revealed that OE in Turkish universities are student-oriented, internal-oriented and academic and external oriented. Also, he showed that the levels of effectiveness in universities differ from each other and the levels of other domains tend to decrease once one of them decreases (Antalyalı, 2008). In another study, Bucak (2005) studied OE in terms of organizational climate in a state university and the results displayed that instructors need to pay attention to their environment and improve communication skills. In another study conducted in 16 universities, organizational behaviours of instructors and their academic effectiveness were compared by means of a survey and a strong correlation was found between them (Aypay, 2006). The study indicates that the absence of OE prevents the quality of education; therefore, OE is a significant area to be studied in the educational context considering its profound impact on the facilitation of learning. In summary, it is seen that the studies mostly deal with effectiveness in primary or high schools and there is a gap in studies regarding the effectiveness of the HE context and particularly the SFL context.

When the international literature is reviewed, fewer studies about OE in HE reveal compared to the number of studies in the Turkish context. Among the international studies examining organizational effectiveness, pioneer research in the field was conducted by Cameron (1978), which examined the OE concept in HE in six New England colleges and presented a criterion comprised of nine dimensions of effectiveness. In another study, Kwan and Walker (2003) examined the respective significance of the OE dimensions, originally

created by Cameron (1978), in HE institutions of Hong Kong and revealed that student-related dimensions are not as significant as employment and teacher satisfaction. Also, Smart (2003) investigated the relationship of the perceptions of community college faculty members towards OE with organizational culture and leadership roles that are displayed by senior officials and revealed a strong relationship. Some other studies at the international level have been conducted to examine the systems in the countries such as the USA, and Africa rather than institutions (Bastedo et al., 2014; Lyons, 1993; Powell et al., 2012; Pineda, 2013; Zoogah et al., 2015). Similar to the studies conducted in Turkey, there is a lack of studies in the English language teaching context in the international literature.

As mentioned above, the studies in Turkish context focus on one or some of the characteristics of OE such as job satisfaction, school climate, organizational environment, organizational commitment, organizational culture, and their relationship to OE. Hence, there is a lack of research on the interaction of leadership, organizational citizenship, teacher self-efficacy, and organizational communication in terms of OE. Also, as the literature review indicated, OE in the context of English language education has not been investigated in the literature. Another point is that, to the best knowledge of the researcher of this study, there have not been any studies on whether organizational communication channels have any significant impacts on OE in the context of the SFL at a non-profit university in Turkey. Similarly, there are not any studies that decode the communication network of the SFL in light of the elements influencing OE. Therefore, there seems to be a need for such a study to be a sample case that examines OE focusing on its elements in depth in SFL of Turkish HE context and revealing the usefulness of a possible communication network in terms of OE.

1.3. Purpose Statement and Research Questions

Schools of foreign languages in Turkish HE context need to improve the quality of education and foster student learning via an effective organizational structure. Acknowledging the significance of OE in the quality of English language education, this study primarily aimed to investigate the perceptions of the staff at an SFL towards OE, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, teacher self-efficacy and organizational communication as well as their relation to each other. Also, the study aimed to reveal the roles of leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours and teacher self-efficacy in OE.

Alongside this aim, the study also focused on the function of organizational communication in the interactions. Moreover, the study aimed to uncover the communication network of the school and the extent to which it relates to the OE with implications for the present communication channels in the SFL under investigation in terms of the capability of the channels and their possible usefulness.

Within these aims, the study sought answers to the following questions:

RQ1. What are the perceptions of the SFL instructors towards OE, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, instructors' perceived self-efficacy, and organizational communication? Are they related?

RQ2. What are the roles of leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours and teachers' perceived self-efficacy in OE?

RQ3. Where does organizational communication stand in the interaction among organizational effectiveness, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours and instructors' perceived self-efficacy?

RQ4. Do organizational communication channels serve the purpose of enhancing OE?

RQ4a. What are the most/least contributing channels of communication? How do (not) they contribute to OE?

RQ4b. What are the facilitators of/barriers to OE with regard to the present communication channels?

RQ5. What are the perceptions of instructors towards organizational communication channels in terms of OE in the SFL?

1.4. Assumptions

The following assumptions were considered in the study:

•   It was assumed that the participants did not have any hesitations in the security of their identities; and,

•   It was assumed that the participants provided sincere answers to the scale and interview questions.

1.5. Limitations

The study was conducted in the SFL of a non-profit university in Turkey. Thus, the sample of the study is comprised of a limited number of participants. Each organization establishes its own structure to fulfil their own organizational aims. Therefore, the results may not reflect the effectiveness of all SFLs in Turkey since organizations determine aims in accordance with their mission and vision. However, the results could provide an insight into the relationship between leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, teacher self-efficacy and organizational communication to OE. Also, if the study was conducted in all departments of the university, the results might have been different. Therefore, the results may not be generalised to the effectiveness of the university.

As for another limitation, qualitative data was obtained from 10 participants out of 50 instructors at the SFL. Therefore, the representation of the data is limited to the answers of 10 participants, three of whom were administrators. Although the qualitative data offers an insight into the communication processes facilitated at the school, the ideas might not be generalized to the the staff of SFL.

In addition, OE was investigated in relation to leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, teacher self-efficacy and organizational communication. Although they are significant indicators of OE, other factors impact OE as well. Thus, the study does not explain the whole concept of OE. To have a better understanding of OE of the SFL, other indicators might be examined in relation to OE.

1.6. Significance of the Study

The significance of the study is fivefold. Firstly, inasmuch as there is an insufficient number of studies focusing on OE in terms of English language education, this study aimed to fill the niche in the literature. English language education serves the purpose of HE, which promotes training globally and interculturally competent individuals to survive in the competitive world defined by increased mobility and communication (Ferguson, 2007, as cited in Jenkins, 2014). Therefore, the significance of the study is obvious considering that ensuring the quality of education depends on OE.

Secondly, the study explored the present situation of OE in the school where the study was conducted and offered possible improvements for OE. Although the SFL is accredited by an independent third-party organization by meeting all the criteria concerning various aspects of the programme such as administrative structure, education-training, and testing and assessment, there was not a research on the interaction of the relevant variables with OE. Also, besides the possible improvements in the school, it aimed to contribute to the quality of the university as there are not any similar studies conducted in the university.

Thirdly, the study was expected to contribute to the literature in the context of HE in Turkey as the studies on OE and its characteristics mainly focus on education at primary or high school levels. Also, to the researcher's knowledge, the number of studies in HE context is very limited, the majority of which have not discussed OE in the context of SFL.

Fourthly, in Turkey, the present studies on OE focus on some characteristics such as school climate, leadership, organizational trust, organizational justice (Aycan, 2020; Baltacı, 2019; Dipaola & Hoy, 2005; Özaslan, 2019; Tekin, 2019). However, there are not any studies focusing on the characteristics of leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, organizational communication, and teacher self-efficacy in a single case. Therefore, this study examined OE from a different perspective and contributed to the literature.

Finally, the detailed analysis of communication channels of the school was expected to display whether the present communication network serves the purpose of effectiveness, to reveal the flaws of the communication system, if any, and to offer useful implications for

organizational communication to increase effectiveness in universities in Turkey and around the world.

1.7. Definitions of Key Terms and Concepts

Organizational Effectiveness: Performance level in achieving organizational aims, the maximum level of goal achievement by using available resources, organized and clear procedures for organizational performance aligned with institutional mission and vision, capability of an organization in accomplishing the objectives and outcomes, the amount of success in ensuring desired future state, sustainability of systems as planned, the level of providing benefits to the target individuals or groups (Altaf, 2011; Başaran, 1996; Başaran, 2004; Daft, 200; Dela Cruz, 2011; Miner, 1988).

Organizational Structure: The official form of coordination and interactions created to combine the duties of individuals and groups in order to achieve organizational aims (Bartol & Martin, 1991).

Leadership: Series of actions to influence an organized group in order to achieve the goals (Rauch & Behling, 1984, as cited in Hughes et al., 2018).

Organizational Citizenship Behaviours: Extra-role behaviours (Katz & Kahn,1978).

Teacher Self-efficacy: Teacher awareness of capability of achieving professional tasks in the process of teaching and performing organizational tasks by admitting being part of the organization in terms of political and social processes (Friedman & Kass, 2002)

Organizational Communication: All forms of communication flow that enables all stakeholders in an organization to express opinions, emotions and information effectively (Vural, 1998).

School of Foreign Languages: A part of university which is responsible for providing preparatory language education to its students of different proficiency levels in

the light of CEFR (Common European Framework for Languages) and GSE (Global Scale of English) both for departmental studies and for effective communication in academic and social life.

1.8. Chapter Summary

The first chapter includes the purposes of the study along with the research questions, the background and the significance of the study. Also, the limitations, assumptions and definitions of specific terms employed in the study are presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature on OE, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, teacher self-efficacy and organizational communication. Also, the studies which are related to the above-mentioned areas conducted abroad and in Turkey are also explained.

2.2. Organizational Effectiveness

OE is an approach to effectiveness in achieving the outcomes that organizations aim to produce (Jacob & Shari, 2013). Although organizations vary numerously in terms of their functions in the society, structure, size, and circumstances they operate, they all aim to be effective and achieve their goals (Jacob & Shari, 2013). Therefore, OE plays a significant role in the proper functioning of organizations. The significance of OE in the educational context is not very different from other organizations. Schools and universities as academic organizations seek effectiveness in goal achievement, as well. Considering the aim of education which is enhancing knowledge and capabilities of individuals to contribute to the improvement of the societies, OE of educational institutions not only enables the proper functioning of schools, but also enhances the societies (Jacob & Shari, 2013). Within this regard, OE needs to be examined from a broader perspective in order to have a better understanding of OE in educational institutions.

2.2.1. Effectiveness as a notion

Studying effectiveness as a notion dates back to the 1930s (Balcı, 2014; Şişman, 2020; Yılmaz, 2018). However, the complexity and difficulty of describing OE persist to this day and there is not a universally agreed-upon definition of OE (Balcı, 2014; Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Hoy & Miskel, 2012; Okafor, 2012; Yıldırım, 2015; Yılmaz, 2018). The definitions mainly focus on the aspects of 'processes', 'members', 'purposes', 'results', 'resources' (Şişman, 2020).

Some definitions emphasise the factor of goal attainment in OE. For instance, Katz and Kahn (1978) focus on inputs and outputs in their definition of OE and define it as the degree of maximizing any energetic return to the organization. They closely relate it to the growth and sustainability of the organizations and ignore environmental factors such as expectations, and competitors (Katz & Kahn, 1978). On the other hand, Hoy and Ferguson (1985) stress the use of material and human resources while attaining organizational goals and advocate the definition made by Georgopoulos and Tannenbaum (1957). According to them, organizations are allocated with certain resources and means and OE is the extent of an organization which is a social system in accomplishing its objectives without depleting means and resources and without placing an undue burden on its members (Georgopoulos & Tannenbaum, 1957; Hoy & Ferguson, 1985). As another example, Yıldırım (2015) considers the products or the services to the customer as the ultimate goals of OE. He explains organizations as purposeful and intentionally structured social enterprises; and OE as the degree of achievements in specific goals (Yıldırım, 2015). In other words, according to him, OE indicates producing a valuable product or service for the customer (Yıldırım, 2015).

Some other definitions, on the other hand, focus on the human factor of OE. Can (2005, as cited in Keskin, 2014) examines effectiveness in three levels: the individual level which focuses on task performances; the group level which focuses on total contributions of group members; and the organizational level which is the total effectiveness of both individuals and the groups. Hogan (2004) includes the human factor from a different aspect and focuses on the individuals and groups working in rival organizations. He (2004) points out competitors as a crucial fact of organizational life and opposes the definition of Katz and Kahn (1978). According to him, the definition of OE should be related to the competitors' performance along with the organization's (Hogan, 2004). Hence, he claims that OE is the degree of how effectively an organization competes with others in five areas which are listed as: 'spotting, recruiting and maintaining talent', 'ensuring motivation of the staff', 'exercising effective leadership', 'having effective strategy' and 'monitoring operations' (Hogan, 2004).

Unlike the above-mentioned definitions, Barnard (1938, as cited in Balcı, 2014) combines both human factor and goal attainment in his definition and explains effectiveness

as the degree of organizational goal achievement, relates effectiveness to efficiency, which he defines as the degree of needs satisfaction of organization members, and emphasises that striking a balance between these two notions is among the main concerns of organizations.

This study adopts an approach similar to Barnard (1938, as cited in Balcı, 2014) for the definition of OE. It advocates that the satisfaction of organization members fosters goal attainment, which is the ultimate purpose of the organizations. Therefore, OE is the degree to which the goals that are set according to the vision of the organization are achieved as a result of the efforts of its members whose satisfaction is the key predictor of their operations.

2.2.2. Models of Organizational Effectiveness

Despite the number of different definitions, researchers agree that it is a critical, multidimensional and interdisciplinary subject and offer definitions from different perspectives (Ayık, 2007; Balcı, 2014; Şişman, 2020; Yılmaz, 2018). In this regard, the lack of a common definition for OE results in the development of several approaches to measure and evaluate effectiveness, as well (Yıldırım, 2015). According to Miner (1988, as cited in Yıldırım, 2015), most of the definitions of OE can be categorized in three groups: the goals, the systems and the strategic-constituencies, which are comprised of the fundamentals of some models. However, the multidimensionality of the subject results in the development of more models.

In the educational context, effectiveness has been studied based on the models of OE (Şişman, 2012), and mainly investigated from the perspectives of educational, social, political, economic, and instructional effectiveness (Cheng, 1997). According to Balcı (2014) and Şişman (2012), the models of school effectiveness are directly related to the models of OE. Therefore, under this section, the leading models which were the Goal Model, the Systems Model, the Internal Process Model, and the Strategic-Constituencies Model are explained and their relevance to educational context is discussed..

The Goal Model

The Goal Model, which represents the traditional approach to effectiveness (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Cheng, 1997, as cited in Balci, 2014), simply refers to OE as the extent to which an organization attains its goals (Balcı, 2014; Robbins, 1990). With its focus on goal achievement, the model emphasizes the ends rather than the means such as winning a football game, student learning, and 80 % success in the proficiency exam (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Robbins, 1990). Also, the Goal Model is considered as the most used criterion of effectiveness since an organization, by nature, is created to accomplish specified goals (Hicks, 1976; Perrow, 1961; Robbins, 1990).

Although goals are defined as the future states that organizations attempt to get into, the concept of organizational goals is not plain and they are comprised of three variants: official, operative, and operational (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985). Official goals include the formal statements regarding the mission of an organization which aim for legitimacy and public support rather than behaviour guidance such as educating students. Operative goals include deliberate intentions of an organization which guide the actual behaviours and tasks rather than official statements. Lastly, operational goals involve more specific purposes which are concrete and measurable for evaluation procedures such as that 60 % of the students will pass the proficiency exam at the end of the year (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985).

Ak (2018) defines effectiveness as the attainment of the goals at the desired level and highlights that not only the organization but also the staff should be sufficient and efficient for the goals to be achieved. Başaran (1992) also stresses the significance of the staff in OE by pointing out that effectiveness can be achieved through a collective and synergy-based cooperation and coordination of all elements of the system. Besides, matching organizational goals with the goals of the staff is highly critical to effectiveness (Peker, 1995). Otherwise, conflict arises between each other and causes a decrease in effectiveness.

Although the model represents the traditional approach, it has provoked severe criticism. One of the criticisms is over who is included in determining an organization's goals (Robbins, 1990). Excluding some of the stakeholders in the decision-making process might result in setting unrealistic and insufficient goals, or some of the decision-makers who

are with the real power and the part of the dominated coalition might manipulate the process and lead to setting fruitless and ineffectual goals. As for another criticism, establishing multiple goals could be incompatible, and inconsistent (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Robbins, 1990). For instance, the goals of "high product quality achievement" and "low unit cost" conflict with each other and one must be given up in order to achieve the other (Robbins, 1990, p. 55). The model is also criticized due to the fact that having multiple goals might cause the loss of consensus, especially when the goals are explained with vague terms which can be interpreted differently by different interest groups (Robbins, 1990). Another criticism involves the fact that the goals set by the administrators predominate and other stakeholders are usually ignored (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985). Although the goals are defined as future statements, some can be set to justify the existing behaviours (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Robbins, 1990). Finally, official goals might not be operative and, therefore, measuring such goals can be challenging, complex, and inaccurate (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985).

In order to measure effectiveness according to the goal model, organizations need to have well-defined ultimate goals which are few enough to be manageable with general consensus (Robbins, 1990). Hoy and Ferguson (1985) also explain significant features of evaluating effectiveness similarly. According to them, the decision-makers of the organization should be guided by definite sets of goals; these goals should be few enough in number, defined clearly; and they should be adopted by all participants (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985). Provided that these conditions are met, OE can be evaluated (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985).

In the context of education, the model can be employed in schools, as well. In this regard, the Goal Model assumes that the schools have clearly established goals which are accepted by all stakeholders, and that the attainment of the stated goals determines the effectiveness of the schools (Cheng, 1997). Therefore, the predictors of school effectiveness involve the objectives in the curriculum which is attributed to academic success and quality of learning and teaching atmosphere (Cheng, 1997). However, the fact that it is often impossible to set goals which are accepted by all stakeholders, to attain multiple goals with limited resources in a short time, and to determine all the goals as measurable limits the usefulness of the model in schools (Cheng, 1997). For instance, parents might be interested in success in examinations, teachers might be concerned with maintaining discipline, or employers focus on the development of work-related skills at the same time. As a result,

enhancing effectiveness might become challenging with numerous goals with finite resources.

The Systems Model

The Systems Model advocates that goal attainment is an important part of evaluating effectiveness rather than being the only measure. In the Goal Model, the focus is on the outputs; yet in the Systems Model, the effectiveness concerns the ability of an organization to receive inputs, use them, convey outputs and maintain stability, as well (Robbins, 1990) because the Systems Model claims it is impossible to define specific goals due to the fact that the demands are dynamic and numerous (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Robbins, 1990). While the Goal Model requires a certain amount of time to check whether the goals are achieved or not, in other words, to measure the effectiveness, it is always measurable due to the emphasis on the maintenance of the system, which does not change in time in the Systems Model (Miner, 1988). For such reasons, The Systems Model was developed in the 1960s as a reaction to over-reliance on goals (Georgopolous & Tannenbaum, 1957; Yuchtman & Seashore, 1967, as cited in Whetten & Cameron, 1984).

As for the survival and the growth of organizations, the operations of an organization must be carried out accurately by taking its environment into account, which represents the measurement of effectiveness. The model advocates that organizations, as social systems, are comprised of complementary sub-parts and OE impairs in case one of the sub-parts operates poorly (Robbins, 1990). Therefore, it is significant for organizations to maintain internal consistency as well as to raise awareness of and to keep successful interactions with the environment (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Balcı, 2014). Organizations should keep successful interaction with the environment, consisting of customers, government agencies, suppliers, and rivals, in order to conduct efficient operations. The environment is crucial to ensure continuous receipt of inputs, flexibility to adopt changes in the environment, efficiency of transforming inputs into outputs, effective internal communication, and the ability to compete with other organizations (Balcı, 2014; Robbins, 1990). Thus, effectiveness depends on how successful the organizations, as systems, function in coping with the problems arising from internal or external environments (Balcı, 2014; Miner, 1988; Robbins, 1990).

The model draws attention to some shortcomings, as well. Critics argue that developing valid and reliable measures for the means such as flexibility to adopt environmental changes can be challenging and open to questions (Robbins, 1990). Continuous receipt of inputs could result in obtaining irrelevant sources that are not connected to organizational outcomes and when acquiring inputs dominates other means, other functions and products could be neglected (Whetten & Cameron, 1984; Hoy & Ferguson, 1985). Another criticism is that the model focuses on the means required to achieve effectiveness rather than the effectiveness itself (Robbins, 1990). From another critical perspective, the Goal Model and the Systems Model are both goal-oriented since the first one focuses on end goals, the latter focuses on means goal and receipt of inputs could be counted as an operative goal (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Robbins, 1990).

The Internal Process Model

This model bears a slight resemblance to The Systems Model in that both models focus on means. However, the Internal Process Model addresses operations of organizations from the aspect of staff (Cameron, 1980; Whetten & Cameron, 1984). The model advocates that the effectiveness of an organization is related to internal characteristics such as the staff integration to the system, absence of internal pressure, smooth internal functioning, trust and goodwill among staff and smooth information flow both horizontally and vertically (Cameron, 1980). Thus, the greater degree of such characteristics an organization displays, the more effective it is.

From the aspect of schools, the model focuses on internal processes as teaching and managing rather than the ends (Balcı, 2014). In other words, how the resources are processed and provided to the students by teachers and administrations is more crucial than the quality of inputs and outputs in order to measure the effectiveness (Şişman, 2012, as cited in Yıldırım, 2015). So, in order to ensure the quality of the outputs in schools, the quality of internal processes such as leadership, decision making, communication, classroom management, learning strategies, social interaction matters besides the quality of inputs (Şişman, 2012). However, observing the correlation between the functions that the school is expected to perform and the processes to perform these functions could be challenging and too complex (Cheng, 1997, as cited by Şişman, 2012). Also, isolating the outside world in

the context of OE by only focusing on internal operations might prevent the attainment of a major objective of the schools, which is meeting the demands of societies. Therefore, the model might not be beneficial for the effectiveness of the schools in a wider aspect.

The Strategic-Constituencies Model

The model, which is a more recent perspective than others, relates effectiveness to the satisfaction of stakeholders and constituencies who support the existence of the organization such as the government, students, parents (Robbins, 1990). From this perspective, the model resembles the Systems Model, which focuses on the environment for survival. However, the Strategic-Constituencies Model considers the success in satisfaction of the environment that is a possible threat to an organization's survival (Robbins, 1990). The model perceives organizations as political arenas consisting of stakeholders with different degrees of power and demands; and assumes that organizational goals are determined and prioritized to serve the interests of groups which are necessary for the survival of the organizations (Robbins, 1990).

In terms of school, an example can be given as that public universities regard acquiring students and, often, ignore possible employers of their graduates because the survival does not depend on whether graduates are employed or not while non-profit universities tend to work on employment of their graduates because their survival, acquiring students to maintain the business, depends on parents who expect the degree from the school to lead to a job (Robbins, 1990). Apart from students, stakeholders of schools include teachers, administrators, official units authorized in education, parents and so on (Şişman, 2012). According to the model, therefore, the effectiveness depends on the above-mentioned stakeholder satisfaction with the implementations (Balcı, 2014). In other words, the schools are effective as long as the expectations of stakeholders are consistent and coherent and the schools can meet these expectations (Cheng, 1997, as cited in Şişman, 2012).

Yet, this view might lead to some ambiguity. Setting goals too high or too low affects the effectiveness and the accuracy of its measurement. If the goals set for the schools are not very high, it will be easy to reach goals, which will ensure stakeholder satisfaction but the goal attainment will become too complex and challenging if the goals are set too high

(Şişman, 2012). Another ambiguity may arise from separating strategic stakeholders from the larger environment as the environment changes constantly and some of the stakeholders who were once critical might turn out to be almost significant (Robbins, 1990). Another problem might occur when there is no consistency in expectations of the stakeholders or stakeholders have contrary expectations, for instance, a group might expect classrooms equipped with the latest technology while another group expects to avoid enormous expenses (Robbins, 1990). In a similar situation, one of the stakeholders may hold the ultimate power and this might result in measuring effectiveness inaccurately based on the group with the major power (Şişman, 2012). Such situations might cause conflicts in setting the goals for the schools, prioritizing limited goals such as the technology use in classrooms, or economising, which prevents the attainment of other goals. Also, effectiveness might be limited to only some particular areas such as school facilities, and success in the exams.

As mentioned above, the multidimensionality of OE definitions results in the development of several models each of which puts the primary focus on and relates effectiveness to a particular area. According to the Goal Model, effectiveness is directly related to the attainment of the goals (Balcı, 2014; Robbins, 1990). In other words, the ends rather than the means are prioritized (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Robbins, 1990), and the degree to which the organization fulfils its goals refers to the level of effectiveness (Balcı, 2014; Robbins, 1990). On the other hand, the Systems Model emphasises that the attainment of the goals is only a part of effectiveness. The survival and the effectiveness of organizations depend on maintaining internal operations consistently aligned with the environment. Therefore, the model focuses on the means in order to achieve the ends (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Robbins, 1990) and interactions with the environment (Hot & Ferguson, 1985; Balcı, 2014). Similarly, the Internal Process Model addresses the effectiveness from the aspect of means. Yet, the model focuses on internal operations in terms of the staff and advocates that the extent of effectiveness depends on internal characteristics such as wellbeing of the staff, the direction of the information flow, staff involvement in the system (Cameron, 1980). As for the last model, explained above, the Strategic-Constituencies Model explains effectiveness as the satisfaction of the stakeholders who are vital for the existence of the organizations (Robbins, 1990). Although the model shows similarities with the Systems Model with its focus on the environment for the survival, the goals are prioritized to serve only certain stakeholders who have the highest role in survival (Robbins, 1990). Despite the

differences, the models benefit the organizations to grow and survive based on their focus and to ensure effectiveness. Similar to organizations, the effectiveness of schools is, also, directly related to the models of OE (Balcı, 2011; Şişman, 2012).

Considering the impacts of the models on school effectiveness and the scope of this current study which is investigating the effectiveness of the SFL by advocating that the satisfaction of organization members, who are among the stakeholders in a system, fosters goal attainment, which is the ultimate purpose of the organizations, detailed descriptions are provided above and acknowledged as significant to the study.

2.2.3. School Effectiveness

Another concept that is closely related to OE is school effectiveness. Similar to organizations, school effectiveness, a term that could be used interchangeably with OE, has been examined and defined from different aspects (Balcı, 2014; Şişman, 2012). However, from the widest aspect, school effectiveness is all the processes that are continuous, integrated, and organized to determine and ensure the quality of instructional, social, and administrative operations (Bers, 2011). Hoy and Miskel (2012) stress that effectiveness derives from indicators of inputs, transformation, and outputs, which in nature involves planning, implementing and evaluating all services offered by the schools (Bers, 2011). Inputs refer to fiscal and abstract environmental resources such as books, libraries, instructional technology, educational policies, and, political strategies; transformations refer to internal processes such as curriculum, the motivation level of students, and quality of instruction; and outputs refer to goals (Hoy & Miskel, 2012). At some point, each variable of inputs, transformation, and output is used as an indicator of effectiveness (Hoy & Miskel, 2012). Therefore, a specific variable stands out among others in definitions although they include several aspects. The main aspects included in definitions, therefore the focus points for measuring effectiveness, are:

- goal attainment,
- stakeholders,
- internal processes,

- environment (Balcı, 2014; Başaran, 1996; Helvacı & Aydoğan, 2011; Hoy & Miskel, 2012; Miskel et al., 1979; Özdemir, 2000; Şişman, 2012; Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000; Yıldırım, 2015).

As for goal attainment, Scheerens (2000) relates effectiveness to the ultimate goal for schools: success. She defines school effectiveness as the performance of a school that is an organization and the performance as the output which is the total success of students at the end of an academic year (Scheerens, 2000). Mortimore (1998, as cited in Hoy & Miskel, 2012) explains that schools are effective when the students score higher on tests than they were expected at entry, which shows that the quantitative change in academic achievement level represents effectiveness of a school. Likewise, Ayuk and Jacobs (2018) state that the assessment of learning outcomes is the main indicator of effectiveness in the context of HE. Besides success, behavioural changes of students are expected from schools, as well. According to Döş (2013), the main goal of the schools is to ensure behaviour change in accordance with the objectives so the schools are effective to the degree they achieve behaviour change at an expected level. Similarly, Brookover (1979) explains school effectiveness as the success in developing expected skills of all students rather than a few. Hence, achievement of the goals such as behaviour change and success reflects the effectiveness of the schools. Şişman and Turan (2005), similarly, describe effective schools as institutions which fully fulfil the goals and the functions expected of them, ensure the improvement of students in all aspects, and meet the expectations of all stakeholders by providing an appropriate environment.

Secondly, school effectiveness is also related to the environment and the satisfaction of stakeholders (Hoy & Miskel, 2012; Şişman & Turan, 2005; Yıldırım, 2015). Yıldırım (2015), Şişman and Turan (2005) state that effectiveness can be claimed when the behaviour changes of the students at the end of academic years satisfy all stakeholders. Similarly, Middaugh (2010) emphasises attaining the goals of stakeholders and defines school effectiveness, including higher education institutions, as the ability to compete for its missions whose focus is the students and staff. Effective schools that prioritize the improvement and the satisfaction of all stakeholders are required to provide an optimum environment where all stakeholders are united for the students to be able to improve their cognitive, psychomotor, social, and aesthetic skills (Helvacı & Aydoğan, 2011; Klopf, 1982;

Özdemir, 2000). However, according to Hoy and Miskel (2012), ensuring stakeholder satisfaction might cause challenges for administrations for three reasons. Firstly, different stakeholders might expect different outcomes; secondly, the definition of school effectiveness constantly changes due to the fact that the preferences of the stakeholders change in order to reflect social changes, which results in the change in effectiveness target; and, finally, stakeholders might have conflicting effectiveness demands (Hoy & Miskel, 2012). Similarly, Ayuk and Jacobs (2018) claim that effectiveness cannot be determined in a single way because of multiple stakeholders in HE who define effectiveness with different concepts; therefore, diverse views should be acknowledged.

Thirdly, internal processes which include components such as school structure, culture, climate, power, politics, motivation working together in harmony to attain goals determine school effectiveness by transforming the inputs, and outputs (Hoy & Miskel, 2012). Therefore, maximizing school effectiveness depends on the quality, quantity, and consistency of the internal processes (Hoy & Miskel, 2012). Yuchtman and Seashore (1967), likewise, highlight that the harmony in internal processes improves the school's ability to allocate required resources from the environment and improve its effectiveness (Hoy & Miskel, 2012). According to Baştepe (2009), a key indicator of effective schools is efficient internal processes that provide good education. Within this purpose, target behaviour and skills are improved by means of a pre-planned programme in a well-designed environment by means of internal processes (Baştepe, 2009). Oral (2005) also stresses the importance of internal processes by claiming that effective schools provide necessary opportunities to ensure student learning, create a school climate that helps student improvement, recognize the importance of professional development and provide in-service training, adopt distributed leadership style and ensure the participation of all stakeholders. In their study, Miskel et al. (1979) reveal that effective schools are characterized by more participatory organizational processes and less centralized decision-making structures by the teachers. In the context of HE, internal processes are defined as the characteristics of effectiveness, as well.

Finally, regarding environment, definitions of school effectiveness are not de facto and they do not apply to all schools. Cheng (1996) defines schools as organizations with limited resources, and particular demands in changing environments (as cited in Balcı,

2014). In other words, indicators of effectiveness are distinct and dynamic as each school performs unique functions for different aims (Balcı, 2014). Therefore, school effectiveness cannot be prescribed but definitions can provide insight. In this regard, each educational institution is to research effectiveness in terms of its own impact factors. Apart from the guidance of school effectiveness definitions, the characteristics of effective schools can also shed light on the determination of the effectiveness of schools.

Characteristics of Effective Schools

Studies related to determine the characteristics of effective schools vary alike the definitions of school effectiveness as they are investigated from different aspects (Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Coleman et al., 1966; Edmons, 1979; Helvacı & Aydoğan, 2011; Kondakçı & Sivri, 2014; Levine & Stark, 1982; Özdemir, 2000; Weber, 1971). However, there have been fewer studies of effectiveness in the context of HE compared to the other levels of schools in the literature.

Regarding the research on the effectiveness of primary schools, elements such as strong leadership, high expectations, supportive school atmosphere, frequent monitoring of implementations, well-defined goals, sense of order have been emphasised in the literature (Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Cotton, 2020; Purkey & Smith, 1983; Rutter, 1979, as cited in Atmaca, 2021). Doran (2004) reviewed the literature, realized that most characteristics match each other, and grouped the elements of effective schools under some areas to simplify the lists based on the literature (Doran, 2004). According to the researcher, the characteristics of effective schools can be grouped as strong leadership, setting high expectations, having order and discipline, focusing on educational mission, monitoring student progress, supportive school climate, maximizing the time for learning, involving the community, promoting the professional development of the staff, students' acquisition of basic skills, involving teachers in decision-making, recruitment of qualified teachers (Doran, 2004).

In HE context, effectiveness is investigated based on similar indicators, as well. Most of the research, however, focuses on the fulfilment of goals according to the mission and vision of the institutions (Alfred et al., 2007; Ayuk & Jacobs, 2018; Boehmer, 2006; Leimer, 2011) and the satisfaction of stakeholders, including the students (Alfred et al., 2007; Ashraf

& Kadir, 2012; Ayuk & Jacobs, 2018). One of the pioneer studies was carried out by Cameron (1978), which revealed that OE in HE is multidimensional and is comprised of multiple domains that might differ in levels and institutions (Cameron, 1978). For instance, publishing journals might indicate high effectiveness for the staff but low effectiveness for the time allocated to students (Cameron, 1978). Regarding his study, the characteristics of effective HE institutions can be grouped into three areas: student-related issues, which involve their academic satisfaction as well as academic, personal and career development, staff-related issues, which involve job satisfaction and professional development, and organizational issues, which involve acquiring recourses, organizational health, and interactions with the external environment (Cameron, 1978).

Based on the list of Cameron (1978), Lysons (1990) also studied the elements of OE in the context of Australian HE, developed the dimensions of Cameron (1978) by including organizational climate, and listed the characteristics as followed:

• "leader facilitation and support": encouraging and supportive leadership that emphasises motivation, open communication, satisfaction of staff;

• "professional development and quality of academic staff": promoting research, advanced courses, academic events, and academic reputation;

• "student personal development": fostering autonomy, promoting the identification of personal goals, being critical;

• "leader goal-directed orientation": setting clear goals, being future-oriented, influencing other stakeholders, being decisive for goal attainment;

• "immediate work-group cooperation, friendliness and trust";

• "ability to attract quality students": acquiring successful students, academic improvements of graduates;

• "top-level work-group cooperation, friendliness and trust"; and,

• "ability to acquire extra financial resources": receiving extra funding from the stakeholders such as public and other sectors by focusing on responding their needs (Lysons, 1990, p. 291).

Pounder (1999) carried out a quantitative study to investigate OE in HE institutions and to find out characteristics of effective performance in HE institutions in Hong Kong. As a result, he revealed four core dimensions of OE for HE institutions: "information management–communication", "planning–goal setting", "productivity–efficiency" and "cohesion" (p. 392). The first dimension refers to extent of behaviour performance that shows the ability of the staff to transmit the information that is required for the job accurately and on time, the second dimension involves the ability of setting goals and making future plans systematically, the third one refers to the ratio between the amount of resource use and the efficiency of the product, and the last one includes the morale, commitment of the staff, and the quality of relationships (Pounder, 1999). The study indicates that the more these dimensions are achieved, the more effective the institution becomes (Pounder, 1999).

Overall, characteristics of effective educational organizations vary due to the context-dependency, the multidimensionality of effectiveness and the perceptions of the researchers. Acknowledging that, this current study aims to contribute to the literature by investigating OE in the SFL of a non-profit university in Turkey in terms of leadership, communication, citizenship behaviours of the teaching staff, and self-efficacy beliefs of the instructors in terms of school context.

2.2.4. Studies Related to School Effectiveness

As mentioned above, despite the similarities, slight differences in characteristics of effective schools are results of the fact that schools are educational organizations which are comprised of multiple factors. Therefore, researchers examine school effectiveness from different perspectives. Also, there is a greater number of studies carried out in the context of primary, secondary and high schools compared to the studies at HE level (Balcı, 1993; Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Coleman et al., 1966; Çobanoğlu, 2008; Hallinger & Murphy, 1986; Horng et al., 2010; Saleem et al., 2012; Yılmaz, 2006).

Regarding the context of primary, secondary and high schools, the conducted studies investigated school effectiveness mainly from two perspectives: the external environment (Coleman et al., 1966; Department of Education and Science, 1967, as cited in Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000; Zigarelli, 1996) and school factors (Balcı, 1993; Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Hallinger & Murphy, 1986; Mortimore et al., 1988; Oral, 2005; Parker, 2015; Şişman, 1996, Yıldırım et al., 2017). In terms of the external environment, the researchers studied the socio-economic status (Coleman et al., 1966; Hallinger & Murphy, 1986; Department of Education and Science, 1967, as cited in Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000; Zigarelli, 1996) and parent related issues such as involvement of parents, their background (Edmonds, 1979; Girmen, 2001; Oral, 2005) as significant factors of school effectiveness. About the relevant studies regarding school factors, researchers revealed strong leadership (Edmonds, 1979; Girmen, 2001; Mortimore et al., 1988, as cited in Reynolds & Teddlie, 2003; Oral, 2005; Parker, 2015; Şişman, 1996), orderly and permissive school culture (Balcı, 1993; Girmen, 2001; Oral, 2005; Parker, 2015; Şişman, 1996), well-functioning communication (Mortimore et al., 1988, as cited in Reynolds & Teddlie, 2003; Yıldırım et al., 2017; Zigarelli, 1996), job satisfaction (Horng et al., 2010, Zigarelli, 1996), effective instructional practices (Edmonds, 1979; Helvacı & Erdoğan, 2011; Mortimore et al., 1988, as cited in Reynolds & Teddlie, 2003; Şişman, 1996), and teacher self-efficacy (Düzgünoğlu, 2019; Uğurlu et al., 2018; Yüner & Özdemir, 2020) as indicators of school effectiveness.

For instance, Mortimore et al. (1988) followed the academic and social progress of 2000 students from 50 randomly chosen London primary schools for four years in order to identify characteristics of effective schools and listed indicators as:

• Purposeful leadership of the staff by the principal: Principals understood the needs of the teachers, consulted and guided them in decision-making processes, were actively involved in school and shared power with the staff instead of having total control over them;

• Teacher involvement: Teachers actively took part in decision-making processes regarding curriculum;

• Consistency among teachers: The continuity of the staff and consistent teaching had a positive effect on students;

• Structured sessions: Students performed better when the days were organized with pre-planned tasks with some freedom given to them;

• Challenging teaching: Student success increased when the teachers had high expectations and were encouraging;

• Maximum communication among teachers and students: Students performed better when they could communicate with the teacher on the content of their responsibilities at school;

• Record-keeping: Monitoring student progress was responsibility of both teachers and the principals; and

• Positive climate: The atmosphere was pleasant in effective schools (as cited in Reynolds & Teddlie, 2003).

As mentioned before, in comparison to school effectiveness studies in primary and high schools, studies carried out at universities are significantly fewer in the literature. Also, the majority of the studies conducted in HE context investigated leadership in terms of OE (Antalyalı, 2008; Bucak, 2002; Cameron & Smart, 1998; Yılmaz, 2018).

Cameron and Smart (1998) conducted a study to investigate whether financial decline in required resources in the institutions of the USA affected OE and whether the decline resulted in dysfunctional organizational attributes. The results revealed that institutions with financial decline tended to perform as effectively as the institutions with abundant resources; however, the institutions that failed to manage the problems related to decline performed less effectively than the institutions that manage such conditions (Cameron & Smart, 1998). The study also revealed that in the institutions whose OE was impaired the most suffered from poor leadership with central decision-making policies and,

the measures taken by the administrators to overcome the problems were related more to the organization's effectiveness than the problems occurred (Cameron & Smart, 1998).

In another study emphasising leadership regarding OE, Bucak (2002) investigated OE in the faculty of education at Abant İzzet Baysal University in terms of organizational climate and leadership. The results revealed that the instructors were not satisfied with superior support, the level of democracy, the problem-solving skills of superiors, respect towards instructors, and fair environment and that the problematic relationship between the superiors and the subordinates could prevent OE (Bucak, 2002).

As for the only relevant study conducted in the context of SFL, Yılmaz (2018) investigated the perceptions of team leaders towards teamwork and its impacts on effectiveness in an SFL in Turkey. According to the results, the school was perceived as effective since all the stakeholders are involved in decision-making processes in democratic manner, feedback is taken into account by the administration, all decisions taken are aligned with the mission of the school, the school is well-organized, motivating, student-centred and goal-oriented (Yılmaz, 2018).

As indicated in the literature, each study focuses on OE in terms of one or two factors; however, the effectiveness of educational organizations depends on many indicators. Therefore, the study aims to fill the gap in the literature by investigating OE from a broader perspective by examining the roles of leadership, citizenship behaviours, teacher self-efficacy and organizational communication in OE. Furthermore, the studies carried out in the context of HE mostly relates OE to leadership. In this regard, the study aims to shed light on the effectiveness of HE with its particular focus on SFLs.

2.3. Leadership

Leadership, a word from everyday language, was included in the jargon of organizational studies without being accurately defined (Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Yukl, 2013). As a consequence, the number of definitions are as many as the scholars engaged in leadership studies (Hoy & Miskel, 2010, Luthans, 2011). Bennis (1959) explains the situation as "always, it seems, the concept of leadership eludes us or turns up in another form

to taunt us again with its slipperiness and complexity. So we have invented an endless proliferation of terms to deal with it . . . and still the concept is not sufficiently defined" (Bennis, 1959, p. 529, as cited in Yukl, 2013).

Similarly, Şişman (2011) states that leadership is a concept that can be analysed and defined in different ways when approached and viewed from different perspectives. Accordingly, he explains that leadership can be discussed from psychological, sociological, political, military, philosophical and historical perspectives as well as in terms of business and management science (Şişman, 2011). Different conceptions of leadership result from the fact that researchers investigate different phenomena of leadership and interpret the results in a distinct way (Yukl, 2013).

Nevertheless, many definitions share the assumption that leadership includes a social influence process in which a person wields intentional influence over others to initiate activities and relationships in an organization (Hoy & Miskel, 2010). Rauch and Behling (1984) stress influence in their definition by stating that leadership is the operations of influencing the activities of an organization toward goal attainment. Northouse (2010), similarly, stresses the process of influence along with common goals in the definition of leadership. Yukl (2013), also, emphasises the influence process as a common component of definitions by stating that the influence, however, differs in some respects such as who wields the influence, the aim of the influence, how it is wielded, and the outcome of it.

Another shared assumption that is observed in the definitions is goal attainment and goal orientation. Hemphill and Coons (1957) define leadership as individual behaviours that direct group activities toward a shared goal (as cited in Yukl, 2013). For Erdoğan (2012), leadership can be defined as achieving the goals of an organization or initiating a new structure and procedure to change these goals. According to Şişman (2018), leadership is the power of influencing and mobilizing other people towards the goals of the organization. And Jacobs and Jaques (1990) explain leadership as the process of assigning purpose to collective effort and attaining goals willingly. Similarly, Zel (2001) illustrates it as the knowledge and abilities to bring people together around identified goals and to prepare them to attain these goals.

Other definitions involve various aspects such as interaction, power, traits, role relationships, etc. (Porter et al., 1975, as cited in Luthans, 2011). As an example, Bass and Bass (2008) point out interaction with their definition that leadership is the interaction of two or more members of a group, which usually involves structuring or restructuring a situation to be realized in line with the expectations and perceptions of the members of a group. Kotter (2001) approaches leadership as behaviours that aim to foster a vision towards meeting the needs of organizational members, realizing their emotions and vision. According to Sucu (2016), leadership is not to give orders to its employees but to bring the employees together by making innovations and changes within the organization, to pay attention to professional development and to act by influencing them. Fullan (2007) and Waters (2014) claim that leadership involves guiding participants to start, implement and institutionalize changes in an organizational framework (as cited in Rathert & Kırkgöz, 2017).

Similar to the leadership definitions in the literature, this study defines leadership as the process of systematically influencing subordinates to attain the organizational goals aligned with the vision of the organization by establishing good relationships, rescpecting all members of the organization, fostering autonomy, and encouraging the participation in the governance of the organization.

2.3.1. Leadership Theories

Throughout time, there have been distinct theories trying to define and depict ideal leaders based on their features and functions. These theories are based on nature or nurture dichotomy in order to explain leadership effectiveness by mostly emphasising one category over the other and limiting the focus on one type of features that are traits, behaviour or power (Yukl, 2013).

Each theory loses popularity when the flaws are detected by other researchers who develop another theory. Historically, in the 1940s, the Great Person approach became popular and was associated with the Trait Theory of leadership, which advocated leaders were born with unique skills and features (Luhans, 2011). Later, researchers who were dissatisfied with traits focused on behaviours of leaders and how they affected the followers

(Luthans, 2011). The fact that both theories considered followers as passive, non-existing elements switched the researchers from traits and behaviours to situations (Avolio, 1999 as cited in Luthans, 2011). According to Situation Theory, broadly, people with particular qualities and traits depending on the situations come up as leaders (Luthans, 2011). Below, the major leadership theories are explained in detail.

Trait Theory

The theory was dominant in leadership research from the 1930s to the 1950s (Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Yukl, 2013). That some people are born with leadership characteristics which are not possessed by others and are natural leaders is the fundamental assumption of the approach (Bass & Bass, 2008; Gedikoğlu, 2015; Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Şişman, 2018; Yukl, 2013). Within this idea, there have been many studies conducted to define unique attributes of leaders such as skills, personality, values, and motives (Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Luthans, 2011; Yukl, 2013). Stodgill (1948, as cited in Hoy & Miskel, 2010) reviewed 124 studies on leadership traits and classified the traits into categories of capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation and status. According to his classification, the traits under each category involve:

- Capacity: uniqueness, intelligence, readiness, verbal ability, judgement;

- Achievement: athletic success, knowledge, education;

- Responsibility: accuracy, initiative, endurance, self-confidence, demand to excel;

- Participation: action, sociability, collaboration, flexibility;

- Status: socioeconomic situation, reputation (Stodgill, 1948, as cited in Hoy & Miskel, 2010).

After the study of Stogdill (1948), industrial psychologists became concerned with the subject and focused on leadership traits in terms of leader effectiveness instead of the

difference between leaders and non-leaders (Hoy & Miskel, 2010). Hence, trait assumption continued to be searched in terms of that particular traits increase the likelihood of more effective leadership (Yukl, 2002). In another study of his, Stogdill (1981) reviewed other 163 studies and concluded that characteristics of effective leaders as: demand for responsibility and task accomplishment, ability and endurance for goal inquiry, encourage in problem-solving, self-confidence, willingness to face results of decisions, eagerness to assimilate interpersonal stress, ability to influence others, capacity to build purpose-based interaction (as cited in Hoy & Miskel, 2010). Similarly, Immegart (1988) revealed commonly associated traits of leaders as intelligence, self-confidence, high energy, and dominance (as cited in Hoy & Miskel, 2010).

However, the theory of defining unique features of leaders failed and caused disappointment since it did not guarantee success (Amanchukwu et al., 2015; Luthans, 2011; Yukl, 2013). One reason for the failure was that the theory neglected social relationships of the leaders and the needs of the employees (Gedikoğlu, 2015). Another reason for failure was that the studies ignored other variables by only focusing on the traits (Yukl, 2013). Also, the studies did not involve explanatory processes but just identified the characteristics (Yukl, 2013). Additionally, among other reasons, the traits were hard to measure; how to measure loyalty, honesty, and integrity did not have a clear answer (Bolden et al., 2003).

Behaviour Theory

The disappointment in Trait Theory directed researchers to look for other theories (Atmaca, 2021; Çakır, 2021; Yukl, 2013). Hence, in the 1950s, researchers became interested in what leaders actually did on the job instead of their characteristics (Sığrı, 2011; Sucu, 2016; Şişman, 2018; Yukl, 2013). Leaders were studied in terms of patterns of activities, responsibilities and operations by means of observations, descriptive questionnaires, and interviews (Yukl, 2013). Besides their daily operations, leadership effectiveness was also examined based on dealing with demands, overcoming conflicts, and resolving role constraints (Yukl, 2013).

Behaviour Theory advocates that leaders are made, not born (Yukl, 1989, as cited in Atmaca, 2021). As a result, individuals can be taught to become leaders with proper training

led by the theory which explains the relationship between the behaviours of leaders and leadership effectiveness (Arslan, 2007; Yukl, 1989, as cited in Atmaca, 2021). The studies of Ohio State University LBDQ (Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire) Studies, University of Michigan Study, Theory X and Theory Y Managers, McGregor (1960) and, Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid (Blake & Mouton, 1964) are the most well-known studies of Behaviour Theory (Bolden et al., 2003; Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Luthans, 2011; Sucu, 2016).

Ohio State University LBDQ studies were carried out to study leadership from a wider aspect due to the assumption that the definitions of leadership were mostly used as a synonym for good leadership (Judge et al., 2004, as cited in Atmaca, 2021; Luthans, 2011). The results of the studies displayed that there were two dimensions of leadership behaviours: initiating structure and consideration (Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Luthans, 2011; Yukl, 1989). Initiating structures referred to performance of leaders in the operations of tasks while consideration referred to interaction between leaders and subordinates (Fleishman, 1953, as cited in Atmaca, 2021). The studies also revealed that:

• integrating both initiating structure and consideration resulted in being most effective leaders;

• leader behaviour dimensions were evaluated by superiors and subordinates oppositely; superiors were concerned with initiating behaviours while subordinates emphasised consideration;

• how leaders described themselves and how subordinates described leaders were slightly correlated (Halpin, 1966, as cited in Hoy & Miskel, 2010).

At around the same time as Ohio State studies, leadership was researched at the University of Michigan (Luthans, 2011; Zel, 2001). The studies aimed to identify leadership behaviours that support productivity and foster employee satisfaction (Gezici, 2007, as cited in Sucu, 2016). The results displayed that leadership behaviours involved a spectrum that ranged from employee satisfaction (employee-oriented) to productivity (job-oriented) (Arslan, 2007, as cited in Sucu, 2016). Also, the studies revealed that staff who were led by

employee-oriented leaders were more productive than the other group, which led employee-centered leadership to become a key element for the traditional human relations approach to leadership (Luthans, 2011).

As for another cornerstone study, in his thesis, McGregor (1960) claims that leaders tend to shape their behaviours towards subordinates in accordance with the assumptions that are grouped in two distinct dimensions: Theory X and Theory Y (Robbins, 1990). While Theory X is comprised of basically negative assumptions such as subordinates inherently dislike their work and attempt to avoid working if possible, avoid taking responsibilities, display little ambition at work and place security above all other components related to work, Theory X involves positive assumptions such as subordinates seek and accept responsibility when proper conditions are set, they are able to make good decisions, they exercise self-direction and self-control when they are committed to achieving goals (Bolden et al., 2003; Robbins, 1990). Accordingly, leadership which accepts assumptions of Theory X favours an authoritarian, firm, reward-punishment leading style in order to fulfil organizational objectives (Atmaca, 2021) while leadership advocating assumptions of Theory Y provides an enlightened, humanistic environment in which staff needs are important, individual goals align with organizational goals, cooperation between supervisors and subordinates is emphasised and staff motivation is highly regarded (Atmaca, 2021; Bolden et al., 2003; Luthans, 2011).

Finally, in Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid, Blake and Mouton (1964, as cited in Gedikoğlu, 2015) identified two types of leadership behaviours after conducting questionnaires with industrial, military, and educational organizations. According to their hypothesis, leadership behaviours include concern for production and concern for people (Hoy & Miskel, 2010). Depending on their concerns, the leaders adopt a management style among five categories: "impoverished management", "country club management", "produce-or-perish management", "team management" and "middle-of-the-road management" (Blake & McCanse, 1991, p. 29). 'Impoverished management' includes behaviours in which leaders put slight emphasis on staff and work while 'team management' includes ideal behaviours in which leaders pay maximum effort for interaction and staff performance in order to attain organizational goals and try to enhance organizational and staff development (Gedikoğlu, 2015). On the other hand, 'country club management'

includes behaviours in which leaders pay attention to staff and behave friendly while paying little attention to production whereas 'produce-or-perish management' involves the opposite behaviours and emphasises production and performance while neglecting interaction (Gedikoğlu, 2015). Finally, 'middle-of-the-road management' involves behaviours in which the leaders pay equal attention to staff and production, they consider maintaining staff and production sufficient instead of focusing on better (Gediokğlu, 2015).

Situational / Contingency Theory

When the other theories failed to explain the characteristics and behaviours of leadership (Gedikoğlu, 2015; Luthans, 2011; Sığrı, 2011; Şişman, 2018), situational theorists advocated that different leadership behaviours might emerge in different times and places (Amanchukwu et al., 2015; Şişman, 2018; Yukl, 1989, as cited in Atmaca, 2021). In this regard, they started to investigate situational or contextual variables such as the characteristics of subordinates, organization type, the nature of the work, and the environment, which have impacts on leadership traits, behaviours, and roles (Campbell et al., 1970, as cited in Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Luthans, 2011; Yukl, 2013).

Within this perspective, Fiedler (1967) developed the theory, Contingency Model, that relates leadership to situations by claiming that there is not a single way to lead and the situations shape the leadership styles (Bolden et al., 2003; Hoy & Miskel, 2010). Therefore, the solution to a managerial problem depends on the managerial situation (Bolden et al., 2003; Gedikoğlu, 2015). For instance, a leader with a flexible and participative style might work effectively in a dynamic environment and fail in a highly routine environment with repetitive tasks (Bolden et al., 2003). Hence, OE depends on the match between leader attributes that reflect the motivational structure and situational control of leader, which are the two elements in the model (Fiedler, 1978). Accordingly, the first element, the motivational structure, determines what motivates leaders in interpersonal situations (Fiedler, 1978; Hoy & Miskel, 2010), in other words, whether the leader is task-motivated or relationship-motivated (Fiedler, 1978). On the other hand, the second element, situational control, determines the degree of control and influence that leaders have to perform operations, achieve desired goals and implement decisions (Fiedler, 1978). Situational control is determined by three factors: leader-member relations, which is the degree to which

a leader is accepted and appreciated by subordinates (Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Luthans, 2011), task structure which is the degree to which the task has detailed blueprint, stated methods (Fiedler, 1978; Hoy & Miskel, 2010), and position power which is the power of giving rewards and punishment granted to the leader by the organization in order for task completion (Fiedler, 1978). That the leader has a highly structured task, the support of co-workers and high position power implies a high-control situation while the opposite implies a low-control situation, of which the midpoint implies a moderate-situation (Fiedler, 1978)

Unlike Fiedler's theory, which claims that different situations lead to particular styles, Path-Goal Theory advocates that the same leader can use different leadership styles in different situations (Luthans, 2011). Accordingly, it advocates that leaders can increase the performance of the subordinates by improving the motivation of subordinates and affecting their perceptions towards the possible results of different levels of effort (Yukl, 2013). Accordingly, the primary role of leaders is to modify perceptions of subordinates by employing one of the four leadership styles contingent on the situational circumstances: directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented (Luthans, 2011). Directive leadership involves behaviours of informing subordinates on expectations, arranging schedules, establishing regulations and procedures while supportive leadership involves positive interactions, showing concerns for the needs and wellbeing of the subordinates, and maintaining open communication (Atmaca, 2021; Hughes et al., 2019). On the other hand, participative leadership includes behaviours of involving subordinates in decision-making processes; and achievement-oriented leadership consists behaviours of setting high goals, enhancing performance and expecting the highest performance to attain goals (Atmaca, 2021; Hughes et al., 2019).

SFLs are large organizaitons with complex organizaitonal structures and administrators are responsible for the proper functioning of the operations within the school and among the university. Therefore, in order for the administrators to be effective leaders, they should become role-models for the staff by exerting appropriate behaviours in particular situations, which are intented for the attainment of the goals, provide particapatory atmosphere by setting goals aligned with the mission and vision of the university, having high expectations from the staff, supporting them professionally, encouraging the staff to have a say in the operations and forming good relationships. Within this respect, the above-

mentioned theories will, undoubtfully, shed light on the leadership practices of the SFL administrators in terms of OE.

2.3.2. Leadership Styles

Since the last quarter of the 20th century, leadership styles have been developed due to the advancements and changes in societies. The purpose of ensuring organizational survival and effectiveness in the global world has resulted in styles such as charismatic leadership, transformational leadership, instructional leadership, authentic leadership, and distributed leadership to advance. Therefore, it would be meaningful to turn to these styles and explain them.

Charismatic Leadership

Although charismatic leadership is attributed to the old definition of leadership which is the particular capabilities of a person that profoundly influence followers, House (1977) expanded the concept into a modern version. In accordance with his analysis of religious and political leaders, he states that charismatic leaders, who express self-confidence and confidence in subordinates, have high expectations of associates and an ideological vision (House, 1977; Luthans, 2011). Followers of charismatic leaders tend to trust that leaders' beliefs are correct and that they are similar to their beliefs, to obey the leader unquestionably, and to emotionally involve in the high goals determined by the leaders (House, 1977). According to Weber (1989), the reason charismatic leaders have an enormous impact on followers is that they identify leaders as extraordinarily gifted resulting from the interaction of leader behaviours, personal attributes of the leader and the followers, and certain situational factors (House, 1977). Charismatic leaders are differentiated from others for having personal attributes of dominance, self-confidence, capability to influence, and ability of persuasion and they employ these attributes with behaviours of expressing goals, role modelling, setting confidence and high expectations for followers, building personal image, motivating followers (House, 1977). The responses of followers to these leader attributes and behaviours result in the effective performance of followers (House, 1977).

Transformational Leadership

As implied in the name, transformational leadership indicates a style in which empowerment of the staff is prioritised in leading which is accomplished by building trust, admiration, faith in and respect for the leaders and motivating the followers to perform more excellently than they are expected to (Yukl, 2013). In this regard, transformational leaders show four types of behaviours: idealized influence, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration (Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Luthans, 2011; Yukl, 2013). Idealized influence aims to improve identification with the leader by becoming role models, building respect in followers, instilling pride, and making self-sacrifices, which grant basis for radical changes within the organization (Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Luthans, 2011; Yukl, 2013). Inspiration aims to improve followers' vision of organizational operations and goals. Within this aim, leaders motivate followers by displaying an appealing future, stressing ambitious goals, developing an idealised vision for the organization and clearly explaining the possibility of goal attainment (Hoy & Miskel, 2010). Intellectual stimulation fosters innovativeness and creativity by questioning old operations, and assumptions from a different aspect (Hoy & Miskel, 2010). Lastly, individual consideration refers to paying attention to the personal needs of the followers, providing support, and coaching individuals to grow and achieve (Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Luthans, 2011; Yukl, 2013).

All in all, transformational leaders take responsibility for organizational goals and empower followers to attain these goals (Yukl, 2013, as cited in Hoy & Miskel, 2010). In doing so, they are expected to emphasise the need for change, develop visions, demonstrate commitment to the visions, focus on long-term objectives, inspire followers to surpass interests to attain goals, and take responsibility for development of followers as well as themselves (Kunhert & Lewis, 1987, as cited in Hoy & Miskel, 2010).

Instructional Leadership

The popularity of research on effective education increased the focus on teaching and learning management as the primary activities of schools and promoted instructional leadership to be endorsed (Bush, 2008) since strong leadership was displayed as a critical feature of effective schools in terms of academic success and social attitudes (Hallinger,

2010; Heck et al., 1990, as cited in Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Purkey & Smitt, 1983). Broadly, instructional leaders attempt to enhance factors such as curriculum, teaching strategies, and assessment methods in order for academic achievement (Hoy & Miskel, 2010). In order to do so, they take the role of being culture builders which refers to fostering high expectations and compromising high standards, being goal-oriented which refers to defining goals of student academic achievement clearly and motivating school community to put in the necessary effort, and being managers which refers to coordinating and monitoring the curriculum and instruction (Hallinger, 2010).

According to the model developed by Hallinger and Murphy (1985, as cited in Hoy & Miskel, 2010), instructional leadership is comprised of three dimensions: defining school mission, managing the instructional program, and encouraging a positive school environment. The first dimension, defining school mission, emphasises the role of the principal to ensure clear, assessable goals for academic success (Hoy & Miskel, 2010). The second dimension, managing the instructional program, focuses on the role of fostering, guiding, and monitoring teaching and learning processes (Hoy & Miskel, 2010). And the last dimension, encouraging a positive school environment, focuses on ensuring academic and school effectiveness by having high expectations and standards for students and teachers (Hoy & Miskel, 2010).

Similarly, Weber (1989) claims that instructional leadership is concerned with both instructional and managerial issues and defines instructional leadership behaviours in five dimensions: defining schools' mission, managing curriculum and instruction, encouraging a positive climate, observing and offering feedback to teachers, and evaluating the instructional program. The first dimension includes having well-defined goals which are shared among the staff (Weber, 1989). The second dimension includes that leaders have the essential knowledge about the curriculum, share a common language with teachers for describing and analysing teaching practices, and encourage collaborative planning by paying attention to the concerns of staff (Weber, 1989). The next dimension involves having high expectations of students and teachers, communicating expectations to teachers and students, supporting the instructional programme to meet expectations, and recognizing and rewarding success (Weber, 1989). The fourth dimension includes providing effective observation practices that aim to develop the professionalism, knowledge, and skills of

teachers and to provide constructive feedback (Weber, 1989). And, the last dimension includes regular evaluation of the programme and ensures that the objectives match the operations (Weber, 1989).

Many other researchers such as Krug (1992), Wildy and Dimmock (1993), Alig-Mielcarek and Hoy (2005) also defined instructional leadership in highly similar dimensions. Therefore, the studies indicate that instructional leadership is concerned with fulfiling the goal which is student academic success by taking all stakeholders into consideration while managing and being involved in every operation instead of only being in charge.

Authentic Leadership

Similar to instructional leadership, authentic leadership emerged in the field of education, as well as sociology (Chan et al. , 2005) and is associated with positive values such as truthfulness, kindness, equity, liability, optimism, altruism (Yukl, 2013). These values lead leaders to be fair with subordinates, to develop a relationship with mutual trust and open communication, and to foster shared goal attainment, which results in the development and transformation of organizations (Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Yukl, 2013). Therefore, authentic leadership results in increased self-awareness and positive self-regulated behaviours for both leaders and associates and it fosters self-development positively (Luthans & Avolio, 2003).

Avolio et al. (2004) proposed a model for authentic leadership and claimed that authentic leaders affect the behaviours of followers via processes of identification, positive emotions, hope, optimism and faith. In terms of processes of identification, the confidence of leaders, and clarity of values increase the influence of leaders on followers since such leaders are perceived to be credible, and confident, which leads followers to develop personal identification with the leader (Yukl, 2013). Besides the indirect influence of leadership traits on subordinates, authentic leaders initially try to demonstrate that they share the same values with the subordinates and persuade them (Avalio et al., 2004). Furthermore, authentic leaders, also, develop social identification of followers by expressing honesty, transparency, directness and integrity in the issues with followers and by making them internalize the goals in order to keep the followers engaged in the work for the benefit of the

collective (Avalio et al., 2004). Hope, as another dimension in the model of Avalio et al. (2004), is significantly correlated to the work beliefs of followers so authentic leaders, who are able to remain hopeful, play a significant role in enhancing followers' hope by keeping up a high level of commitment and openness, exchanging relevant and significant information and promoting followers' sense of self-efficacy (Avolio et al., 2004). As for the next dimension, authentic leaders with high moral standards tend to build faith in followers by keeping the communication open and honest, and by expressing positive expectations, which results in the empowerment of followers to accomplish the tasks (Avolio et al., 2004). Our emotions are closely related to our attributes in every field of life. At work, similarly, our feelings towards the task change our perceptions on the completion of it. Authentic leaders, therefore, aim to create positive emotions for followers since the emotions influence followers' work attitudes, which later affect the quality of work behaviours, by involving them in decision-making processes, improving organizational well-being (Avolio et al., 2004). As for the last process, authentic leaders try to remain optimistic and increase the optimism of followers by recognizing the followers and promoting positive emotions in order to increase work motivation, enhance performance, derive job satisfaction, and face challenges (Avalio, 2004; Seligman, 1998, as cited in Avolio et al, 2004).

In sum, behaviours of authentic leaders result from their values rather than desires to be appreciated or to retain their position since they are internally motivated by the desire for self-improvement, which makes them be open to feedback (Yukl, 2013). Their behaviours result in self-awareness and self-regulation of followers and, eventually, improve and transform the organizations as well as increase the success.

Distributed Leadership

Organizations are usually so complex and tasks vary so widely that it is impossible for a single person to carry out all the operations effectively. Accordingly, in contrast to traditional leadership notions which advocate 'leader-follower' dualism assigning the leaders as the single-person authority in hierarchical systems and depicting followers as passive and obedient, distributed leadership adopts a perspective which advocates that multiple individuals share leadership responsibilities in the direction and functioning of organizations (Bolden et al., 2009; Devos et al., 2014; Gronn, 2002; Harris, 2004; Hoy &

Miskel, 2010). Hence, the responsibility of such duties is distributed among multiple people so that effectiveness is enhanced as well as the workload becomes manageable. In this sense, distributed leadership is described as dynamic, relative, all-embracing, cooperative and context-dependent, which is well suited to complex, changing environments (Bolden et al., 2009).

In this regard, Gibb (1954), the first person mentioning distributed leadership, opposed the idea of continuous single-person leadership and emphasised the qualities of followers (as cited in Gronn, 2009). He claimed that leadership is assumed by different people in different situations and that the most active followers display leading acts; hence, the roles of leadership and followership are often exchanged, which indicates leadership is carried out by multiple people (Gibb, 1954, as cited in Gronn, 2009). Therefore, leadership could be perceived as a part of daily activities for anyone, irrespective of position, which puts the practice of leadership at the centre instead of the traits and behaviours of single-person leaders according to distributed leadership (Bolden et al., 2009; Spillane, 2005). Although formal leadership positions are not denied people in these positions are responsible for ensuring that the organization is unbroken by creating a common environment that maximizes the use of skills and abilities within the organization (Bolden et al., 2009; Harris, 2004). In other words, the functions of leadership are spread in a wider context and the aim is not to create multiple leaders but to carry out multiple engagements (Gronn, 2000, as cited in Bolden et al., 2009). Therefore, distributed leadership is a form of collective operations involving the activities of multiple individuals in an organization rather than a task performance of an individual (Harris, 2004). The tasks could involve routines such as budget planning, annual meetings, unexpected situations such as emergencies, or change actions such as revising existing operations, and creating a new vision (Gronn, 2002; Heller & Firestone, 1995, as cited in Hoy & Miskel, 2010).

In his framework of distributed leadership, Gronn (2002) states that distributed leadership, which is interdependent with overlapping or complementary responsibilities, leads to institutionalisation and promotes the sense of membership. Also, the overlapping responsibilities of leaders tend to eliminate decision errors since members are likely to cross-check their performances while the complementary responsibilities lead to pool expertise and abilities of members which in return causes task completion (Gronn, 2002). In this

regard, he explains that there could be two forms of distributed leadership, numerical action, concertive action. In terms of numerical action, multiple members perform leadership functions, and the sum of the attributed influence forms distributing leadership (Gronn, 2002). However, unlike single-person leadership, he adds that particular individuals are not privileged nor their behaviours matter more than others (Gronn, 2002). While numerical action is the sum of attributed influence, concertive action is the holistic way of forming distributing leadership which has three patterns: spontaneous collaboration, intuitive working relations, institutionalised practices (Gronn, 2002). In the first pattern, multiple individuals with different skills and abilities who might be from different organizational levels temporarily work together to pool their expertise and to solve a problem (Gronn, 2002). In the second pattern, close working relationship and trust built over time results in intuitive understanding and emergence of shared roles (Gronn, 2002). The partnership of such people leads them to act as a joint working unit that is featured as leadership by others. Finally, the last pattern, institutionalised practices, can be observed when structural relations in organizations are institutionalised formally (Gronn, 2002). For instance, in some schools, student representatives are chosen among equals and they are not hierarchically superior to other students.

Another researcher who is against the hegemony of a single individual as a leader, Spillane (2005), explains the problem of dualism with two reasons. Firstly, he states that leadership in schools is attributed to school principals, which is similar in other organizations with leadership attributed to one person, but different individuals with skills and abilities such as teachers, and secretaries ensure school effectiveness (Spillane, 2005). Secondly, leadership has mostly been defined by behaviours, and traits of a single person but what actually matters is leadership practices that are interactions between people emerging from the situations rather than roles, behaviours and traits of multiple people in distributed leadership (Spillane, 2005). In terms of situations, he emphasises that situations and leadership practice are reciprocal which indicates that situations can enable or constrain leadership practice and leadership practice transforms the situation (Spillane, 2005). Furthermore, he explains that there are people who take the responsibility of leading informally, besides formal positions and followers are one of the key elements in leadership practice because their actions contribute to leadership practice (Spillane, 2005).

From another point that investigates distributed leadership in terms of education, Elmore (2000) claims that deromanticizing leadership definitions that depict leaders with heroic descriptions would affect the quality of schools positively. Within this aim, he illustrates that each member in an organization has particular competencies as a result of interests, skills, knowledge, and roles and that organizing these competencies to complement that of another, to share with others, and bring them all together in a common culture comprises distributed leadership (Elmore, 2000). Acknowledging the role of administrative leaders who are officially appointed, he explains that leadership is not individualistic and administrative leaders are responsible for overall guidance of creating a common culture, improving the skills and abilities of people in the organization, organizing people for their contributions to collective results (Elmore, 2000). In this regard, two main tasks should be completed in order to implement his model of distributed leadership: establishing the ground rules for organizational improvement and describing the responsibilities of various leaders in various roles and positions in organizational improvement (Elmore, 2000). Accordingly, his model of leadership proposes five essential principles (Elmore, 2000). Firstly, the main purpose of leadership is to enhance instructional performance without regarding the role, which means that every leader regardless of their position in the organization should support performance enhancement (Elmore, 2000). Secondly, continuous learning is required for instructional enhancement, which involves leaders' creating the necessary environment that fosters learning (Elmore, 2000). Thirdly, modelling is required for learning, which refers to that leaders should take the responsibility of being role models for the values representing collective outcomes (Elmore, 2000). As for the next one, leadership is assigned based on the expertise required, not the dictation of the institution (Elmore, 2000). Finally, reciprocal accountability and capacity are required in the exercise of leadership, which means that equal and complementary responsibility is shared among all leaders to assure task completion (Elmore, 2000).

Finally, similar to Spillane (2005), MacBeath (2005) explains that leadership and how it is distributed depend on situations. Within his claims that the forms of distribution are situation-dependent and changeable rather than fixed, he lists six forms that might operate in schools in different situations: formally, pragmatically, strategically, incrementally, opportunistically, and culturally (MacBeath, 2005). Firstly, in terms of formal distribution, the delegation of responsibility is performed hierarchically, leaders who are

officially appointed in such positions are well aware of their management roles and both leaders and staff know where to stand (MacBeath, 2005). Secondly, regarding pragmatic distribution, leadership responsibility is temporarily appointed to the right person who is capable of completing particular tasks in demanding environments based on the judgement made about the person's ability in cooperation and capabilities (MacBeath, 2005). The next form, strategic distribution, unlike pragmatic distribution, focuses on long-term goals rather than ad hoc demands (MacBeath, 2005). Due to this focus, leadership is distributed to multiple people in order not to face challenges in case the person who is the only one responsible for particular tasks leaves the organization; therefore, strategic distribution stresses the team players rather than individual capabilities (MacBeath, 2005). On the other hand, in case of incremental distribution, leadership is distributed to any member of the organization who proves their capacity to lead by their profession, vision, personality, commitment, and values instead of hierarchical delegation (MacBeath, 2005). In the next form of distribution, which is opportunistic, leadership is not given but taken, which suggests that ambitious members who are eager to extend their roles to leading are encouraged to lead (MacBeath, 2005). Finally, cultural distribution refers to activities rather than roles; therefore, distribution is not a conscious process and leading activities are performed spontaneously and cooperatively without identifying leaders or followers (MacBeath, 2005). All in all, in the model developed by MacBeath (2005), with its focus on the community rather than leaders, collective strength and energy which result from reciprocal respect, trust, value, and competence are emphasised.

To sum up, different leadership styles have been developed to ensure the survival and the effectiveness of the organizations that are a significant part of socities. Similarly, the complex structure of the SFLs as educational organizations causes administrators to adopt different styles in different situations. In this regard, leadership styles that are explained above would explicate the leadership practices of the administrators focussed in this current study. Also, the above-mentioned styles would provide insight on SFL leadership since the job descriptions and responsibilities of the SFL administrators in Turkey show some similarities.

2.3.3. Studies Related to Leadership

Regarding education, the literature reveals plenty of studies that emphasise the significant role of leadership in the effectiveness of schools (Bush, 2008; Creemers, 1994; Harris, 2004; Huber, 1999, as cited in Huber, 2004; Huber, 2004; Mortimore et al., 1988; Reynolds, 1976; Teddlie & Stringfield, 1993). Huber (2004) states that the actions of the principals indirectly influence school effectiveness by directly affecting the attitudes of teachers, climate, and the culture of the school. In this regard, leadership has been investigated from different perspectives such as student success, school climate, teacher self-efficacy, school culture, job satisfaction, organizational trust, organizational citizenship behaviours etc. in the context of primary schools, secondary schools, high schools, HE in Turkey and abroad (Akyürek, 2016; Eggen, 2010; Heck & Hallingar, 2009; Hulpia et al., 2009; Kılınç, 2014; Tanrıöğren & İşcan, 2014; Uçar, 2015). For instance, Duyar et al. (2013), Tian (2011), Xia and Sun (2018) revealed that leadership was correlated to teacher self-efficacy. The researchers revealed that leaders promoted the level of teacher self-efficacy by exhibiting democratic attitudes (Tian, 2011), promoting confidence in teaching with professional development opportunities (Duyar et al., 2013; Tian, 2011), motivating teachers (Tian, 2011), involving teachers in decision-making processes (Tian, 2011), increasing the accountability (Duyar et al., 2013), providing educational suggestions (Duyar et al., 2013). For another example, Ağırdaş (2014), Hulpia et al. (2009), Sun and Xia (2018) revealed the significant impact of leadership on job satisfaction. Accordingly, the researchers showed that supportive leadership positively correlated to job satisfaction (Ağırdaş, 2014; Hulpia et al., 2009; Xia & Sun, 2018).

Similarly, in the context of HE, the studies displayed that leadership attitudes have indirect impacts on the effectiveness of the institutions. In this respect, Bryman (2007) reviewed the literature between 1985 and 2005 on the effectiveness of leaders in departments of universities by acknowledging that leadership influences the effectiveness of the departments. Within this regard, he listed 13 leadership factors consistently identified in the literature as promoters of effectiveness (Bryman, 2007). According to his list, 13 common effective leader behaviours include providing clear guidance aligned with the mission and vision of the department, initiating goal attainment, forming relationships of trust and mutual respect among staff, treating subordinates fairly and equitably, being trustworthy, fostering

autonomy of the staff to take part in decision-making processes by means of open communication, communicating effectively regarding work-related issues, being a role model, creating a positive climate, promoting the image of the department internally and externally, providing feedback, providing resources, and recruiting and retaining successful staff (Bryman, 2007). Similarly, Middlehurst et al. (2009) review the literature between 2005 and 2008 on leadership in HE context. Firstly, the results of their review displayed that the leadership practices are context-dependent, in other words, each institution contains a different structure and culture, which determine the leadership practices (Middlehurst et al., 2009). Additionally, leadership is exercised in different forms and levels in HE depending on the context, which implies that both top-down, bottom-up, and horizontal leadership is to be exercised in balance to ensure proper functioning (Middlehurst et al., 2009). Finally, the history, culture, and focus of the institution determine whether leadership is collaboratively performed in teams or not (Middlehurst et al., 2009).

On the other hand, regarding the SFL context, the researcher revealed only two studies investigating leadership (Durna, 2018; Tanrıöğen & İşcan, 2016). Tanrıöğen and İşcan (2016) investigated the impact of distributive leadership on job satisfaction of the instructors working in different universities by means of questionnaires and revealed that distributive leadership of the SFL administrators positively influences job satisfaction. Positive behaviours of distributive leadership involve being role models, being supportive, providing guidance to overcome problems, forming good relations among the staff, promoting participation in decision-making, and fostering autonomy (Tanrıöğen & İşcan, 2016). As for another study, Durna (2018) investigated the perceptions of the instructors and the director of the SFL of a state university in Turkey towards invitational leadership, which indicates the style of involving stakeholders to achieve organizational goals by means of fostering trust, respect, optimism and expressing intention, and whether gender had any impacts on the decisions made in the SFL. The findings revealed that the instructors had positive perceptions towards invitational leadership, and gender did not have any impact on the decisions made in the SFL (Durna, 2018). In terms of trust, the instructors believed that the director built trust in the SFL with consistent decisions and efforts to protect the staff from external threats (Durna, 2018). Regarding respect, similarly, the instructors believed that the director respected the staff; however, there was a lack of communication (Durna, 2018). With respect to intention, the instructors stated that the goals of the SFL were

announced to the instructors systematically in the meetings; yet, the lack of communication between the director and the staff prevented some people from being aware of the organizational goals (Durna, 2018). Finally, in terms of optimism, the instructors explained that the director was open-minded and they were encouraged to take responsibilities based on their skills, interests and background but the lack of communication prevented some from talking about their potential (Durna, 2018).

As shown above, there is a lack of research conducted abroad or in Turkey in the context of HE institutions that provide English language education. Also, the limited number of relevant studies conducted at the SFLs in Turkey do not relate leadership directly to OE (Durna, 2018; Tanrıöğen & İşcan, 2016). Furthermore, to the knowledge of the researcher, leadership has not been studied in terms of its interactions with organizational citizenship behaviours, teacher self-efficacy and organizational communication altogether.

2.4. Organizational Citizenship Behaviours

Organizational citizenship behaviours is another significant variable focused on in this study since the effectiveness of organizations depends on all the members, besides leaders. In the previous section, leadership has been mentioned as a key element of OE. However, the effectiveness of leaders is highly related to the effectiveness of staff considering that the main objective of leaders is to ensure task achievement by distributing operational responsibilities to staff, motivating, empowering, being role models for subordinates. In this regard, organizations need staff with high communication skills, who are experienced, trustworthy, visionary, responsible in order to survive and compete with the world (Doğrul, 2013). Similarly, Jafari and Bidarian (2012) stated that one of the key elements of organizational success is to have workers who are responsible, committed, and brave. In other words, behaviours and manners of the members profoundly affect the success of organizations.

According to Organ (1988) organizational behaviours are divided into two groups: in-role behaviours, extra-role behaviours. He defines in-role behaviours as the ones which are explicitly recognized as part of the job while extra-role behaviours, in other words organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs), as the discretionary behaviours which are not

prescribed, formally rewarded but are beyond formal obligations and contribute to organizational effectiveness (Organ, 1988). Similar to Organ (1988), OCBs have been investigated in terms of dimensions and domains by many researchers under several names such as prosocial organizational behaviours, good soldier syndrome, extra-role behaviours, contextual performance (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al.,2000; Moon et al., 2005; Morrison, 1994; Somech & Oplatka, 2015; Van Dyne & Lepine, 1998; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

2.4.1. Organizational Citizenship Behaviour as a notion

Although organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) as the term was first used by Organ (1988), it dates back to the 1930s (Turnipseed & Murkison, 1996). Barnard (1938), firstly, mentioned the willingness of organizational members to devote their energy to the organization which was illustrated as spontaneous, collaborative, and protective of the organization (Katz & Kahn, 1966, as cited in Turnipseed & Murkison, 1996). Similarly, Katz and Kahn (1966, as cited in Bateman & Organ, 1983) stated that organizations' effective functioning depends on supra-role behaviours in many occasions. These behaviours cannot be prescribed in advance for a given task and they are often taken for granted (Katz & Kahn, 1966, as cited in Bateman & Organ, 1983). And, with these mentions, behaviours beyond formal obligations were emphasised and the basis of OCB was set.

For the first time, in 1983, Baterman and Organ referred these extra-role behaviours as citizenship behaviours based on the studies of Barnard (1938) and Katz and Kahn (1966). They claim that there is a casual relationship between prior overall satisfaction of organizational members and displaying citizenship behaviours and explain this relationship based on two reasons (Baterman & Organ, 1983). Firstly, by taking social exchange theory into consideration, they state that people seek to return the favour or reciprocate people that benefit them (Baterman & Organ, 1983). In other words, the efforts of organizational officials that are interpreted by the staff as nonmanipulative result in job satisfaction and it leads members to reciprocate the efforts by means of OCBs (Baterman & Organ, 1983). Secondly, by taking social psychology experiments into consideration, they stress that people are likely to make prosocial gestures, OCB, when they are in a good mood resulting from a positive affect state such as job satisfaction (Baterman & Organ, 1983). Hence, the

more satisfied people are, the more OCBs they tend to exhibit. Also, they emphasise the strong relationship between job satisfaction and supervision, which refers to that immediate supervisors are the most direct source in arousing the feeling of reciprocation and creating positive affect state (Baterman & Organ, 1983). Therefore, OCBs are mostly displayed to reciprocate the benefits of the supervisors more than any other members representing the organization (Baterman & Organ, 1983).

Brief and Motowidlo (1986) studied OCB in terms of OE and referred to OCB as prosocial behaviours. Considering Katz (1964)'s description of behavioural patterns for organizations which includes three forms of behaviours: joining and staying in the organization; meeting the standards of performance; going beyond the formal requirements, Brief and Motowidlo focus on the last form of patterns which they call prosocial behaviours (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). They explain that prosocial behaviours such as collaborating with members, taking actions to protect the organization, favouring the organizations outside are necessary for the functioning of the organizations and these behaviours are not among formal job descriptions (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). Prosocial behaviours are displayed voluntarily and spontaneously to promote the organization (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). According to their broad definition, prosocial organizational behaviours are the behaviours that are performed by an organizational member, are intended for other organizational members or the organization itself, and are deliberately performed to enhance the welfare of the members or the organization with whom she or he interacts while fulfiling the organizational role (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986).

Similar to Brief and Motowidlo (1986), George and Brief (1992) derived from the description of Katz and Khan (1964) in their description of OCB. By focusing on the spontaneity of OCBs, they referred to such behaviours as organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992). According to the researchers, organizational spontaneity can emerge in five forms: helping colleagues, protecting the organization, making constructive suggestions, paying attention to professional development, and promoting the organization (George & Brief, 1992). They object OCB definition of Organ (1988) due to its emphasis on extra-role behaviours exhibited without the expectation of rewards (George & Brief, 1992). According to George and Brief (1992), the behaviours that are promoted by organizational rewards are not prescribed as formal job requirements, and the rewards are just motivators; therefore,

these behaviours are, also, included in organizational spontaneity since they are still voluntary actions (George & Brief, 1992). They also object the definition of prosocial behaviours of Brief and Motowidlo (1988) by claiming that the definition is too broad and it could involve behaviours that do more harm to organizations than good such as helping a colleague to achieve a personal goal which is inconsistent with the organization's (George & Brief, 1992). They stress that organizational spontaneity involves behaviours that are voluntary and helpful to the organizations (George & Brief, 1992).

Graham (1991) positions OCB as behaviours of individuals at work including job performance measures, extra-role behaviours as mentioned by Organ (1988), and forms of political behaviours. According to her, political perspective containing three responsibilities of citizenship in geopolitical arenas can be applied as a new variable in organizational context: obedience, loyalty, and participation in order to cover all work behaviours because OCB description of Organ (1988) only fills the gaps left by in-role behaviours (Graham, 1991). Within this respect of encompassing all behaviours, she explains the variables of political perspective as:

• Organizational obedience refers to the behaviours of recognizing and accepting the necessity of rules and regulations such as being on time at work or task completion;

• Organizational loyalty refers to the behaviours of accepting the organization as a whole and identifying with the leaders such as promoting the organization outside, or contributing to the good reputation; and,

• Organizational participation refers to the behaviours of being interested in organizational issues, taking responsibilities in organizational operations such as attending unplanned meetings, or sharing new transformative visions (Graham, 1991).

Borman and Motowidlo (1993) approach OCB under different names. Instead of in-role and extra-role behaviours, they divide the behaviours of organizational members into task performance and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, as cited in Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Similar to in-role behaviours, task performance activities refer

to formally required job activities while contextual performance involves voluntary-based activities which contribute to organizational effectiveness in social, psychological, and organizational context (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, as cited in Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). According to them, task performance differs from contextual performance for at least three reasons (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Firstly, task performance activities differ in each organization while contextual performance tends to be more similar across organizations (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Secondly, task performance activities are prescribed while contextual activities cannot be on performance appraisal forms (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). And, lastly, task performance activities require mostly cognitive abilities while contextual performance activities involve personality characteristics (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997).

Van Dyne et al. (1994) investigate OCB in terms of political philosophy, claim it is a multidimensional construct and refer to OCB as extra-role behaviours. They have similar conceptualizations (Van Dyne et al., 1995). However, they claim that differentiating in-role behaviours from extra-role behaviours can sometimes be challenging and the same behaviour may be considered as both depending on the perspective of the person who labels the behaviours, the characteristic of the person exhibiting them, and the time frame which refers to different times that the same action is observed (Van Dyne et al., 1995). Hence, extra-role behaviours are dynamic and they highly depend on the context (Van Dyne et al., 1995).

All in all, despite the plurality of definitions and names used to refer to OCB, there seems to be a consensus that OCBs are beyond formal job descriptions and members display such behaviours with the aim of benefitting others in terms of organizational improvement. Therefore, it can be indicated that there is a relationship between OCB and OE. Podsakoff et al. (2000) explain the relationship in seven aspects:

• OCBs enhance the productivity of managers and the subordinates such as helping a colleague results in teaching them the particular practice;

• OCBs release the sources to be used for other productive purposes such as that employees who are eager to perform at their best require less supervision and it allows the manager to focus on other tasks;

• OCBs eliminate the need to allocate limited resources to maintain the performance such as that helping others improves team spirits which, in return, reduces to allocate time on group maintenance;

• OCBs become effective instruments to coordinate activities within and between groups such as voluntarily attending unit meetings which are held to ensure coordination;

• OCBs create a more satisfying organization to work in, which attracts more productive employees;

• OCBs stabilize the organizational performance such as covering a colleague in case of absence; and,

• OCBs ensure adaptation to changes such as sharing opinions in order to enhance the organization in the constantly changing world (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Although there is a very limited number of studies focusing on OCB in terms of its direct impact on OE, the literature reveals its indirect impact with the studies relating OCB to other variables such as job satisfaction, leadership, organizational commitment, student success (Bateman & Organ, 1983 Çetin, 2011; DiPaola & Hoy, 2005; Hannam & Jimmieson, 2002; Murphy et al., 2006; Oğuz, 2011; Zeinabadi, 2010). The details on the relevant studies are provided in a following section.

2.4.2. Dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Similar to the definitions, the literature review reveals that there is no consensus over the names of the dimensions since the researchers have examined OCB from different aspects such as the results of OCB (Williams & Anderson, 1991), politics (Graham, 1991;

Van Dyne et al., 1994), individualistic and collectivist norms (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). However, they are comprised of overlapping traits.

Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) claimed that citizenship behaviours are comprised of two different dimensions: altruism and general compliance. Later, Organ (1988) conceptualized organizational citizenship behaviours as a notion and expanded the dimensions by adding three more elements: sportsmanship, civic virtue and courtesy. By changing the name of the dimension 'generalized compliance' as 'conscientiousness', he illustrated them as: altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness and civic virtue (Organ, 1988), which have been adopted by many researchers (Moorman, 1991; Polat, 2007; Tansky, 1993; Witt, 1991).

Since many studies adopt the dimensions of Organ (1988) and this study is based on them, five dimensions which are altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue are explained in detail in this section (Moorman, 1991; Polat, 2007; Tansky, 1993; Witt, 1991).

Altruism

Altruism has been included in the studies of OCB by every researcher who has worked in this field as a significant dimension (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; Deluga, 1994; Graham, 1991; Organ, 1988, 1990a, 1990b; Smith et al., 1983; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996; Vey & Campbell, 2004; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Conceptually, the dimension has been examined under various names such as prosocial behaviour (Puffer, 1987), OCB-Individual (Williams & Anderson, 1991), interpersonal helping (Graham, 1989), helping coworkers (George & Brief, 1992), helping and cooperating with others (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), helping behaviour (Podsakoff et al., 2000); and the behaviours encompassing voluntarily helping others lies at the bottom of the dimension.

According to Organ and Hamner (1982), altruism refers to the behaviours exhibited to help coworkers with organizational tasks, and problems. Moorman and Blakely (1995) explain altruism as the behaviour of helping colleagues when they need it. Williams and Anderson (1991) state that actions taken to directly benefit the individuals and indirectly

contribute to organization are the behaviours attributed to altruism. Also, George and Brief (1992) state that altruism involves all voluntary forms of help that organizational members offer to complete tasks and achieve goals. Although direct help to coworkers has been emphasised in most studies, Organ (1988) stresses that altruism is attributed to organizational members in most situations but, actually, help is not necessarily directed to the individuals in the organization. And, he claims that the assistance which is aimed at outsiders and related to the benefit of organization can be also attributed to altruism (Organ, 1988). As seen in the definitions, voluntariness, help, problem solving, focusing on individuals, and indirect contribution to the organization are the significant characteristics of altruism.

Examples of altruism include orienting newcomers on the rules and the processes of the job, helping coworkers who have been absent; helping colleagues with heavy workload, teaching coworkers how to use an equipment, covering colleagues who need a day off, assisting coworkers to complete tasks (Organ, 1988; Organ & Hamner, 1982; Vey & Campell, 2004; Williams & Anderson, 1991). In terms of education, altruism might include behaviours such as copying materials for a colleague to use in class, informing co-teachers on student progress, reminding teachers of the meeting time and location, covering a class when the teacher needs a day off, informing teachers on educational applications to be used in class.

Courtesy

Courtesy encompasses helping behaviours displayed to prevent possible problems for coworkers (Podsakoff et al., 2000). In this regard, it shows similarities with altruism since it is based on helping others. However, these two dimensions are distinguished with the fact that altruism refers to helping the individual who already has a problem while courtesy involves helping someone to prevent a problem before occurring (Organ, 1988). Courtesy also contains communicating with people and informing them before committing to actions which can affect them (Organ, 1988). When the members are informed of an unexpected situation, they can take precautions or anticipate how to perform most efficiently; within this perspective, courtesy contributes to organizational effectiveness (Organ, 1988). Therefore, behaviours of courtesy are future-focused actions.

For the sake of examples, courtesy can be situated in constantly interacting with coworkers, briefing, passing along information on the decisions and the actions to be taken, consulting coworkers whom the decisions might affect, and taking the necessary step to lessen the problems (Organ, 1988, 1990). In the school context, forming focus groups to choose course materials, informing teachers on supervisor visits and sharing the timetable for the visits, sharing invigilation lists for the exam in advance, briefing the teachers on minor and major changes, introducing the technological equipment in class for the newcomers before the academic year begins, informing coteachers in case of sick leave can be given as examples of courtesy.

Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness refers to role behaviours beyond the required job descriptions (Organ, 1988). Although this dimension was named as 'Generalized Compliance' by Smith et al. (1983), Organ (1988) claims that it connotes blind obedience to authority and ignores the inner-directed side of such behaviours; therefore, he uses conscientiousness instead. Job responsibilities are set to apply to all members of a unit; hence, they are necessarily aimed to meet the minimum level of acceptability instead of perfection (Organ, 1988). And any behaviours displayed beyond the required responsibilities are attributed as conscientiousness (Organ, 1988).

For example, regular attendance is among obvious prescribed job descriptions in many organizations, and absence beyond some level results in violation of employment conditions; however, attendance can become discretionary in some situations such as extreme weather, family crisis, unused annual leave (Organ, 1988). Going to work during such situations, in other words, going beyond the required level of attendance exemplify conscientiousness (Organ, 1988). Or as another example, a person with flu shows conscientiousness when she or he shows up at work. By behaving this way, the person does not aim to benefit an individual or directly the organization in this particular situation; on the contrary, this behaviour results from the notion of the code to how a person should behave, which separates conscientiousness from altruism (Organ, 1988).

Conscientiousness contributes to OE in several ways. Firstly, attendance beyond the prescribed level would require fewer full-time people, which would save the money of the organization (Organ, 1988). Secondly, due to the regular attendance, administrators would not waste time on arranging covers for the absent people, which would save time (Organ, 1988). Thirdly, members who display conscientiousness would tend to consume water, electricity, materials, and money reasonably, which would save resources of the organization (Organ, 1988). Also, the members would show extra effort for the organization, which would increase the inputs, in other words, resources of the organization (Organ, 1988). In the school context, teaching extra hours as tutorials without financial benefits, preparing materials for the next day after the required working hours, staying at work to complete a project, attending meetings voluntarily to represent the organization, turning off the smart boards and the lights when the class is dismissed, using papers reasonably for the materials can be given as examples.

Sportsmanship

Based on the reanalysis of the data which was collected by Bateman and Organ (1983), Organ (1988) added sportsmanship in the dimensions of OCB. Sportsmanship includes refraining from all negatively worded items and encompasses the actions of avoiding complaining (Organ, 1988). Despite all the efforts to maintain the operations properly, organizations might face disruptions for some time and they might result in arousal of negative feelings; people who are affected by such situations might naturally complain, demand and resist (Organ, 1988). Those who keep fulfiling their responsibilities by realizing such problems do not harm fairness and justice exemplify sportsmanship behaviours (Organ, 1988). Borman and Motowidlo (1993), also, included sportsmanship as a dimension under the name 'helping and cooperating with others', which refers to both courtesy and not complaining.

Podsakoff et al. (2000) claim that the definition of Organ (1988) is limited to not complaining about inconveniences; therefore, they broaden the dimension by including maintaining positive manners in case of inconveniences as another key characteristic of sportsmanship. From their perspective, not being offended when their ideas are rejected, or

sacrificing personal interests for the sake of the organization are some examples of sportsmanship (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

In terms of organizational effectiveness, sportsmanship enhances tolerability in the organization, which contributes to the stamina of organizational members (Organ, 1988). When the challenges are tolerated and encountered in positive manners, it also increases the stamina of administrators, which enables leaders to expand their stamina for more constructive purposes (Organ, 1988). Also, complaints and resistance result in diverting the focus from the daily operations and wasting energy and resources; hence, sportsmanship, also, contributes to OE by saving time and resources (Organ, 1988). In the school context, going on teaching by using the book when the smart board breaks down, screening the worksheet on the board when a problem occurs in paper purchase, attending meetings after teaching hours because all classes are full with students can be included in sportsmanship behaviours.

Civic Virtue

Civic virtue, which has also been referred toas organizational participation (Graham, 1989) and protecting the organization (George & Brief, 1992), indicates a sense of macro-level involvement in the organization as a whole and commitment to it despite the possibility of personal sacrifices (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 2000). The behaviours of civic virtue imply a member's recognition of being part of the organization, which is similar to the sense of a citizen's being a member of a country and accepting the responsibilities (Graham, 1989; Posakoff et al., 2000). As explained by Graham (1989), a good citizen of an organization does not only keep informed on organizational issues, but also expresses her or his opinions regarding the issue in order to contribute to administration. Therefore, civic virtue involves willingness to take an active part in the governance of the organization; observing the environment for dangers and opportunities; prioritizing its interests even at personal cost (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Due to the requirement of some sacrifice, and the possibility of being disapproved, Organ (1988) states it as the most admirable dimension of OCB.

In regard to examples of civic virtue, attending meetings, participating in discussions, voting, discussing issues on personal time, coping with changes which could affect the

organization, and reporting dangerous incidents can be stated (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 2000). For educational context, discussing student progress during the break times, offering solutions for curriculum-related challenges, adopting online platforms in teaching, sharing articles on recent teaching techniques with the administration and colleagues, and completing courses that would increase the school image can be given as examples of civic virtue.

2.4.3. Antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

The types and outcomes of OCB have been discussed in the previous sections. As mentioned above, OCB benefits the organizations and increases the OE by easing the burden of administrators, taking precautions against possible problems, and saving time and resources. The importance of OCB in organizational effectiveness has attracted many researchers to study the determinants (Aryee et al., 2002; Bateman & Organ, 1985; Blakely et al., 2005; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000). As a result of a wide range of studies, a large number of OCB determinants have been identified, which Podsakoff et al. (2000) categorized under four groups: individual characteristics, task characteristics, organizational characteristics and leadership behaviours.

Individual characteristics: Predictors such as morale, dispositions, role perceptions, demographic features, and employee abilities / individual differences can be included in the first category (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, perceptions of fairness, and leader support determine the morale of organization members (Organ & Ryan, 1995, as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000). The literature review reveals that variants which comprise morale are significantly correlated to OCB and they are the most frequently examined determinants of OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Dispositions such as conscientiousness, agreeableness, positive/negative affectivity suggest the idea that individuals may have a certain tendency to form emotional bonds with colleagues and superiors, and these emotional bonds might lead to exhibiting OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). To illustrate, conscientiousness encompasses being reliable, self-disciplined, and determinant; agreeableness embraces traits such as kindness, sincerity, and being able to communicate effectively; positive affectivity leads to the willingness to help; and all together these features create effective interaction among members by forming emotional bonds and

those bonds lead to OCB, which indicates that dispositions indirectly contribute to OCB (Organ et al., 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2000). In terms of role perceptions, clear role descriptions are positively correlated to OCB (Chahal & Mehta 2010). On the other hand, ambiguity or conflict in roles negatively affect altruism, courtesy and sportsmanship, which decreases OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). As for the demographic features, the literature review of Podsakoff et al. (2000) surprisingly reveals that features such as gender and working time, educational background, work experience and OCB are not related (Podsakoff et al., 2000). In terms of the last variable, knowledge, professional orientation, need for independence, and indifference to rewards can be included in employee abilities and personal differences (Podsakoff et al., 2000). The literature review displays that only indifference to rewards is related to OCB with negative correlation to altruism, civic virtue, courtesy, and sportsmanship (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Task Characteristics: The intrinsic satisfaction of the task, the feedback, and routinization of the task can be included as the determinants of OCB under this category although they are not emphasised in the literature (Podsakoff et al., 2000). According to the results of the meta-analysis by Podsakoff et al. (2000), task feedback and intrinsically satisfying tasks are positively correlated to OCB while task routinization is negatively correlated. Job characteristics which are based on feedback, motivation, clear instructions, and autonomy increase the sense of responsibility, and the feeling of accountability and foster OCB (Van Dyne et al., 1994). Therefore, Podsakoff et al. (2000) stress that task characteristics should be emphasised in future studies due to the correlation between task characteristics and OCB.

Organizational Characteristics: Formalization, inflexibility, support from colleagues and supervisors, cohesive group, rewards that are not controlled by the leaders, spatial distance from the leader and perceived support comprise organizational characteristics in the context of OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Among these variables, group cohesiveness and organizational support are positively related to OCB whereas rewards outside the leader's control negatively affect OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). When the employees believe that they are valued by the organization, they get attached to the organization, perform better to make contributions, and, consequently, engage in OCB (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Leadership Behaviours: Leadership directly fosters team spirit, morale, and unity of staff, which enhances organizational commitment; and it indirectly influences perceptions of justice and fairness (Chahal & Mehta, 2010). Hence, leaders play a significant role in increasing OCBs (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Exhibiting transformational leadership behaviours, clearly expressing the vision, offering appropriate methods, fostering the acceptance of goals, having high-performance expectations, clarifying leadership roles, instructing the procedures, and supporting are among the leadership behaviours that were mentioned to foster OCB in the literature (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Among these behaviours, Podsakoff et al. (2000) explain that defining leader roles clearly and showing transformational leadership behaviours, which foster efforts beyond the required level, have consistent effects on OCB.

2.4.4. Studies related to Organizational Citizenship Behaviours

OCB has been investigated in a variety of disciplines such as human resource management, marketing, health administration, community psychology, industrial and labor low, international management, economics, leadership, and education (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Also, the majority of the studies have focused on the relationship between OCB and other constructs such as organizational climate, commitment, trust, leadership, justice, demographic features, job satisfaction, etc. (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Ensher et al., 2001; Hannam & Jimmieson, 2002; Murphy et al., 2006; Oğuz, 2011; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Smith et al., 1983; Van Dyne et al., 1994).

In the educational context, the studies conducted in primary, secondary, and high schools have investigated OCB in relation to different constructs such as school climate (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001), organizational commitment (Bogler & Somech, 2004; Musringudin et al., 2017; Zeinabadi, 2010), student success (Cooper, 2010; DiPaola & Hoy, 2005), teacher efficacy (Cooper, 2010), job satisfaction (Musringudin et al., 2017; Zeinabadi, 2010), leadership (Çetin, 2011; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Ünal & Çelik, 2013), organizational justice (Akgüney, 2014; Musringudin et al., 2017; Polat, 2007). Regarding the relevant studies, the researchers revealed that OCB positively influences student success (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005), and leadership styles determine OCB of teachers (Çetin, 2011; DiPaola &Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Ünal & Çelik, 2013), teacher efficacy

correlates with OCB and indirectly contributes to school effectiveness (Cooper, 2010), organizational justice and OCB are interrelated (Polat, 2007), job satisfaction increases OCB (Musringudin et al., 2017), organizational commitment leads to OCB (Bogler & Somech, 2004; Musringudin et al., 2017; Zeinabadi, 2010).

On the other hand, the literature reveals limited number of studies on OCB within the context of HE (Khandelwal & Nair, 2022; Koşar, 2018; Rose, 2012). The majority of the relevant studies have investigated OCB in relation to other variables such as job satisfaction (Işık, 2021; Mohammad et al., 2011), organizational commitment (Al-Mamary, 2021), professional identity (Baltacı, 2019; Özaslan, 2019), demographic features (Güler, 2013), job performance (Cherif et al., 2016; Rose, 2012; Regoxs, A., 2003), leadership (Al-Mamary, 2020; Adewale, 2017), organizational climate (Panicker et al., 2017), professional identity (Baltacı, 2019; Özaslan, 2019).

To the knowledge of the researcher, the only study regarding the relationship between OCB and OE in the context of HE was conducted by Khandelwal and Nair (2022). The researchers carried out a quantitative study to investigate the relationship between OCB of 721 university lecturers and OE in state and private universities in India. The results of the study indicated a strong positive relationship between OCB and OE (Khandelwal & Nair, 2022). The dimensions of OCB, i.e. altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy and civic virtue were revealed to be closely related to OE in terms of the quality of the institution student success, career and personal development of the students, staff professional development, openness of the system, acquisition of resources, organizational health and interactions with the community (Khandelwal & Nair, 2022). Furthermore, the results revealed that OCB explained 78% of the variance in OE of state universities and 49 % of variance in OE of private universities (Khandelwal & Nair, 2022). Accordingly, the researchers explained the difference by stating that academicians working in private universities might exhibit less OCB due to pressure, competitiveness, and stress faced in private universities in comparison to state universities the lecturers of which could have better reputation, flexibility, and autonomy (Khandelwal & Nair, 2022).

In terms of leadership, Adawele et al. (2018) investigated the mediating role of OCB between leadership and effective performance of 10 different HE institutions in Nigeria. The

results revealed that leadership self-efficacy significantly influenced OCB of the staff, which indicated that display of high self-efficacy promoted subordinates to show OCB, which, consequently, enhanced OE (Adawele et al., 2018). In a similar study, Al-Mamary (2020) studied the transformational leadership style and OCB of the academic staff working in Malaysian research universities along with the mediating role of organizational commitment. The results displayed that transformational leadership style influenced organizational commitment that affected OCB (Al-Mamary, 2020). The researcher also indicated that transformational leadership results in a higher commitment to the university, which leads the staff to display extra-role behaviours beyond their job descriptions (Al-Mamary, 2020). As for job performance, Rose (2012) studied the OCBs of 15 faculty and 15 staff from eight HE institutions in relation to job performance. According to the results, job performance was correlated to OCB, both administrations and the lecturers displayed more OCBs to benefit the institution than individuals, and the levels of OCBs were related to the level of satisfaction, commitment and productivity (Rose, 2012). Regarding professional identity, Özaslan (2019) studied the impacts of professional identity on OCBs of 11 academic members working in a state university in Turkey. The results displayed that the professional identity of the members shapes their OCBs and the relationship formed with colleagues and the organization resulted in defining in-role and extra-role behaviours in different academic situations (Özaslan, 2019). Furthermore, the study revealed that the autonomy provided by the university led to a higher performance that involved OCBs, that setting goals that were applicable for all academic members increased mutual trust in the university and fostered OCBs, and that 'institutionalized norms', which refer to the perception that task-related activities were required and relevant to professional identities, promoted OCBs (Özaslan, 2019).

In the context of SFL, the literature review revealed only two studies investigating OCB and its relation to other constructs (Baltacı, 2019; Işık, 2021). Baltacı (2019) studied the perceptions of 28 English as a foreign language instructors working at a non-profit university towards their professional identity and OCB qualitatively. The results revealed that the personal and professional identities of instructors influenced the construction of organizational role identity that is related to exerting OCB (Baltacı, 2019). In addition, the researcher explained that the instructors displayed more OCBs towards students and colleagues than the organization, which led altruism and courtesy to be the most practiced

dimensions of OCB since they were related to personal characteristics rather than extrinsic dynamics (Baltacı, 2019). On the other hand, Işık (2021) explored OCBs of 269 English instructors working at state universities in Turkey in terms of job satisfaction, emotional commitment and demographic features through questionnaires. The results indicated that the level of job satisfaction, emotional commitment, and OCB are above the average (Işık, 2021). Also, it was revealed that job satisfaction and emotional commitment fostered OCB which led to better performance, hence, better language teaching (Işık, 2021). Accordingly, the researcher suggested that OCB needs to be taken into serious consideration in order to enhance the performance of English language teachers and the quality of education (Işık, 2021).

Yet, there is no study which investigates OCBs of the SFL staff in relation to leadership, teacher self-efficacy, organizational communication in terms of OE and their interactions with each other.

2.5. Teacher Self-efficacy

Another significant variable investigated in this current study is teacher self-efficacy. Therefore, this section of the study includes the nature of self-efficacy, the former measures that shaped teacher self-efficacy throughout history, teacher self-efficacy definitions and the studies related to it.

2.5.1. Definition of Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy has emerged as a key concept in social cognitive theory that was developed because of the criticisms against behaviourism advocating that human behaviours are shaped only by external factors. In this regard, Bandura (1997) proposes that internal factors have an impact on human behaviours, besides external factors. Therefore, according to social cognitive theory, individuals as the intentional agents of their lives shape their actions and lives by interacting reciprocally with the environment, as illustrated in Figure 1 (Bandura, 1977).

PERSONAL FACTORS

BEHAVIOUR ← → ENVİRONMENT
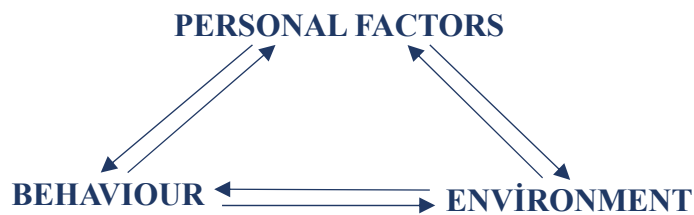
Figure 1. *The Relationships between the three major classes of determinants of triadic reciprocal causation (Bandura, 1997).*

Figure 1 illustrates the triadic relationship among three main determinants. By naming external factors as environment, internal factors as personal factors, Bandura (1997) emphasises that individuals operate as a result of the interdependence among these factors. Although these determinants affect each other bidirectionally, the strength of their impact is not always equal and simultaneous, which is dependent on circumstances (Bandura, 1997). The interdependence between personal factors and behaviours implies that personal factors such as thoughts, beliefs and expectations shape the behaviour while the effects of the behaviours influence personal factors. On the other hand, the link between personal factors and environment indicates that thoughts and beliefs influence the environment and environment shapes the personal factors. Finally, the reciprocity between behaviour and environment implies that individuals are not only producers but also products of their behaviours (Bandura, 1997).

In regard to the significance of personal factors on human behaviours, Bandura (1997) makes the definition of self-efficacy as "people's judgments about their capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (p.3). Hence, the beliefs of an individual on the capabilities directly influence the initiation and persistence of behaviour (Bandura, 1977). When individuals assume that a situation requires coping skills beyond their level, they tend to avoid taking action; on the other hand, they take action when they believe that they are capable of coping with the situation (Bandura, 1977). In other words, self-efficacy determines whether an individual is willing to take action or not. Also, the strength of self-efficacy determines how much effort individuals devote in given situations (Bandura, 1977). Individuals with stronger self-efficacy perform better and endure challenges more effectively. Therefore, perceived self-efficacy influences the degree

of effort individuals expend and the length they carry on taking actions with present obstacles in unpleasant situations (Bandura & Adams, 1977).

However, self-efficacy is not the only determinant of performance (Bandura, 1997). Required skills and incentives must be present in order for self-efficacy to be an effective indicator of performance (Bandura, 1977). Since an individual cannot possess all human competencies, the areas in which they develop efficacy and the level of efficacy differ for each individual as a result of natural endowment, sociocultural background, and situations (Bandura, 1997). Different individuals with similar skills or the same individual in different circumstances might perform differently depending on the variations in their self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Therefore, self-efficacy might cause failure when the perception of the capabilities does not match with actual capabilities (Bandura, 1997).

2.5.2. Sources of Self-efficacy

According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy is formed when the information which is based on four sources: "mastery experiences", "vicarious experiences", "verbal persuasion" and "physiological and affective states" (p. 79) is cognitively processed and reflectively thought. In other words, only the information chosen, weighed, and cognitively interpreted in terms of social, situational, and personal factors constructs and influences self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997).

Among the sources of information, mastery experiences are comprised of personal experiences of the individuals and they are the most effective source of self-efficacy since they offer the most accurate evidence for the execution of action (Bandura, 1997). In this regard, the experiences of success and failures determine the sense of self-efficacy, particularly before it is persistently constructed (Bandura, 1997). The experiences of surmounting obstacles with strenuous effort strengthen the sense of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). The difficulties encountered while accomplishing the task raise the belief of an individual in their capabilities, provide opportunities to turn the failures into success and use capabilities more effectively to overcome obstacles. When the individual experiences only easy success, failures might result in discouragement (Bandura, 1997). Therefore, experiencing success in difficult tasks fosters a stronger sense of self-efficacy. Yet,

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experiences alone do not construct self-efficacy nor fixed behaviours; instead, they provide cognitive, behavioural and self-regulatory tools to take effective actions that are required for the situations encountered (Bandura, 1997).

On the other hand, besides self-experiences, vicarious experience also influences self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Vicarious experiences are comprised of the ones in which the ability concerned is modelled by other individuals (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). To give an example, a student whose exam result is 75 cannot judge whether it is a successful performance or not without knowing the results of other students. In such a situation, social comparison plays a key role in determining the level of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). In everyday life, people compare themselves with others in similar contexts, and surpassing others promotes self-efficacy while being surpassed weakens it (Bandura, 1997). Apart from comparing, observing others in a similar situation might also influence self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Individuals could persuade themselves into achieving in the context of others succeeding, which strengthens self-efficacy, or they could feel discouraged observing others who fail, which results in lowering it (Bandura, 1997). Therefore, the attainments of others serve as another tool to influence self-efficacy. The more similarities the observation reveals, the more influence the observation has on self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). In other words, observing others might increase knowledge, guide and promote self-development, which results in an increase of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997).

Another source of information is verbal persuasion. As indicated in the name, verbal persuasion involves others' expressing faith in the capabilities of the person (Bandura, 1997). When, especially in challenging situations, others express their support and trust in realistic bounds, it enhances the individual's beliefs in capabilities and boosts self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). On the other hand, promoting the individual's unrealistic capabilities, causes a fake perception, disproves the persuader, results in failures and decreases the self-efficacy of the recipient (Bandura, 1997).

Last but not least, physiological and affective states also determine and influence self-efficacy. In order to enhance positive efficacy beliefs, it is significant to improve the physical status, eliminate negative emotions and prevent misinterpretations of body states (Bandura, 1991). In terms of emotions, the high arousal of stress affects the sense of self-

efficacy and performance negatively while the feelings of pleasure and joy increase the sense of self-efficacy and promote performance (Bandura, 1997). In terms of physiological states, the impact of physiological arousal on self-efficacy highly depends on situational factors and the meanings attributed to them (Bandura, 1997). To illustrate, a spokesperson might interpret sweating during the speech as the result of bad conditions in the hall while another spokesperson might interpret it as failure (Bandura, 1997). In this example, while sweating does not influence the self-efficacy of the first individual, it negatively affects that of the second person (Bandura, 1997).

All in all, self-efficacy is formed as a result of personal, environmental, and behavioural factors, all of which are interdependent. And, the quality of the performance is closely related to the sense of self-efficacy.

2.5.3. The Concept of Teacher Self-efficacy

Considering the impact of self-efficacy on performance, it has received much attention in many fields as well as education. In terms of teachers, the majority of the studies in the literature focus on their self-efficacy on the instructional issues such as competence and abilities of teaching to enhance students' knowledge, behaviours and values (Ashton et al., 1984; Berman et al., 1977; Friedman & Kass, 2002; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Hall et al., 1992; Pajares, 1996; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Webb & Ashton, 1987). Despite the large number of the studies, the concept of teacher self-efficacy is investigated mainly based on two main sources, Rotter (1966)'s social learning theory and Bandura (1977)'s social cognitive theory (Friedman & Kass, 2002; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

The prior studies of self-efficacy were carried out by RAND association based on Rotter (1966, as cited in Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998)'s social learning theory, which are called as the RAND studies. According to the theory, there are two types of self-efficacy for teachers: general teaching efficacy (GTE) and personal teaching efficacy (PTE). GTE refers to the beliefs of teachers on that the impact of the environment on student learning overrules teachers' abilities and the reinforcement of teaching is external and beyond their control (Rotter, 1966, as cited in Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). On the other hand, PTE refers to the beliefs of teachers on their capabilities of having the control in the reinforcement of

teaching; hence, the reinforcement is internal (Rotter, 1966, as cited in Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). In this regard, the RAND studies aimed to determine to what extent the teacher believed that learning and student motivation are results of teacher capabilities and internally controlled (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Within this purpose, the RAND researchers developed RAND Scale that consisted of only 2 items, identifying general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Teachers were asked to indicate the level of agreement with two statements and the sum of the scores on both items referred as teacher self-efficacy (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Later, considering the concerns on the reliability and the validity of a scale consisting only two items, various instruments have been developed based on RAND-Rotter conceptualization (Friedman & Kass, 2002) (e.g. Ashton et al., 1982; Guskey, 1981 , as cited in Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998)

The other main source which many measures of teacher self-efficacy are grounded in is the social cognitive theory of Bandura. Self-efficacy described by Bandura (1994) displays the competency a person expects to exert in different situations (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Apart from efficacy expectations, social cognitive theory, also, proposes another expectation as outcome expectancy (Bandura, 1989). While self-efficacy involves an individual's beliefs in the capabilities to accomplish performance outcomes, outcome expectancy involves the presumptions of an individual about the consequences of performance and they are conditionally related (Bandura, 1997). Accordingly, self-efficacy leads to actions and actions lead to outcomes; therefore, self-efficacy beliefs are significantly different from outcome expectancy and there is a casual relationship between self-efficacy and outcome expectancy (Bandura, 1997).

Building on the conceptualizations of RAND and Bandura, researchers have expanded the scope by adding various areas of teacher operations, responsibilities and efficacy beliefs (Friedman & Kass, 2002). Gibson and Dembo (1984) investigated teacher self-efficacy in two dimensions, personal teaching efficacy and general teaching efficacy, and focused on student achievement and the impact of external influences. Soodak and Podell (1996) examined teacher self-efficacy based on the study of Gibson and Dembo (1984). Accordingly, they revealed that the effectiveness of teachers was related to outside problems of students which included not only the environmental problems but also the

emotional and behavioural problems of students (Soodak & Podell, 1996). In another study, Rich et al. (1996) improved the scale of Gibson and Dembo (1984) and revealed that teacher self-efficacy cannot be generalized by only focusing on one domain; instead, teacher self-efficacy is unique to specific areas such as interpersonal and intergroup relationships among students (Rich et al., 1996).

In another study, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) analysed teacher self-efficacy in terms of the classroom context, which they narrowed to teaching specific tasks in specific situations (as cited in Friedman and Kass, 2002) and proposed a cyclical model for teacher self-efficacy (Figure 2).
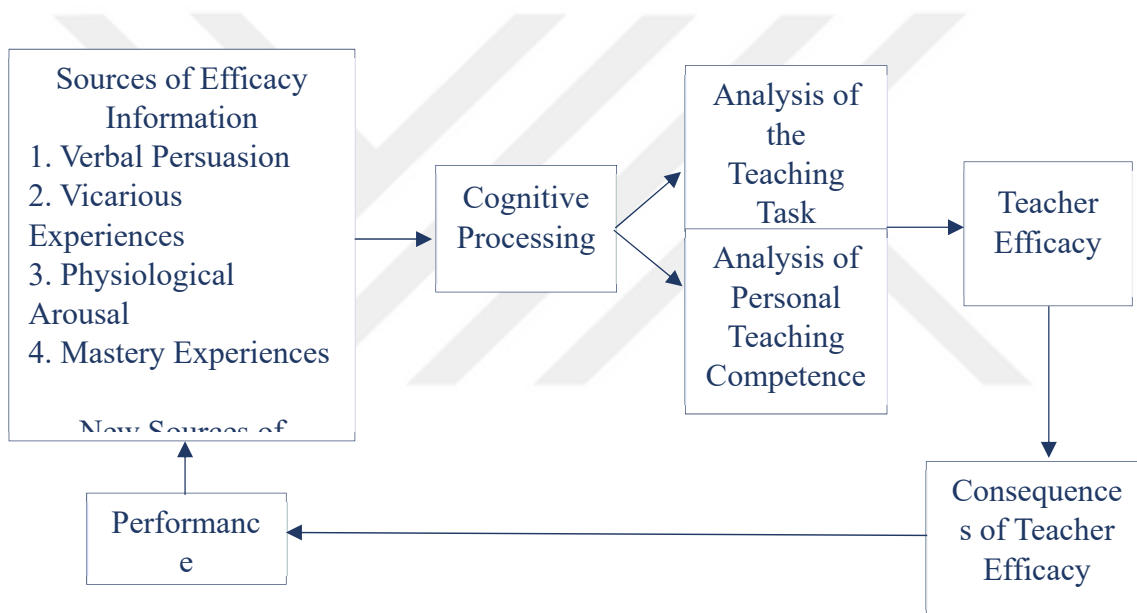
Figure 2. *Integrated Model of Teacher Efficacy (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).*

As indicated in Figure 2, their model of self-efficacy integrated the two main sources, social learning theory and social cognitive theory. Instead of focusing on only one domain to determine teacher self-efficacy, their integrated model considered both external factors, which referred to the task, and internal factors which referred to self-perception of teaching competence (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). According to their theory, based on the sources of Bandura (1997), previous experiences of teachers, the models who the teacher observes, the level of emotional arousal the teacher has and the persuasion and the feedback the teacher receives are interpreted in the stage of cognitive processes (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Then, the teacher assesses the difficulty level of the task, the requirements and the conditions

to succeed in, which are aligned with general teaching efficacy of social learning theory in the stage of the analysis of teaching tasks (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). On the next stage, the analysis of personal teaching competence, the teacher assesses self-competence and make judgements on personal skills, strategies, soft spots and strengths, which are aligned with personal teaching efficacy of social learning theory (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Following, the interpretation of efficacy sources, assessment of the teaching task and the personal competence integrate and comprise self-efficacy, which influences the performance (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Later, the performance, in turn, leads to new sources of efficacy information (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

Besides the external factors and classroom factors, studies also emphasise the organizational aspect of teaching and its significance to the concept of teacher self-efficacy (Friedman & Kass, 2002). The classrooms where teachers mostly operate are indispensable parts of school, which is an organization (Friedman & Kass, 2002). Also, teachers are subjected to the goals, visions, missions and values of the schools; and, teachers constantly need to cope with the conflicts including organizational members besides students (Friedman & Kass, 2002). Therefore, the conceptualization of teacher self-efficacy must embrace organizational variables such as school climate, interaction among colleagues, leadership, decision-making processes, as well (Friedman & Kass, 2002).

In this regard, Bandura (1997) focused on the multifacetedness of teacher self-efficacy and stated that teacher self-efficacy was comprised of seven domains: efficacy to influence decision making, efficacy to influence school resources, instructional efficacy, disciplinary efficacy, efficacy to enlist parental involvement, efficacy to enlist community involvement, and efficacy to create a positive school climate (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Although he focused on expanding the measurement of self-efficacy beyond single aspect, he recommended involving particular task demands in order for participants to consider the whole picture of the task with obstacles and opportunities (Bandura, 1997, as cited in Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

Similarly, Cherniss (1993) claimed that the students were an important source of self-efficacy but it would be useful to expand the concept (Cherniss, 1993). Within this purpose, he suggested that professional self-efficacy consisted of three main domains: task,

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interpersonal and organizational (Cherniss, 1993). The task domain included teacher beliefs on the abilities of performing the task, motivating and disciplining the students (Cherniss, 1993). On the other hand, the interpersonal domain involved the beliefs on working with others such as students, colleagues and supervisors in a harmony. Lastly, organizational domain involved the beliefs on influencing social and political powers of the organization (Cherniss, 1993). Without elaborating on the conceptualization of self-efficacy, he claimed that his model of self-efficacy could provide and understanding and prevent burnout (Cherniss, 1993).

Lastly, Friedman and Kass (2002) investigated teacher self-efficacy in terms of both classroom context consisting instructional goals and school context consisting organizational goals (Friedman & Kass, 2002) (Figure 3).
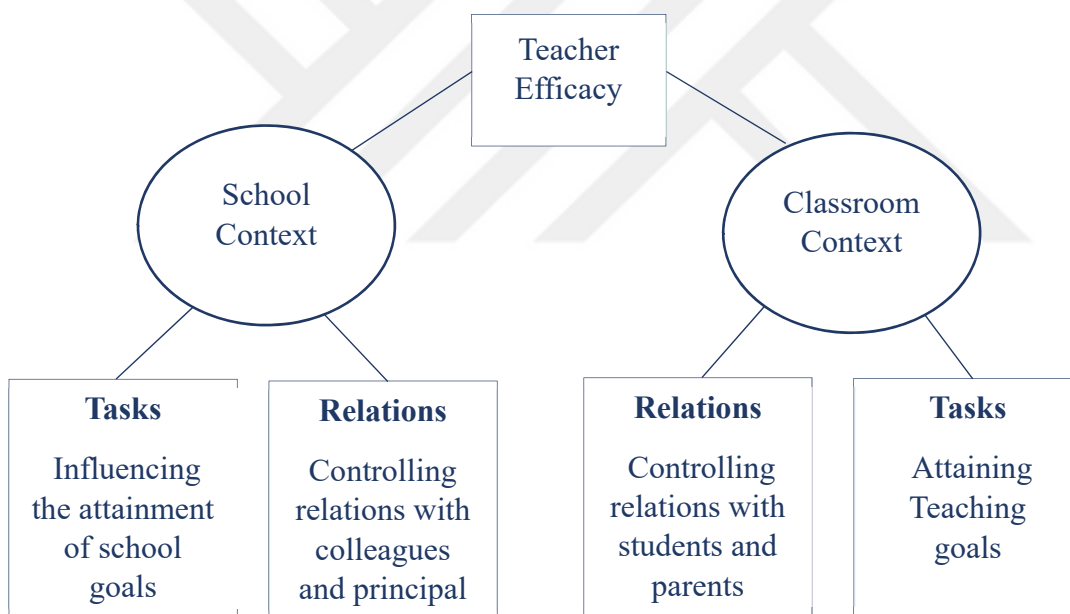
Figure 3. *The Classroom and School Context (CSC) Model of Teacher Self-efficacy (Friedman & Kass, 2002).*

As illustrated in Figure 3, Friedman and Kass (2002) developed the model of teacher self-efficacy, which extends the model of Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) by including organizational context. According to the model, teacher self-efficacy embodies the social systems which are the school and classrooms and people in these systems such as students, colleagues and principals (Friedman & Kass, 2002). In the classroom context, teachers carry out teaching duties, manage both formal and informal relationships with the students,

perform student-related tasks such as fostering learning, maintaining the discipline, setting clear goals, and ensuring student development by building assertive relationships with the students (Friedman & Kass, 2002). On the other hand, in the school context, teachers carry out the responsibilities of an organizational member such as actively being involved in the organizational tasks, participating in decision-making processes, building up positive relationships with other members, and developing a sense of commitment (Friedman & Kass, 2002). Therefore, teacher self-efficacy embraces two dimensions: benefitting students in the classroom context and benefitting the organization in the school context, both of which require performing professional tasks and creating interpersonal relationships (Freidman & Kass, 2002).

Concludingly, teacher self-efficacy has been investigated in terms of several domains such as tasks, relationships, classroom, organization (Bandura, 1997; Cherniss, 1993; Friedman & Kass, 2002). This study aims to investigate teacher self-efficacy in the organizational context and adopts the model provided by Friedman and Kass (2002). Therefore, the findings provided in this study aim to explain teacher self-efficacy at the organizational level since the study focuses on OE, leadership, teacher self-efficacy, OCB and organizational communication in the SFL context rather than the classroom context.

2.5.4. Related Studies on Teacher Self-Efficacy

The studies in the literature have revealed that teacher efficacy has been mostly examined in relation to classroom context and student outcomes such as success, motivation, student self-efficacy, instructional planning, employment of new methods, approach to student errors, working with struggling students, students of special education, enthusiasm for and commitment to teaching (Allinder, 1994; Anderson et al., 1988; Armor et al., 1976; Ashton & Webb, 1986; Burley et al, 1991; Dolgun, 2016; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Guskey, 1988; Hall et al., 1992; Solar Şekerci, 2011; Ulusoy, 2008). The results have revealed that strong teacher self-efficacy promotes student outcomes and the efforts invested in the classrooms (Allinder, 1994; Anderson et al., 1988; Armor et al., 1976; Ashton & Webb, 1986; Burley et al, 1991; Dolgun, 2016; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Guskey, 1988; Hall et al., 1992; Solar Şekerci, 2011; Ulusoy, 2008).

Apart from student outcomes and classroom context, the studies conducted abroad investigated teacher self-efficacy in relation to organizational policies (Fletcher, 1990), school climate (Alridge & Fraser, 2016; Damanik & Aldridge, 2017; Moore & Esselman, 1994; Reaves & Cozzens, 2018), leadership (Hipp & Bredeson, 1995), burnout (Friedman & Kass, 2002, Pas et al., 2012).

Regarding organizational policies, Fletcher (1990) investigated the relationship among teacher self-efficacy, instructional policies of the school, and the perception of student ability. The results revealed that teacher self-efficacy was influenced by the abilities of the student to learn, faculty policies and the perceptions of the faculty towards student behaviour (Fletcher, 1990). Fletcher implied that teacher participation in school decisions on curriculum and student groupings could affect teacher self-efficacy, which might have promoted positive school culture (Fletcher, 1990).

In terms of school climate, Moore and Esselman (1994) investigated the relationship of both personal and teaching self-efficacy of teachers to student achievement in terms of school climate, teacher power, collegiality among the school staff, and teaching obstacles. The results displayed that a positive school climate, school's reducing obstacles to effective teaching, and participation of teachers in decision-making processes promoted teachers' self-efficacy and a positive school climate was correlated to teacher self-efficacy (Moore & Esselman, 1994). The researchers recommended improving the school climate and offering teachers opportunities to take part in instructional and curricular decision-making (Moore & Esselman, 1994). Also, Damanik and Aldridge (2017) examined the relationship among teacher self-efficacy, four factors of school climate which were staff collegiality, goal consensus, pressure at work, resource sufficiency and staff independence, and six indicators of transformational leadership, which were interaction, participatory decision-making, support, intellectual stimulation and moral. According to the results, leadership styles and school climate were significantly and positively correlated to teacher self-efficacy (Damanik & Aldridge, 2017). The behaviours of the principals indirectly influenced the self-efficacy of the teachers and principals who showed support and understood the feelings and the needs of the teachers had a direct influence on the enhancement of self-efficacy (Damanik & Aldridge, 2017). Furthermore, The positive perceptions of the teachers towards collegiality promoted school effectiveness and their sense of self-efficacy and goal consensus resulted

in the development of organizational commitment which, also, promoted self-efficacy (Damanik & Aldridge, 2017). In another study, Reaves and Cozzens (2018) studied the correlations among teacher self-efficacy, school climate in the context of safety and support, and intrinsic motivation of teachers and revealed that the teachers who felt safe and supported in the school had higher intrinsic motivation and stronger self-efficacy in comparison to the teachers who felt the opposite. Additionally, the results showed that clear explanations from the principals regarding the school goals and expectations promoted motivation while being actively monitored by the principals had a positive impact on self-efficacy (Reaves & Cozzens, 2018).

Regarding the studies of teacher self-efficacy in relation to leadership, Hipp and Bredeson (1995) studied the relationship between the critical leadership behaviours of principals and teacher self-efficacy and the factors influencing general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy. According to the results, the teachers showed stronger personal self-efficacy than general self-efficacy, which was explained by the researchers as that the teachers believed having more control over their own performance and its impact on student outcomes than over the group performance and its impacts (Hipp & Bredeson, 1995). Promoting goals, being a role-model, providing rewards were among the behaviours that strengthen teacher self-efficacy; and, how the principals behave influences the staff more than what they say (Hipp & Bredeson, 1995). In another study, Alridge and Fraser (2016) examined the perceptions of teachers towards leadership and its relation to teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction in a high school context. The results of the analysis illustrated that teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction were positively correlated; the positive and supportive leadership styles of school principals, affiliation that referred to the assistance, encouragement, and acceptance obtained from teachers also positively influenced self-efficacy and job satisfaction of teachers (Alridge & Fraser, 2016). The researchers indicated that the school environment is strongly related to teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction, and self-efficacy and job satisfaction were highly influenced by principal support; therefore, they suggested that leaders needed to promote positive feelings among the staff and leadership support and teacher affiliation needed to be maximized (Alridge & Fraser, 2016).

In respect to teacher burnout and teacher self-efficacy, Friedman (2003) examined the relation between teacher burnout and the perceived self-efficacy of teachers. The

researcher investigated self-efficacy in two dimensions: classroom efficacy which was comprised of three factors: instruction, discipline, and relations and organization efficacy which was comprised of two factors: inclusion and influence; and, he investigated burnout in three dimensions: exhaustion, failure, and depersonalization. The results revealed that burnout and teacher self-efficacy were negatively correlated, and the organization could result in or prevent burnout, in other words, the organization could be the source of support, job security, and professionalism or it could be a burden when the teacher did not have faith in the organization (Friedman, 2003). Moreover, according to the results, the influence of the organization, teachers' involvement in organizational decisions, and communication among colleagues and administrators influenced teacher self-efficacy at the organizational level while teachers' ability to value students as people, understanding the psychological and social needs of the students influenced it at the classroom level (Friedman, 2003). Furthermore, Pas et al. (2012) investigated the impact of school and teacher factors on the emergence of burnout and a sense of self-efficacy. The researchers revealed that the sense of self-efficacy and burnout increased over the years, which also displayed that burnout increased faster than self-efficacy (Pas et al., 2012). Also, teacher preparedness, which referred to teachers' feeling prepared for handling challenges about instruction and classroom management and supportive leadership were positively correlated to teacher self-efficacy and negatively to burnout (Pas et al., 2012).

In Turkish context, teacher self-efficacy has been mostly studied in relationship with different dimensions, as well. Since the current study focuses on school context rather than classroom practices, the studies explained below regard teacher self-efficacy in wider aspects such as school climate, job satisfaction, teacher burnout, stress, organizational citizenship behaviours, and communication (Ay & Uğurlu, 2016; Buluç & Demir, 2015; Çelik & Konan, 2021; Doğan, 2014; Gündoğan & Koçak, 2017; Mızrak, 2019; Yücel et al., 2009).

Regarding the studies of teacher self-efficacy in relation to job satisfaction, Buluç and Demir (2015) revealed that teachers benefitted from the feedback of students, principals, and colleagues to promote their self-efficacy, they critically analysed their work-related operations. In addition, they showed the lowest self-efficacy for contributing to school improvement while the strongest self-efficacy for self-evaluation and they were satisfied

with their job at a moderate level (Buluç & Demir, 2015). Furthermore, teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction were positively correlated at a medium level and job satisfaction was a significant indicator of teacher self-efficacy (Buluç & Demir, 2015). In another study, Telef (2011) examined the relation of teacher self-efficacy to job satisfaction, life satisfaction and teacher burnout along with the possible differences in the relationship in demographic features. The study displayed that teacher self-efficacy was significantly and positively correlated with job and life satisfaction while negatively correlated with teacher burnout (Telef, 2011).

Regarding OCB, Yücel et al. (2009) examined the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and OCB in terms of organizational justice, burnout, and alienation. The results displayed that teacher self-efficacy explained 48 % of OCB and 78 % of altruism behaviours resulted from strong self-efficacy, which indicated that teachers with strong self-efficacy tended to offer work-related help and support to colleagues, to spend extra time and effort for the success of the organization, to focus on solving the problems (Yücel et al., 2009). The teachers with high self-efficacy in affecting others tended to share their ideas more enthusiastically, guide others, promote collaboration among the teachers, and motivate others (Yücel et al., 2009). On the other hand, the teachers with strong self-efficacy in discipline tended to take their job more seriously and work meticulously in order to maintain the order in the class, encourage students to follow the orders, manage difficult students (Yücel et al., 2009). In another study, Çelik and Konan (2021) examined the relationship among self-efficacy of teachers, principals' empowering leadership and OCB. The results of the analysis illustrated that empowering leadership behaviours significantly and positively influenced OCBs along with teacher self-efficacy and OCBs and teacher self-efficacy reciprocally influenced each other in a positive way (Çelik & Konan, 2021). Researchers indicated that empowering teachers to take more responsibilities, share their opinions, and take part in decision-making promote teacher self-efficacy by offering opportunities to have first-hand experiences of success, motivating, supporting and mentoring them (Çelik & Konan, 2021). Additionally, teachers with strong self-efficacy might exhibit more extra-role behaviours since attributes and beliefs are significant predictors of behaviours while empowering leadership might indirectly influence OCBs since empowering practices do not guarantee empowering attitudes of teachers (Çelik & Konan, 2021). Therefore, teacher self-efficacy is a mediator between empowering leadership and OCB for the reason that

empowering leadership promotes teacher self-efficacy that directly influences OCBs (Çelik & Konan, 2021).

Regarding the studies relating teacher self-efficacy to burnout, Doğan (2014) explored self-efficacy and stress levels of 151 English language instructors working at 7 universities around Turkey and revealed that the instructors exhibited strong self-efficacy for classroom management strategies whereas less strong efficacy for student engagement. Also, the results displayed that the instructors felt more stressed because of organizational reasons such as working for long hours, having too much paperwork than instructional reasons and there was a small negative correlation between teacher stress due to organizational reasons and self-efficacy (Doğan, 2014). In another study, Mızrak (2019) investigated the relationship between the self-efficacy of English language instructors working at a state university in Turkey and their burnout. According to the results, there was a moderate and negative correlation between self-efficacy and burnout and the instructors had a high level of self-efficacy (Mızrak, 2019). On the other hand, they displayed moderate level burnout in terms of emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment while high level burnout in terms of depersonalization (Mızrak, 2019).

As for the only study relating teacher self-efficacy to organizational communication, to the knowledge of the researcher, Ay and Uğurlu (2016) aimed to determine the level of interpersonal self-efficacy and informal communication perceptions of primary, secondary and high school teachers and explain the relationship between them. The data analysis revealed that there was a significant and positive correlation between interpersonal self-efficacy and informal communication at a low level (Ay & Uğurlu, 2016). Additionally, the interpersonal self-efficacy level of teachers was high in terms of classroom management, principal support, and support from colleagues, of which teachers had the strongest self-efficacy for support from colleagues and teachers performed high-level informal communication in terms of building friendships, acquiring information, influencing others and having fun (Ay & Uğurlu, 2016). Furthermore, the results, also, indicated that a strong sense of interpersonal self-efficacy was a predictor of strong informal communication skills and positive relationships with colleagues promoted teacher self-efficacy. Finally, the study revealed that the teachers were more hesitant to establish relationships with the principals

than the teachers and a high level of self-efficacy partly resulted from the positive feedback and communication from all stakeholders of the school (Ay & Uğurlu, 2016).

All in all, the literature review revealed that there is a very limited number of studies investigating teacher self-efficacy in the context of SFL. Also, there is no study that examined the relationship of teacher self-efficacy to OE, leadership, OCB and organizational communication at the same time.

2.6. Communication

Last but not least, organizational communication is another significant variable investigated in this study. Communication which is an essential qualification for the existence of not only organizations but also societies has been defined from different perspectives depending on the emphasis that researchers make and the field they study in. Fiske (1996) states that communication is an action of humans that is known by everyone but satisfactorily defined by very few people. In the most basic form, it is the process of a senders' sending a message and a receiver's receiving it (Rogala & Bialowas, 2016). However, considering the complexity of the process, it has been defined differently based on the perspectives of the researchers (Castells, 1996; Comfort, 2007; Sfard, 2008).

Mainly, three theoretical perspectives which are technical, contextual, and negotiation-related guide communication studies (Baker, 2007). The first view is related to the information theory and it aims to reveal how an information source transmits a message to a destination with minimum errors (Baker, 2007). Within this perspective, the transmission of the message is usually displayed as a mechanistic system (Shannon & Weaver, as cited in Baker, 2007). However, due to the intention of using the design in technical systems, the researchers neglected the social, psychological and semantic aspects of communication (Rogala & Bialowas, 2016). Therefore, they have been criticised for misleading the nature of communication since they illustrate communication as unidirectional, ignore the context, prioritize the interlocutor and highly ignore the receiver (Berlo, 1960; Sperber & Wilson, 1986). According to the model, the source creates a message, the message is transmitted into signals, and sent to the receiver by means of a channel (Rogala & Bialowas, 2016). Then, the receiver decodes the signal and relays the

message to the destination (Rogala & Bialowas, 2016). Noise source, on the other hand, refers to the elements that might disrupt or even prevent the transmission of the message (Rogala & Bialowas, 2016).

On the other hand, the second view on communication focuses on the relational context between the sender and the receiver, which are nonverbal cues, besides the accurate exchange of messages (Baker, 2007). In this regard, according to Blumer (1972) and Mead (1934), communication is the symbolic interaction which creates meaning in terms of the sense of self and society; hence, discourse patterns are related to the patterns of social relations rather than only interpersonal exchange of messages, or sequences of the exchange (Baker, 2007). Therefore, communication is shaped based on the discourse which is the collective and interpersonal representations of inter-subjective and contextual validity (Baker, 2007).

As for the last view, Lazega (1992) focuses on how communication is negotiated and states that interlocutors socially negotiate the appropriateness of the message during transmission in terms of three situational indicators (Lazega, 1992). Firstly, the interlocutor evaluates the receiver's identity to predict the reaction and the interpretation of the message (Lazega, 1992). Secondly, the interlocutor legitimizes their own actions by predicting the receiver's expectations (Lazega, 1992). Finally, the interlocutor organizes the claims by acknowledging the sources of accountability which are assumed by legitimations or endorsements of others (Lazega, 1992).

Other than the theoretical perspectives, 'process' has also been emphasised in the definitions of communication (Berlo, 1960; Hawes, 1973). The researchers who emphasise 'process' in their definitions claim that the act of communicating occurs over time, it is dynamic and ongoing, it requires understanding because the meanings of the messages which could be verbal or non-verbal need to be interpreted and comprehended, and it requires sharing because interaction is required to exchange meaning (Pearson & Nelson, 2000). In this regard, they claim that the process of communication does not have pre-determined sequences, beginnings, and ends (Berlo, 1960, as cited in Pearson & Nelson, 2000).

Considering the perspectives and the elements of the communication stated in the literature, this study adopts a definition of communication as that it is a process of reciprocal acts which are facilitated to intentionally express opinions, and emotions by means of messages that could be in verbal and nonverbal forms and which requires the active involvement of both parties as the sender and receivers.

2.6.1. Components of Communication

As indicated in the definitions, in order for communication to occur, particular components which are dependent on each other, must be present because the following component of the previous interact operates as the prior component of the next interact (Hawes, 1973; Losee, 1999). In this regard, Berlo (1960) developed Sender Message Channel Receiver (SCMR) model and listed de facto components of communication, which was praised by numerous researchers for its usefulness and including social context (Al-Kindi, 2009; Flensburg, 2009; Rogers, 2001; Wrench et al. 2015) (Figure 4).

Source	Message	Channel	Receiver
Encoding →		Decoding →	
-Communication Skills -Attitudes -Knowledge -Social System Culture	-Content -Elements -Treatment -Structure -Code	-Hearing -Seeing -Touching -Smelling -Tasting	-Communication Skills -Attitudes -Knowledge -Social System -Culture
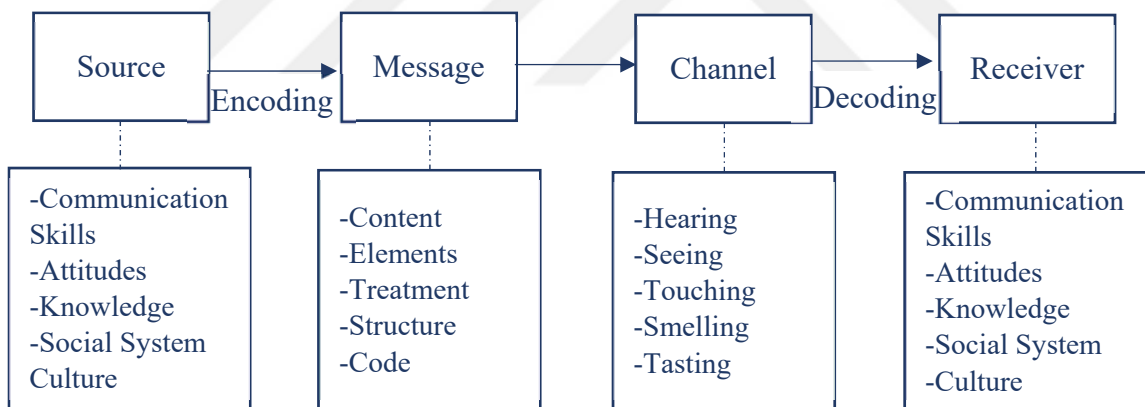
Figure 4. *SMCR Model of Communication (Berlo, 1960).*

As illustrated in Figure 4, SMCR model of communication lists the fundamental ingredients, which are built upon the components of Shannon-Weaver model (1949). According to the model, the source encodes a message, transmits it by means of a channel and the receiver decodes it (Berlo, 1960). He states that all the elements are interconnected, and they are required to be present to facilitate effective communication (Berlo, 1960). Figure 4 displays that the model differs from the one developed by Shannon and Weaver (1949) for not including the concept of noise, which is the factors distracting the channel.

However, Berlo (1960) broadens the concept of noise in his model and states that factors which have an impact on the effectiveness of communication are not particular to the channel, they can take place for each element of the communication. The fundamental elements of communication based on the model of Berlo (1960) are explained in detail below.

Source

The communication process starts with the source which could be a person, or a group with an aim or reason to engage in communication (Berlo, 1960). The source as the starter of the communication encodes a message and transmits it to the receiver by means of particular channels with the intention of getting a desired response (Berlo, 1960). However, the communication skills, attitudes, knowledge level and the position within socio-cultural system of the source determine the effectiveness of the source in communication (Berlo, 1960).

Communication skills determine how the opinions, aims, intentions are analysed in brain and how they are encoded to express what is intended (Berlo, 1960). To give an example, communication through speaking requires thoughts, the knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, the pronunciation of the words, how to use gestures, how to interpret the responses (Berlo, 1960). On the other hand, attitudes represent the dispositions, tendencies and desires to approach or avoid communication (Berlo, 1960). The attitudes towards self, the subject and/or receiver affect the communication behaviour (Berlo, 1960). As another factor, the knowledge on the subject, also, affects the communication since an individual cannot communicate with a maximum effectiveness on the content that she or he does not understand (Berlo, 1960). Finally, socio-cultural background of a person determines the roles, functions, status, class, perceptions, beliefs, and behaviours, and, naturally, it affects the ways people communicate (Berlo, 1960).

Message

The message which is the aim of the source, represents the translation of the elements such as opinions, aims, intentions into codes which could be in verbal or non-verbal forms

(Berlo, 1960). When organizing the message, the factors related to the source and the receiver, which are communication skills, knowledge, attitudes, socio-cultural background determine how the message is treated and shaped (Berlo, 1960). By taking the factors into consideration, the source intentionally structures the elements, which are bits of information or opinion, to build a content by means of the codes in verbal or non-verbal forms such as language, music (Berlo, 1960) within the purpose of the receiver comprehending the idea in the same way (Wrench et al., 2015).

Encoder

The encoder, which was named as transmitter by Shannon and Weaver (1949), is responsible for the process of translating and expressing the opinions, goals, intentions of the source in the form of a message (Berlo, 1960). In other words, encoding involves developing meaning by means of symbols. Therefore, the process of encoding depends on the motor skills of the source such as muscle systems, which could produce gestures, pictures, written words or vocal systems which can produce music, oral words (Berlo, 1960). During encoding, the source should make sure that the codes are comprised of symbols known by the receiver or that the codes that the receivers are unfamiliar with are explained by the source (Güney, 2007). Also the meanings attributed in the codes by the source should match with the meanings perceived by the receiver (Güney, 2007).

Channel

After the messages are encoded, they are transmitted by means of channels which are carriers and mediums (Berlo, 1960). According to Wrench et al. (2015), the channels can take verbal, non-verbal or mediated forms. While verbal channels involve oral words representing the idea, non-verbal channels include stimuli which elicit meanings not expressed in oral words such as gestures, sounds, posture, smell (Wrench et al., 2015). For clear understanding, the sounds should have the same intended meanings for the source and the receiver (Wrench et al., 2015). However, according to the research, 65 to 95 % of understanding verbal messages depend on non-verbal behaviours along with verbal messages (Wrench et al., 2008, as cited in Wrench et al., 2015). On the other hand, mediated

channels refer to transmission of a message by means of technological devices such as prints, video, texts, audio (Wrench et al., 2015).

While choosing the channel, the source should consider the best option for the receiver to decode the message which could be in forms of seeing, hearing, touching and even tasting and smelling (Berlo, 1960). Therefore, in choosing the most appropriate channel, motor skills of the resource and the sensory skills of the receiver should be taken into account (Berlo, 1960). Besides the skills of the receiver and the source, the content of the message should also be considered (Berlo, 1960).

Decoder

As encoding is required for the source to translate opinions and aims into messages, the receivers need decoding in order to translate and interpret the messages into a form which they can use (Berlo, 1960). While encoding includes motor skills to produce a message, decoding involves sensory skills to interpret the messages (Berlo, 1960). During decoding, the receivers apply some filters which take active part in the interpretation of the message received based on their experiences, needs, aims, emotions, beliefs and values (Tutar, 2009).

Receiver

For communication to take place, there needs to be a target, which is the receiver, at the end of the chain who decodes the message of the source which is carried by a channel (Berlo, 1960). Therefore, the content, the code and the channel must be familiar to the receiver because the existence of the resource for the occurrence of communication is justified by the existence of the receiver (Berlo, 1960).

On the other hand, similar to the factors that affect the communication in terms of the source, communication skills, attitudes, knowledge and the socio-cultural background of the receiver affects communication, as well (Berlo, 1960). In terms of communication skills, a receiver who is not able to listen, read or think cannot decode the messages transmitted from the source as intended (Berlo, 1960). Regarding the second factor, the attitudes of the receiver towards self, the source and the message influence the fidelity of communication

(Berlo, 1960). As for another factor, the knowledge, a receiver who does not know the code, the content of the message or the nature of communication fails to comprehend the nature of communication and is likely to misinterpret the messages with false inferences (Berlo, 1960). Lastly, the socio-cultural background of the receiver determines how the message is interpreted (Berlo, 1960).

Response

Communication is interdependent in four levels: definitional and physical, action-reaction, empathy, and interaction (Berlo, 1960). At definitional and physical level, the existence of the source reciprocally makes the existence of the receiver possible (Berlo, 1960). At the action-reaction level, the source creates an action and the receiver reacts to it; the reaction is referred as a response (Berlo, 1960). Considering a situation that two people sitting in a café where the source asks the receiver to order coffee and the receiver orders, the source creates an action by asking to order and the receiver shows a reaction by ordering the coffee. In this situation, the response of the receiver by ordering coffee provides feedback for the source on her or his transmission of the message and it shapes the future actions (Berlo, 1960). When sources get positive feedback, they tend to go on producing same kinds of messages; however, when the feedback is not rewarding, they change how they produce the messages (Berlo, 1960). Therefore, the awareness of the feedback increases the effectiveness of communication. At the empathy level, the image of the receiver is a significant indicator for the source to transmit messages; just like, the image of the source is a key factor for the receiver to interpret messages (Berlo, 1960). On the other hand, people demonstrate empathy by projecting themselves into the personalities of others, putting themselves into others' shoes to anticipate their responses (Berlo, 1960) Finally, at the interaction level, the subsequent responses are shaped based on the reciprocal interactions between the source and the receiver (Berlo, 1960). The difference between interaction level and action-reaction level is that the communicational acts of both the source and receiver are interrelated with each other and the parties perform empathetic behaviours by reciprocally taking roles at interactional level while actions cause reactions at the latter level (Berlo, 1960).

2.6.2. Communication in Organizations

Organizations which are created and directed by human beings are consciously coordinated social systems; therefore, survival, success, efficiency, and effectiveness are dependent on the members of the organization as well as rivals and the society (Barnard, 1938; Hogan, 2004; Hoy & Ferguson, 1985). In this regard, communication which is the only way of interacting at micro and macro levels is a key component for the survival of organizations (Al-Kindi, 2019) and for the contribution to or detraction from organizational excellence (Shockley-Zalabak, 2014).

In this regard, organizational communication is the process that takes place within certain rules in order to ensure coordination, information flow, motivation, integration, decision-making, and supervision among the departments in the management and production periods that are vital for goal attainment and proper functioning (Solmaz, 2004). Additionally, organizational communication provides unity, prevents problems that affect proper functioning and ensures that all elements interact in line with the organizational goals (Gürgen, 1997). Furthermore, organizational communication promotes establishing strong organizational culture, identity, and citizenship, building up professional relationships with all stakeholders and developing an understanding of global communication approaches, tools, and technologies (Goodman, 2000). In this regard, organizational communication has three primary functional goals (Myers & Myers, 1982, as cited in Baker, 2007). Firstly, it aims to regulate and coordinate the production activities, which requires reciprocal, lateral, and dynamic acts of communication among all members (Myers & Myers, 1982, as cited in Baker, 2007). Secondly, it aims to promote socialisation, which requires reciprocal acts of communication to ensure that organizational goals are aligned with the individuals' (Myers & Myers, 1982, as cited in Baker, 2007). Lastly, it aims to foster innovation, which requires communication to take place both internally and externally to keep up with the changes in the world and cope with the demands of the societies in order to survive (Myers & Myers, 1982, as cited in Baker, 2007).

All the features related to communication in organizations also apply in schools since they are, in nature, educational organizations (Türker, 2021). Therefore, communication is the fundamental factor for the proper functioning of schools where human interaction is the

cornerstone. Considering that the ultimate goal of schools is to ensure academic success and behavioural change (Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Schereens, 2000), which can only be facilitated when there is a reciprocal understanding between parts, communication plays a significant role in the effectiveness of the schools change (Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Schereens, 2000). Additionally, from a broader aspect, schools serve for the proper functioning of social life, enhancing and ensuring sustainable development (Erdem, 2013). Therefore, adapting to the advances requires effective communication with all stakeholders such as government agencies, staff of other schools, and employers to meet the demands of society.

2.6.3. Types of Communication

Depending on the aim, communication can be facilitated mainly in two forms: formal and informal (Bektaş & Erdem, 2015; Orpen, 1997; Zhu et al. 2004). Formally, it occurs within rules and limits while informally, it occurs as a result of relationships among the staff without definite structures and rules (Güney, 2005; Gürgen, 1997). Although they are identified as one-dimensional and separate constructs by some researchers (Anderson & Narus, 1984, as cited in Kandlousi et al., 2010; Carriere & Bourque, 2009, as cited in Kandlousi et al., 2010; Litterst & Eyo, 1982, as cited in Kandlousi et al., 2010), they are mutually complementary (Tutar, 2003).

Formal Communication

In order to accomplish decision-making tasks, prescribe job descriptions, display flow of order, and ensure accessing accurate and proper information, each organization establishes structures which are typically illustrated by organizational charts (Lunenburg, 2010; Mcphee, 1985). Communication, which is based on organizational structure (hierarchical authority), aligned with organizational goals and facilitated to provide rational information related to responsibilities and duties of organization members within the organizational rules constitutes formal communication in organizations (Karcıoğlu et al., 2009; Tutar, 2003). Therefore, patterns of formal communication in an organization can be inferred by knowing the organizational chart, which shows formal connections (Argyris, 2011; Evertt & Rekha, 1976; Lunenburg, 2010).

In the light of the information given above, the flow of instruction and information passed by means of formal communication can be facilitated in three directions: vertical, horizontal and diagonal (Baker, 2007; Certo, 1989).

Vertical Communication: This type of communication process takes place between hierarchically positioned members of the organization and involves downward or upward flows (Baker, 2007). Downward communication, which is the dominant process in organizations, transmits information from higher positioned members to lower positioned members (Lunenburg, 2010). Similarly, in schools, this type of communication constitutes the traditional flow of information (Türker, 2021). The information which is usually in written form is transmitted from the principals to the teachers. Downward communication aims to implement goals and strategies, instructions, and procedures, to provide performance feedback and to socialize for the purpose of motivating staff and fostering commitment (Canary, 2011, as cited in Lunenburg, 2010). However, the intended message might be distorted and some parts might get lost when the information travels a lot from the sender to the receiver, in other words, when too many members are involved in the transmission of the message to the ultimate receiver (Tourish, 2010, as cited in Lunenburg, 2010). Upward communication, on the contrary, refers to the transmission of the message from the staff to the administrator based on the hierarchical order, which usually occurs to provide feedback for the message received top-down and to determine whether the decisions of the administrators are implemented (Demir, 2014; Lunenburg, 2010; Sabuncuoğlu & Gümüş, 2008). In the school context, the communication facilitated by the teachers and addressed to the principals is an example of upward communication. According to Canary (2011, as cited in Lunenburg, 2010) the types of messages transmitted bottom-up by means of upward communication aim to provide information to the superiors on problems, expectations, suggestions, performance reports, and complaints of the staff. However, upward communication tends to fail to flow as smoothly as downward communication when administrators are defensive about imperfect actions and negative feedback, they neglect to respond to the messages, or there are physical barriers (e.g. availability of the administrators in the office), and delays in transmitting the message (Cheney, 2011, as cited in Lunenburg, 2010). In order to avoid problems, vertical communication should involve both downward and upward directions, the parts of the communication need to pay attention and be willing to interact, and open-minded.

Horizontal Communication: Besides being informative as vertical communication, this type of communication which occurs between members who are positioned at the same level aims to ensure coordination, promote cooperation, spread knowledge and information, and prevent conflicts within and among the departments (Lunenburg, 2010; Sabuncuoğlu & Tüz, 2008; Tutar, 2003). In this regard, participants interact to convince each other rather than ordering (Şimşek, 1997). Therefore, it fosters the unity in the organization, saves time and effort, and promotes altruism (Akıncı, 1998). Also, it might be facilitated intradeparmentally or interdepartmentally regardless of consulting or sending the message to a superior as an initial step (Lunenburg, 2010; Tutar, 2003). Consequently, it occurs more casually and quickly than vertical communication because hierarchical status is not a barrier between the participants. Therefore, the majority of the information is spread in the organization by means of horizontal communication channels (Baron & Greenberg, 1990; Newman et al., 1967).

Diagonal Communication: Diagonal communication refers to the interactions between members from different levels and departments who do not have a direct relationship with each other (Baker, 2007; Şimşek, 1997). For instance, diagonal communication is facilitated when an instructor of the SFL and a professor from a different department discuss the planning of a seminar. Channels of this type of communication are employed to accelerate the flow of information, enrich understanding, and coordinate efforts to attain goals (Şimşek, 1997). It, also, ensures that the departments are kept informed on operations, enables different units or departments to understand their responsibilities to each other, saves time in finding solutions in case of emergencies, and fosters altruism (Candan, 1999; Şimşek, 1997). Although this type of communication enables active participation of all members, it has the risk of creating organizational disorder if such channels are employed so unnecessarily that it becomes time-consuming, or high-level organizational member of a department gives orders to the members of different departments (Candan, 1999; Sabuncuoğlu, 1984).

Informal Communication

Unlike formal communication, informal communication involves voluntary, social interactions which do not only focus on task-related subjects or the needs of organization

(Fay, & Kline, 2012). Therefore, this kind of communication is less rational and rule-dependent than formal communication, and, it is based on social relationships among people without regarding the hierarchical order (Johnson, 1993, as cited in Alparslan & Kılınç, 2015; Guffy et al., 2005, as cited in Kandlousi et al., 2010). Informal communication, which can be facilitated face-to-face and virtually by means of channels such as grapevine, informal visits, unofficial discussions, rumours, jokes, and social events, occurs simultaneously to socialise, and build relationships so as to meet communication needs. Furthermore, it promotes being visible at work as well as job satisfaction and organizational culture (Johnson et al., 1995), which ultimately benefits the organization (Akintunde & Selbar, 1995).

In terms of other organizational benefits, employees tend to rely on informal communication when formal communication does not provide sufficient information, that they feel threatened, insecure or that management's acts of communication are limited (Gray & Laidlaw, 2002; Gilsdorf, 1998; Kandlousi et al., 2010). Therefore, it compensates for the weaknesses of formal communication by completing the gaps which formal communication fails to close and meet the informative needs of the staff (Gray & Laidlaw, 2002; Gilsdorf, 1998; Kandlousi et al., 2010). Furthermore, informal communication channels provide feedback to employees on administrative decisions, operations and interventions (Glower, 2011).

However, informal communication, which is not constructive, might cause harm as well as benefits to the organizations. Since members tend to facilitate informal communication with people whom they feel close to, the communication might result in unintentional groupings in the organizations. The grouping might turn into discipline problems (Alparslan & Kılınç, 2015). Gossips and rumours might cause false information to spread as well as might lead to disruptions and weaken the order of the organization (Memduhoğlu & Saylık, 2012, as cited in Alparslan & Kılınç, 2015). Moreover, spending too much time on informal communication decreases the effectiveness of the performance, negatively impacts organizational culture, climate, and good social relations (Bektaş & Erdem, 2015).

2.6.4. Instruments for Organizational Communication

Besides the type of communication instruments employed are a key indicator to determine the quality and effectiveness of the communication facilitated in an organization. Communication instruments which are also called communication techniques are methods of communicating information by means of specific channels which are adopted intentionally and consciously based on particular rules and procedures (Potocki et al. 2011, as cited in Rogala & Biowalas, 2016). They have been categorized differently in terms of different criteria such as the medium, direction, degree of interaction, and the reason (Rogala & Biowalas, 2016). However, medium of communication is the most commonly used classification criteria, which is comprised of tools in four categories: written, verbal, non-verbal, and electronic (Radhaswamy & Zia, 2011; Şahan, 2017; Topaloğlu & Koç, 2002; Tutar & Yılmaz, 2008). Organizations' mission, vision, policies, financial resources, and goals are considered in choosing the proper communication tool besides the qualifications of the staff (Yorulmaz, 2001).

Written Instruments: Written communication tools involve all written messages transmitted within or among the organizations such as feedback, reports, letters, articles, handbooks, notes, press releases, and contracts. There are several reasons for the employment of written instruments in organizations. Firstly, written communication offers the durability of the information transmitted (Karabulut, 2014; Rogala & Biowalas, 2016; Şimşek, 1997). In formal communication, the message is transmitted to receivers based on hierarchical order, which might involve passing the information through several people before reaching the ultimate receiver. Communicating by means of written tools minimizes the risk of disruption of the information. Secondly, written communication tools provide proof for the decisions, and operations in the organizations. It creates legal responsibilities for organizational members such as job descriptions, and temporary task assignments,ensures that standard processes are provided for all members in the organization (Selimoğlu, 2004), and prevents the denial of the information (Gürgen, 1997, as cited in Demir, 2014). Thirdly, written communication enables the source to revise, edit or change the message before transmitting it to the receiver (Gürgen, 1997, as cited in Demir, 2014). It allows time for the source to choose the appropriate codes such as words or graphics in order to minimize the misinterpretation and maximise the clarity of the message. Also, unlike

verbal communication tools, written communication is not limited to the possibility of reaching the receiver only once, which allows the receiver to revise the message transmitted and minimize misinterpretation (Şimşek, 1997). Finally, written communication sets examples for future operations by enabling organizations to revise previous incidents and their consequences. Despite the advantages, written communication has some disadvantages, as well. It increases the paperwork, slows down the transmission of the messages due to following the hierarchal order, causes waste of time and misinterpretations since written communication does not always involve an instant response or the message itself is not clear (Gürgen, 1997, as cited in Demir, 2014).

Verbal Instruments: Verbal instruments are comprised of tools through which communication is facilitated by spoken words. Most of the interactions in an organization occur by means of verbal instruments, which indicates the significance of verbal communication in organizations (Koontz et al., 1986). Meetings, seminars, verbal reports, discussions, interviews, small talks, phone calls, and gossiping can be given as examples of verbal communication tools (Kuşçu, 2014; Rogala & Biolawas, 2016; Serttaş Ertike, 2012). Verbal communication tools enable instant responses for the messages transmitted and a faster flow of information (Robbins & Judge, 2012; Sisk, 1973). Consequently, instant transmission of the message saves time. In addition, the response of the receiver provides feedback for the source to revise the utterances to make sure that the message is interpreted clearly while the receiver can check the correction of the interpretation, all of which increase the effectiveness of the communication. However, there are, also, some disadvantages and risks of verbal communication tools. Firstly, they are not permanent like written communication tools (Evans, 1978, as cited in Şimşek, 1997); therefore, they are not officially binding and the information might get lost in time. Secondly, the communication process becomes difficult to control when too many people participate (Evans, 1978, as cited in Şimşek, 1997). When too many people start talking at the same time in meetings, the messages cannot be transmitted to the receiver successfully or the source cannot make sure that the message is interpreted correctly by everyone when there are too many listeners. Thirdly, in case of time constraints, the quality of decision-making decreases (Evans, 1978, as cited in Şimşek, 1997). Since verbal communication tools require the instant transmission of messages and responses, the participants might give quick and poor decisions or they might assume that they have interpreted the message accurately while they have actually

misinterpreted it. Finally, the participants might suffer from negative reactions during the communication process. Since verbal communication occurs simultaneously and feedback is provided instantly, encountering negative reactions might affect the quality of communication.

Non-verbal Instruments: When verbal communication tools fail to express emotions, non-verbal techniques such as gestures, mimics, intonation, posture, dressing, and physical distance between the parts get involved in communication to strengthen verbal communication (Gürgen, 1997, as cited in Demir, 2014; Tutar & Yılmaz, 2003). They offer hints for the parts on how the messages transmitted or the response provided is meant to feel. As Cüceloğlu (1999, as cited in Demir, 2014) stated, verbal communication serves for reason and logic while non-verbal communication serves for emotions and relationships. From another point, according to Krizan et al. (2010, as cited in Şahan, 2017), non-verbal communication mostly occurs unintentionally, as a result of assumptions and prejudices and it is more accurate than verbal communication.

Electronic Instruments: Today, electronic tools such as websites, e-mails, instant messaging applications, video calls, podcasts, online journals, and bulletins offer most of the communication functions verbal and written tools provide and they are an indispensable part of organizational communication with many advantages. Electronic tools provide high-speed message exchange (Demir, 2014), which saves time and workload. Transmission of the information on paper might take several hours, even days depending on the pacing of shipment within the organization. Yet, it takes seconds to deliver by means of electronic tools. Also, they eliminate time and place restrictions. Thanks to online applications or platforms, verbal communication can be facilitated interactively and simultaneously regardless of time and place barriers. Moreover, they combine the disadvantages of different instruments. For instance, video calls enable the facilitation of non-verbal communication as well as verbal communication at the same time. Besides saving time and workload, the tools also save financial costs of stationary purchases such as papers, inks, staplers, and stamps. Despite the advantages, electronic tools create some challenges, as well. The members who are not good at communication technologies might feel nervous and fail to facilitate healthy communication. Also, the elimination of distance and time barriers might

increase the burden of members who are expected by superiors to respond immediately without acknowledging the availability or the workload.

All in all, the structure of the organization contributes to the functioning of the communication processes in organizations; nevertheless, choosing the proper communication tools enables the healthy functioning of these processes. Proper tools, which ensure the fast transmission of the message to the receiver accurately and effectively, resulting in goal attainment, promoting the achievement of consensus and positive relationships among the stakeholders (Şahan, 2017) as well as fostering the enhancement of organizational culture (Vural & Coşkun, 2007).

2.6.5. Barriers to Organizational Communication

In the literature, researchers have classified the barriers to effective communication differently (Eisenberg, 2010; Lunenburg, 2010; Sabuncuoğlu & Gümüş, 2008; Şimşek et al, 2014; Tutar, 2003). Eisenberg (2010) and Lunenburg (2010) categorized them as process, physical, semantic, and psychological. Sabuncuoğlu and Gümüş (2008) listed technical, socio-psychological, and organizational disruptions as communication barriers. According to Tutar (2003), characteristics of the participants, communication tools and channels, the environment, the distance between the participants, and the differences in the hierarchical order are the classifications of communication barriers. Finally, Şimşek et al. (2014) listed personality characteristics, physical features, symbols used in communication, cultural differences between the participants, time restraints, prejudice and perceptual selectivity as possible barriers to communication. To put it in a nutshell, possible barriers listed by researchers do not provide de facto lists considering that communication is a dynamic act of humans; yet, they can offer insight. From a broad perspective, this study classifies the barriers into three categories: socio-psychological, technical, and organizational.

Psychological and social reasons are communication barriers that are directly associated with the participants who take part in the communication process (Pektaş, 2019). Socio-psychological barriers might stem from "fields of experience", "filtering", or, "psychological distance" (Antos, 2011, as cited in Lunenburg, 2010, p. 5). Fields of experience involve the differences in demographic background, perceptions, beliefs,

prejudices, needs, and expectations between the participants (Lunenburg, 2010). Insufficiency of shared experience between the parts creates barriers to effective communication. Both the source and the receiver might have different perceptions towards the messages which causes miscommunication because the source creates a message based on experiences while, similarly, the receiver interprets it by benefitting from their own experiences. To give an example, a director who is a professor in the engineering department and assigned to the SFL by the rectorate of the university might fail to facilitate effective communication with the instructors of the SFL on the curriculum due to the lack of shared knowledge between the participants. In regard to filtering, emotional and psychological states of people lead to filtering the message being transmitted and guide what to interpret (Lunenburg, 2010). To give an example, instructors are sometimes asked by their superiors to attend seminars held by other departments; however, the messages transmitted by the speakers are filtered and ignored by the instructors and the communication process fails due to the fact that the topics are out their interests. As for another reason for filtering, people tend to distort the messages when passing them to another person by condensation, which refers to transmitting a shorter, less detailed version of the message than the original (Bedeian et al., 1983). Lastly, psychological distance which is similar to physical distance, refers to building barriers considering hierarchical positions (Lunenburg, 2010). In this regard, effective communication can be hindered when a superior talks down to a member who feels offended (Lunenburg, 2010). Participants' extreme attitudes toward each other will reflect in their acts of communication such as choosing the codes of the message or interpretation of it, and it will set up barriers to effective communication (Sabuncuoğlu & Gümüş, 2008).

As a second category, technical problems refer to the barriers resulting from communication channels and instruments. The faults in channels or tools cause delays in the transmission of the message, misinterpretations, or even the disappearance of the information (Pektaş, 2019). Noise, which includes the elements that disrupt and prevent the transmission of the message (Rogala & Białowąs, 2016), is among technical problems. Physical distractions such as noise from outside, disconnections, interruptions of people not involved in the communication are comprised of noise and they can obstruct the effectiveness of the communication (Lunenburg, 2010). In regard to other technical problems, exceeding the capacity of the channel is another barrier to intended

communication to occur (Pektaş, 2019). For instance, lecturing in a big room without a microphone would exceed the capacity of vocal cords; organizing an international conference on a virtual platform that can accept a limited number of participants would prevent some receivers from joining in. The semantic barrier is, also, involved in technical problems (Pektaş, 2019). Knowing the same language might be inadequate to facilitate healthy and effective communication. Therefore, sharing the same meanings attached to utterances, or the jargon could reduce the misinterpretation of the intended messages. The complexity and intricacy of the language used are other factors that can cause communication problems in terms of language (Pektaş, 2019). Complex sentences might distract the receiver from the topic and prevent the interpretation of intended messages (Sabuncuoğlu & Gümüş, 2008). Therefore, in order to increase the effectiveness of communication, the source should transmit the message by means of plain and clear language (Sabuncuoğlu & Gümüş, 2008).

Finally, another category for communication barriers is comprised of organizational reasons. The reasons involve challenges emerged from the size of the organization, the structure on which the hierarchical order has been built, manners and behaviours of leaders, insufficient feedback, information overload, and time pressure (Aziz & Dicle, 2017; Sillars, 1997, as cited in Pektaş, 2019). The overtime growth of organizations in terms of both the number of staff and the field of operations causes communication structures to become more complex since reaching the superiors whose responsibilities involve frequent communication with others for daily operations becomes challenging (Şimşek, 1997). The hierarchical order might also damage effective communication in organizations (Aziz & Dicle, 2017; Hoslett, 1963; Oruç, 2010, as cited in Pektaş, 2019; Şimşek, 1997). Malfunctions in the chain of order might prevent the transmission of the messages as created by the source, the message transmission might stop at a person in the chain, or the person might delay transferring the message, which hinders effective communication. Another problem related to hierarchical order is the behaviours or manners of the leaders, which affects the relationships among the members (Aziz & Dicle, 2017; Sillars, 1997, as cited in Pektaş, 2019). When the leader talks down to subordinates or does not pay attention to the ideas of other members, all participants would feel reluctant to facilitate communication with superiors or the efforts of subordinates to please the leaders by changing the negative parts of the message would hinder the transmission of accurate information (Dicle, 1974, as cited

in Şimşek, 1997; Hoslett, 1963). On the other hand, the superiors who establish close relationships with the subordinates might fail to assign tasks, and carry out various activities and directions, which, ultimately, changes their behaviours towards the subordinates to be firm and threatening (Scanlan-Keys; 1987, as cited in Şimşek, 1997). Additionally, communication as a dyadic process (Berlo, 1960) cannot be facilitated without feedback that is required to check whether the message transmitted is interpreted as intended. Therefore, breakdowns in feedback that might result from the flow of order, personal attitudes, and communication channels negatively affect the proper functioning of organizations, the efficiency of operations, maintenance of desired behaviours, organizational commitment and so the effectiveness of the organizations. In regard to the last problem categorized in organizational barriers, being exposed to an excessive amount of messages do more harm than good to organizations although information is vital for proper functioning. In an environment of information load, superiors who are surrounded by lots of data might miss the urgent and vital information or the subordinates might fail to transmit valuable information, which would eventually impact the effectiveness of organization (Bedeian & Glueck, 1983). From the perspective of subordinates, the information load might cause confusion and an increase in errors, which might result ineffectiveness, dissatisfaction and burnout (Bedeian & Glueck, 1983). In another aspect, information load which requires carrying out multiple tasks might also cause time pressure for members in meeting the deadlines. Also, according to Sabuncuoğlu and Gümüş (2008), staff exposed to information load might ignore the received information, pass different types of information at once to others, and order the information in accordance with arrival rather than significance.

2.6.6. Studies Related to Organizational Communication

In the literature, there have been many studies examining communication in numerous fields since it is an essential qualification for the existence of societies. In the educational context, the majority of the studies focused on factors such as leadership, job satisfaction, citizenship behaviours, school climate, teacher self-efficacy, which were reported to indirectly influence OE (Arlestig, 2008; Johnson et al., 1994; Khan et al., 2017; Smalls-Reed, 2004; De Nobile & McCormick, 2008; Uslu & Yıldırım, 2012; Yıldırım, 2021). On the other hand, there are very limited numbers of studies investigating the

mediation role of communication in organizational factors (Abu Bakar et al., 2010; Elving, 2005; Gochhayat et al., 2016; Gochhayat et al., 2017; Khalid & Rehman, 2011).

Regarding the studies investigating the relationship between communication and other factors, Ärlestig (2008) studied communication in relation to leadership and revealed that, in successful schools, communication about teaching and learning-related issues was facilitated more frequently and the principals of successful schools spent more time on class visits and providing feedback. Similarly, Tyler (2016) revealed that the principals who employed particular communication strategies such as having high expectations of teachers, allocating time for personal interactions, and fostering teacher participation in decision-making processes enhanced OE. Additionally, Uslu and Balcı (2012) studied the relationship between communication and organizational citizenship behaviours and revealed that communication was positively correlated to citizenship behaviours in terms of sportsmanship and willingness. Also, the results displayed that the lack of face-to-face communication options, excessive information load, and obstacles for transmitting problems upward negatively affected commitment to and trust in schools, which, in turn, decreased organizational citizenship behaviours (Uslu & Balcı, 2012). Similarly, Ozsaker et al. (2012) revealed a positive correlation between communication and citizenship behaviours which indicated that the teachers could express their opinions when they encountered a problem. Furthermore, Alparslan and Kılınç (2015) revealed a positive correlation between citizenship behaviours and communication and stated that effective communication led the teachers to show more citizenship behaviours. As for school climate, Oswalt (2008) displayed that school climate was related to communication and revealed that particularly, employing face-to-face communication channels such as staff meetings, individual meetings, small informal talks, and positive reinforcement enhanced school climate; and, solely employing non-face-to-face communication channels such as e-mails impacted school climate negatively due to the limited feedback (Oswalt, 2008). From a different aspect, Şimşek (1997) studied possible barriers resulting from the students and preventing effective communication between academic staff and students. The results revealed that the barriers resulting from the students were comprised of being defensive in case of criticism, having insufficient information on the communicating subject, and failing to satisfy the receiver with their messages (Şimşek, 1997). Also, the students sometimes did not pay attention to the interlocutor which resulted

in failure of reflecting back; and, the flow of order was sometimes neglected by the students and it caused careless upwards communication to occur (Şimşek, 1997).

Finally, as for the studies focusing on the mediating role of communication, Gochhayat et al. (2017) investigated whether communication was a mediator between organizational culture and OE in technical education in India. The analysis of the data revealed that organizational culture enhanced organizational communication which improved OE, and organizational culture affected OE through organizational communication (Gochhayat et al., 2017). Also, organizational culture increased the participation and agreement on the objectives by the transmission of the information on values and beliefs through effective communication provided with open feedback, which enhanced OE (Gochhayat et al., 2017). In another study, Gochhayat et al. (2016) investigated whether communication was a mediator between leadership, organizational culture, and OE in technical education in India. The analysis of the data revealed that leadership practices predicted OE by means of organizational communication and leadership effectiveness positively correlated with communication and school culture (Gochhayat et al., 2016). Also, they revealed that effective communication enabled leaders to send clear messages, and to effectively use their capabilities while poor communication decreased their influence on the staff and resulted in poor OE (Gochhayat et al., 2016).

As presented above, the relevant studies in the literature investigated communication in relation to multiple factors. However, to the knowledge of the researcher, organizational communication has not ben studied in terms of its interactions with OE, leadership, OCB, teacher self-efficacy at once. Also there is no study focusing on the communication channels employed at an SFL and their possible contributions to OE. In this regard, this current study aims to fill the niche in the literature.

2.7. Chapter Summary

The second chapter reviews the literature on OE, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, teacher self-efficacy and organizational communication. Additionally, the studies carried out on the above-mentioned areas are also explained. The next chapter presents the methodology employed in this current study.

CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter explains the methodological framework of the study. Firstly, the research design of the study is described. Later, detailed information regarding the setting, participants, data collection instruments, procedures for data collection, and data analysis are provided. Besides, the results of the confirmatory factor analysis and the reliability test for the scales for the quantitative data collection instruments, and the results of the validity and reliability of the qualitative data collection instrument are presented following the section on the quantitative data collection instrument.

3.2. Research Design

This study aimed to analyse organizational effectiveness in terms of the characteristics of leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, teacher self-efficacy, and organizational communication at an SFL in a non-profit university in Turkey and explore possible interactions of these characteristics with each other. The study, also, aimed to uncover the communication network of the school and the extent to which it relates to organizational effectiveness with implications of the present communication channels in terms of their capability and possible useful channels.

For the purpose of exploring the abovementioned issues, the study utilized a mixed-method design, namely 'The Embedded Design'. Mixed methods research could be explained as a method which combines both quantitative and qualitative inquiries for data collection and analysis for the purpose of conducting a single study (Cresswell, 2012; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, as cited in Baki & Gökçek, 2012; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, as cited in Baki & Gökçek, 2012). Mixing both quantitative and qualitative procedures gather the strengths while eliminating the weaknesses of both methods, which provides a better insight into the research problems (Baki & Gökçek, 2012; Cresswell, 2012; Dörnyei, 2007). Also employing a mixed-method design provides a complex picture of the research topic by offering an explanation for numbers while adding precision to words (Dörnyei,

2007; Greene & Caracelli, 1997, as cited in Cresswell, 2012; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, as cited in Baki & Gökçek). In the literature, many types have been offered for conducting mixed methods research, of which the typologies of Cresswell (2012), Morse (2003), Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2009) stand out (Baki & Gökçek). In order to determine the appropriate type, the amount of priority or weight given to the qualitative and quantitative data collection, the sequence of data collection, the process data analysis such as combining the data in one analysis or keeping the analyses separate, and the location of mixing the data in the study such as data collection phase or data analysis phase should be identified (Cresswell, 2012). Based on the identification, as illustrated in Figure 5 "The Embedded Design" was employed to serve the best for the purposes of the study.
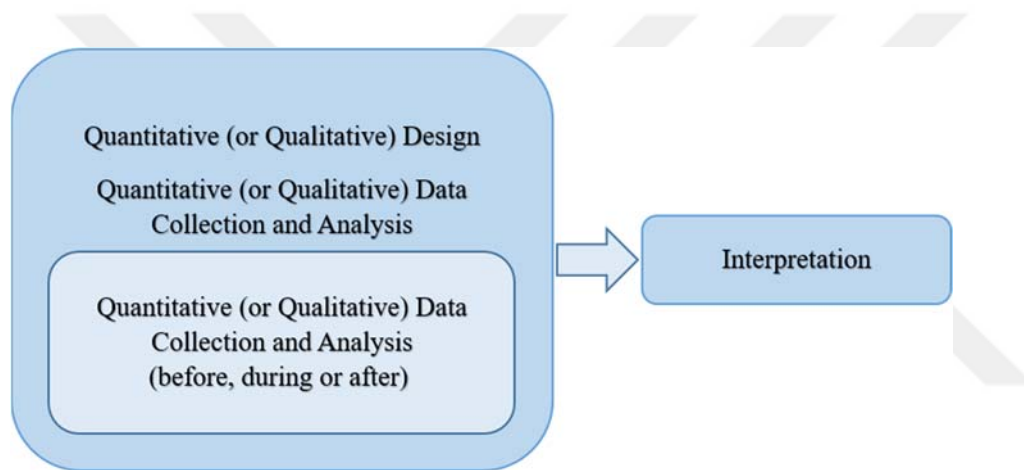
Figure 5. The Embedded Design (Creswell, 2012)

Figure 5 refers to collecting and analysing both qualitative and quantitative data in a study with the purpose of addressing different research questions, which distinguishes the design from the others such as the convergent design used to address a single overreaching question (Cresswell, 2012; Cresswell & Clark, 2011). Other distinctive considerations for the embedded design could include the following:

- having appropriate expertise to carry out the quantitative and qualitative design attentively;

- admitting that the study could be quantitatively or qualitatively driven;

- having little previous experience with the supplemental method;

•   having inadequate resources on either type of data to give equal priority;

•   recognizing issues that arise during the implementation of the first phase and obtaining insight into the issues with the help of a secondary data set (Cresswell & Clark, 2011).

By using the embedded design, collection and analysis procedures for both quantitative and qualitative data can be carried out at the same time or in a sequence (Cresswell & Clark, 2011). When the data for the studies are collected in a sequence, the first form of data provides additional information to the second phase and mostly, quantitative data is supported by adding qualitative data (Cresswell, 2012). In this regard, the research design of the study is visualised in Figure 6.

Figure 6. Two-phase approach with sequential procedures as applied in the study (Cresswell, 2012).

In this study, quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analysed separately. In other words, the study utilized a two-phase approach with sequential procedures (Cresswell & Clark, 2011). As illustrated in Figure 6, for the first phase of the study, the quantitative data were collected by means of a scale and analysed in order to reveal the instructors' perceptions of organizational effectiveness, teacher self-efficacy, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, and organizational communication as well as their relationships. On the other hand, the second phase involved the collection and analysis of the qualitative data by means of semi-structured interviews in order to reveal instructors' perceptions of organizational communication and communication channels employed at the SFL.

As a whole, the embedded design was adopted to obtain both quantitative data and qualitative data to reveal answers to the research questions listed below. Although the quantitative data were mainly used with the aim of answering the first three questions and

the qualitative data were referred to answer the last two questions, both quantitative and qualitative data were mixed for interpretation.

The study aims to answer the following questions:

RQ1. What are the perceptions of the SFL instructors towards OE, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, instructors' perceived self-efficacy, and organizational communication? Are they related?

RQ2. What are the roles of leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours and teachers' perceived self-efficacy in OE?

RQ3. Where does organizational communication stand in the interaction among organizational effectiveness, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours and instructors' perceived self-efficacy?

RQ4. Do organizational communication channels serve the purpose of enhancing OE?

RQ4a. What are the most/least contributing channels of communication? How do (not) they contribute to OE?

RQ4b. What are the facilitators of/barriers to OE with regard to the present communication channels?

RQ5. What are the perceptions of instructors towards organizational communication channels in terms of OE in the SFL?

3.3. Setting and Participants

The study was conducted in the SFL of a non-profit university in İstanbul, Turkey. The university was founded in 1997 and has been providing education in eight faculties and 158 programmes since then. During the 2021-2022 academic year, the university served to around 26,000 students with 798 academic staff on three campuses. On the other hand, the

SFL provides education in three programmes, English Preparatory Programme, Russian Preparatory Programme and Academic Language Support Programme. Since this study was conducted in English Preparatory Programme, the details are provided regarding this programme below.

English Preparatory Programme of the SFL offers language education at the proficiency levels in line with the Common European Framework for Languages (CEFR) and Global Scale of English (GSE) for departmental studies, as well as professional and social life. Also, the SFL aims to meet national and international criteria in language education, increase problem-solving and critical thinking skills as well as language skills, foster learner autonomy, build awareness of different cultures, create an effective learning atmosphere employing modern teaching approaches and technology, offer a supportive environment for the staff and encourage professional development. In this regard, the SFL offers five modules in one academic year. Eight weeks of instruction and assessment are offered in each module in the fall and spring terms while four weeks of instruction and assessment are offered in the fifth module in the summer term. Overall, 168 teaching hours are provided per module with 24 teaching hours per week. The programme served 860 students on two campuses with 56 full-time and 13 part-time instructors in the 2021-2022 academic year, which is the year this current study was conducted.

In order to fulfil the aims, the school provides its own organizational structure for which responsibilities are well described. The organizational structure involved Administrative Board, Director, Vice Directors, Head of English Language Preparatory Programme, Head of Russian Language Preparatory Programme, English Language Preparatory Programme Coordinator, Curriculum and Material Development Unit, Testing and Assessment Unit, Institutional Effectiveness and Quality Enhancement Unit, Professional Teacher Learning Unit, Digital Learning Unit, Level Coordinators, Instructors (Figure 7).
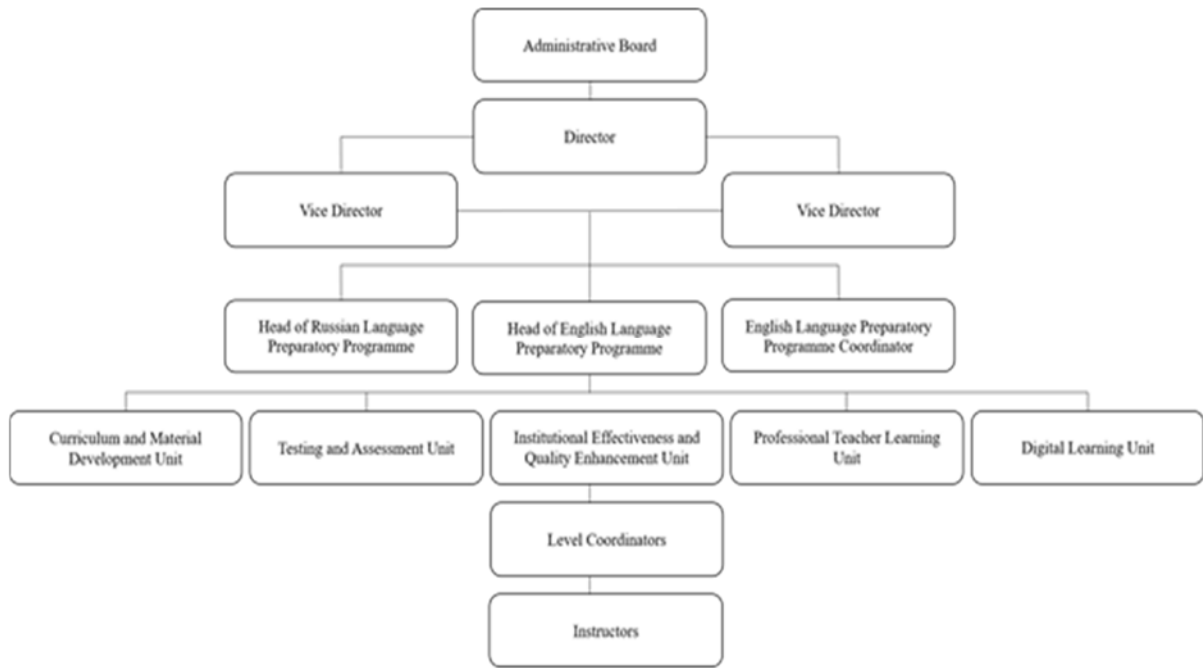
Figure 7. Organizational structure of the SFL.

In order to ensure and enhance effectiveness in the SFL, pre-planned responsibilities are assigned to each member of the school based on their positions in the organizational structure. The administrative board, which is comprised of the director, vice directors, heads of the preparatory programmes, and the English preparatory programme coordinator, is the highest-level decision-makers of the school. Academic units, on the other hand, are responsible for carrying out qualified operations such as preparing exams, planning developmental activities, preparing the pacing, besides teaching the assigned hours. Level coordinators are responsible for maintaining effective communication among instructors teaching the same level and academic unit members. Finally, instructors are responsible for teaching the assigned programmes according to the pacing provided by the Curriculum and Material Development Unit, assessing the exams, attending the meetings and other developmental sessions, creating a suitable learning environment in the light of the guidance and directions of the superiors.

Considering the small number of instructors working at the school, the researcher aimed to involve all full-time instructors working at the school during the 2021-2022 academic year. Although the school has 56 full-time instructors, 50 of them voluntarily participated in the quantitative stage of the study. The participants consisted of 33 females and 17 males. The ages of the participants ranged from 24 to 64 ($M = 35.34$, $SD = 7.36$). 20

participants had a bachelor's degree, 29 had an MA degree and one had a Ph.D. Most of the participants were graduates of English Language Teaching (N = 26) followed by English/American Language and Literature (N = 19), English Translation and Interpretation (N = 4), Linguistics (N = 1). On the other hand, the work experience of the participants at the SFL ranged between six months and 19 years (M = 87.20, SD = 44.49). Lastly, based on the administrative duties, the participants were comprised of one director, two vice directors, one programme coordinator, four academic unit heads, six academic unit members, and 14 level coordinators while the rest had no administrative dues (N = 22).

On the other hand, the participants for the semi-structured interviews were comprised of 10 members of the school, of whom three were administrators and seven were instructors. Also, two of the instructors were academic unit heads. The participants, who had at least five years of working experience at the current SFL, involved two males and eight females. To maintain participants' anonymity, they were given codes as AD1 AD2, AD3, INS1, INS2, INS3, INS4, INS5, INS6, INS7 whose descriptive information was presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Descriptive information of semi-structured interview participants (N = 10)

Participant	Gender	Age	Experience	Position at the SFL
AD1	Female	34	8 years	The Coordinator of English Preparatory Programme
AD2	Female	48	20 years	Vice Director
AD3	Female	33	11 years	Vice Director
INS1	Male	29	5 years	Instructor
INS2	Female	34	4 years	Instructor
INS3	Female	30	5 years	Instructor
INS4	Female	37	8 years	Instructor
INS5	Male	37	10 years	Instructor
INS6	Female	32	6 years	Instructor
INS7	Female	35	9 years	Instructor

3.4. Data Collection Instruments

To answer the research questions, this study utilized a survey and semi-structured interviews. The survey included six sections that are comprised of one part for demographic information and five scales regarding OE, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, teacher self-efficacy, and organizational communication. The survey was thought to serve the research purpose best by the researcher since it provides rigorous, systematic, and strongly controlled information (Dörnyei, 2007) and it is easy to carry out and analyze (Williamson & Johanson, 2013). Another reason is that surveys enable obtaining a great amount of information from targeted people in a short time; therefore, the instrument type was chosen for being time-efficient (Dörnyei, 2007). Also, surveys are versatile in terms that they can be carried out with various individuals and target various topics (Dörnyei, 2007). On the other hand, semi-structured interviews were also carried out in order to support the quantitative data, reveal the information that the surveys might have missed (Dörnyei, 2007), and address different research questions (Cresswell, 2012) since they expand the issues beyond what surveys obtain with the direction and guidance of the interviewer (Dörnyei, 2007).

Table 2 illustrates the overview of the data collection instruments in terms of the research questions and how the instruments operated to reveal answers. In the following sub-sections, the details of the data collection instruments are presented.

Table 2

Summary of the data collection instruments in terms of research questions.

Research Questions	Instruments
R.Q.1. What are the perceptions of the SFL instructors towards OE, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, instructors' perceived self-efficacy, and organizational communication? Are they related?	Scales
R.Q.2. What are the roles of leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours and teachers' perceived self-efficacy in OE?	Scales
R.Q.3. Where does organizational communication stand in the interaction among OE, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours and instructors' perceived self-efficacy?	Scales, Semi-structured Interview
R.Q.4. Do organizational communication channels serve the purpose of enhancing OE? **4a.** What are the most/least contributing channels of communication? How do (not) they contribute to OE? **4b.** What are the facilitators of/barriers to OE with regard to the present communication channels?	Semi-structured Interview
R.Q.5. What are the perceptions of instructors towards organizational communication channels in terms of OE in the SFL?	Semi-structured Interview

3.4.1. Quantitative Data Collection Instruments: The Scales

The survey (Appendix 1 - Turkish Version of the Survey, Appendix 2 - English Version of the Survey), which provided the quantitative part of the data, included six main parts:

• Part A Background Information;
• Part B Organizational Effectiveness Scale;
• Part C Organizational Citizenship Behaviours Scale;
• Part D Cooperation of the Leadership Team Scale;
• Part E Teacher Self-efficacy Scale in terms of school context; and
• Part F Organizational Communication Scale.

Part A comprised of seven demographic questions including age, gender, highest qualification received, major, year/month of work experience, teaching hours, and administrative duties. The details of the other parts are illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3

Overall description of Part B, Part C, Part D, Part E and Part F of the survey

Part and title of the scale	Subscales	Selected subscales for this study	Development, Adaptation & Translation	No of the items	Likert-Type	Original alpha values
Part B – Organizational Effectiveness Scale	X	- Organizational Effectiveness Scale	- originally developed by Mott (1972) - adapted for the field of education by Hoy and Ferguson (1985) - translated into Turkish by Yıldırım (2015)	8	5-point	.85
Part C – Organizational Citizenship Behaviours Scale	X	- Organizational Citizenship Behaviours Scale	- originally developed by Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1989) - adapted by Podsakoff et al. (1990) and Moorman (1991) - translated into Turkish by Polat (2007)	20	5-point	.97
Part D – Leadership Scale	- Cooperation of the leadership team - Leadership support - Leadership supervision - Participative decision-making - Organizational Commitment	- Cooperation of the leadership team	- developed by Hulpia et al. (2010) - translated into Turkish by the researcher of this current study	10	5-point	.93
Part E – Teacher Self-efficacy Scale	- The Class Context - The School Context	- The School Context	- originally developed by Friedman and Kass (2002) - translated into Turkish by the researcher of this current study	14	6-point	.85
Part F – Organizational Communication Scale	X	- Organizational Communication Scale	- developed by Pektaş (2019)	24	5-point	.87

As explained in Table 3, for Part B, the OE scale, which was originally developed by Mott (1972), adapted for the field of education by Hoy and Ferguson (1985), and translated into Turkish by Yıldırım (2015), was employed. The organizational citizenship behaviours scale, Part C, were explored via the scale originally developed by Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1989), adapted by Podsakoff et al. (1990) and Moorman (1991), and translated by Polat (2007). In Part D, the scale developed by Hulpia et al. (2010) and translated into Turkish and adapted to Turkish context by the researcher was employed to explore the cooperation leadership team. Similarly, in Part E, teacher self-efficacy was investigated by means of the scale originally developed by Friedman and Kass (2002), translated into Turkish, and adapted to the Turkish context by the researcher. For the final part, organizational communication was analysed by the scale developed by Pektaş (2019).

While Part B, Part C, Part D and Part F comprised of 5-point Likert-type anchors with options ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), Part E included 6-point Likert-type anchors with options ranging from 1 (never) to 6 (always) (see Table 3). Overall, the survey involved 83 items in total, of which seven belonged to Part A, eight to Part B, 20 to Part C, 10 to Part D, 14 to Part E, and 24 to Part F.

Regarding Part B, the OE scale, Yıldırım (2015) tested its factorial construct in order to ensure validity and reliability of the Turkish version of SE-Index by means of item-total correlation analysis, high-low percent group analysis, confirmatory factor analysis. In order to find out about item discrimination, Yıldırım (2015) carried out an item-total correlation analysis and high-low percent group analysis, and the results displayed that all the items were positively correlated ($p < .001$). Before employing confirmatory factor analysis, the suitability of the data was tested and the results displayed that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was .882. The confirmatory analysis of the instrument resulted as AGFI .95, GFI .97, NFI .98, NNFI .98, CFI .99, RMR .045, SRMR .029, RMSEA .063, $\chi^{2/sd}$ 3.06. As to Part C, the organizational citizenship behaviours scale, Polat (2007) conducted the reliability test and factor analysis. As for the reliability test, the results presented that the scale was reliable with $\alpha = .97$ (Polat, 2007). On the other hand, the factor analysis results displayed that the score for each item was above .45 (Polat, 2007). On the other hand, regarding Part D, the leadership scale, although the original instruments were validated and reliable subscales, Hulipa et al. (2010) retested the factorial construct as the original studies focused on solo

leaders while they approached leadership from distributed perspective by involving assistant principals, teacher leaders besides principles. The test results for validity and reliability were presented as X^2(35, N = 1902) = 138.098, p <.001, Comparative Fit Index CFI = 0.978, Tucker-Lewis Index TLI = 0.972, Standardized Root Mean Residual SRMR = 0.026, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation RMSEA = 0.056 α = .93. (Hulpia et al., 2010). Furthermore, for the School Context Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale which constitutes Part E, Friedman and Kass (2000) carried out two factor analyses for the scale and the results showed r = 0.99 and r = 0.97 respectively. Also, the results for reliability tests included α = .85. Lastly, Pektaş (2019) carried out the validity and reliability tests for organizational communication scale. According to the results, the reliability of the scale was presented as α = .87 (Pektaş, 2019). For validity, the Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin value was .859 and the factor analysis test results were higher than 0.3, which indicated that all the items were valid in terms of content (Pektaş, 2019). Also, all the items in the scale distributed normally p <.001 (Pektaş, 2019).

The Cooperation of the Leadership Team Scale (Hulpia et al., 2010) and the School Context Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (Friedman & Kass, 2002), which were involved as Part D and Part E in the study, were translated into Turkish language and linguistic equivalence was explored for validity and reliability. Since the content equivalence of the translated instrument cannot be insured by direct translation, multiple techniques including back-translation, committee approach, and pre-test procedure were employed in order to validate the translated version in this cross-cultural study (Brislin, 1970; Sechrest & Fay, 1972, as cited in Cha et al., 2007). Although these techniques can be implemented separately, a combined version was preferred in order to minimize the weaknesses. Firstly, the back-translation method and the committee approach were adopted. In this step, two independent experts who are proficient in both English and Turkish blindly translated the original scales into Turkish, the experts had a group discussion to identify the differences between the translated versions and they came up with a final translated version of the scales. Secondly, two other independent experts blindly translated the translated version back into English and the experts had a group discussion to identify the differences between the back-translated versions and developed the final version. Thirdly, the four experts and the researcher had another group discussion to compare the final translated versions and the original scale and developed the final translated version of the instruments. Then, the translated instruments

with the original versions were sent to a bilingual expert to check the appropriateness of the translation and to ask for suggestions. Since the expert had no suggestions, the translation process was completed and Turkish versions were submitted to validity and reliability tests.

Validity and Reliability of the Scales

A pilot study was carried out in order to test the validity and reliability of the survey. In this regard, convenience sampling, which refers to selecting participants based on availability and willingness (Cresswell, 2012), was employed by considering the fact that utilizing the convenience sampling method is apt to be practical and time-saving (Ary et al., 2010). In order to reach the participants who share similar features to the target population (Weathington et al., 2010), an online version of the survey was formed in *Google Forms* and the link was shared in three steps to collect data. Firstly, the survey link was shared in a *WhatsApp* group that involved the directors and the vice directors of the SFLs at Turkish universities, and they were kindly requested to complete the survey and share it with the instructors in their institutions. Secondly, the websites of all the universities were browsed to reach the email addresses of administrators and instructors. Then, e-mails that included the purpose of the study, request for participation, the link to the survey, and contact information of the researcher in case of further questions were sent to the all identified instructors. Also, the researcher's network of friends and colleagues were requested to complete and share the link. The data was obtained from 201 English language instructors working at the SFL of the universities in Turkey, then, submitted to test for reliability and validity.

Regarding validity, confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were run on the data set to see if the factor structures of the scales had a good fit. CFA is a statistical technique where the researcher attempts to test if the factor structure theorized by the researcher or in an earlier study explicitly fits a given data set. In the analysis, the model is compared against the data and a multitude of fit indices is investigated regarding goodness of fit. (Roberts, 1999). Since the data collection instruments used in this study were already developed and tested as a part of the literature, CFA was preferred over Exploratory Factor Analysis to compute the goodness of fit indices. Each scale used in the study was analysed separately.

In a study by Schermelleh-Engel and Moosbrugger (2003), the researchers recommended that multiple measures of goodness of fit should be investigated for decision-making in a CFA since certain indicators may act problematically in the case of small samples or skewed data. Some of those indicators, their acceptable/perfect fit levels and the values obtained in the CFA in this study are presented below in Table 4 based on Schermelleh-Engel and Moosbrugger (2003), Marsh, Balla and McDonald (1988) and Meyers et al. (2016).

Table 4

Fit indices

Fit Indicator	Good Fit	Acceptable Fit
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	$\geq .970$	$\geq .950$
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	$\geq .950$	$\geq .900$
Bentler-Bonett Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI)	$\geq .970$	$\geq .950$
Bentler-Bonett Normed Fit Index (NFI)	$\geq .950$	$\geq .900$
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	-	$\geq .050$
Bollen's Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	$\geq .950$	$\geq .900$
Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR)	$\leq .050$	$\leq .100$
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	$\geq .950$	$\geq .900$
Chi-Squared / Degrees of Freedom (X2/df)	≤ 2.000	≤ 3.000
Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	$\leq .050$	$\leq .080$

Although the X^2/df and RMSEA values are commonly reported in the literature as indicators of model fit, Kenny et al. (2015) find this practice problematic since these two indices are overly dependent on sample size, which is a problem that cannot be eliminated (Shermelleh-Engel & Moosbrugger, 2003). In that regard, Kenny et al. (2015) suggest that these values be disregarded and the other indices indicated above should be used to assess model fit since the sample size dependence of these indices may result in the rejection of an acceptable model. Therefore, they were not assessed in this study.

In the CFA, the Organizational Effectiveness scale produced a CFI of 0.991, TLI of 0.988, NNFI of 0.988, NFI of 0.988, PNFI of 0.706, IFI of 0.991, SRMR of 0.061 (acceptable fit) and GFI of 0.991, indicating a good fit with factor loadings above 0.600 for all eight items.

The Organizational Citizenship Behaviours scale indicated an acceptable fit with a CFI of 0.955, TLI of 0.948, NNFI of 0.948, NFI of 0.938, PNFI of 0.804, IFI of 0.956, SRMR of 0.099, and GFI of 0.965 with factor loadings above 0.420 after excluding items 9, 10, 12, 14 and 16. As such, the model was accepted with 15 items.

The Leadership scale produced a CFI of 0.999, TLI of 0.999, NNFI of 0.999, NFI of 0.999, PNFI of 0.777, IFI of 0.999, SRMR of 0.030, and GFI of 0.999, indicating a good fit with factor loadings above 0.850 for all 10 items.

The Teacher Self-Efficacy scale revealed an acceptable fit with a CFI of 0.952, TLI of 0.939, NNFI of 0.939, NFI of 0.936, PNFI of 0.728, IFI of 0.953, SRMR of 0.080, and GFI of 0.978 with factor loadings above 0.400 after excluding items 4, 7, 10, and 14. Hence, the model was accepted with 10 items.

The Organizational Communication scale produced a CFI of 0.960 (acceptable fit), TLI of 0.956, NNFI of 0.956, NFI of 0.945 (acceptable fit), PNFI of 0.863, IFI of 0.960, SRMR of 0.098 (acceptable fit), and GFI of 0.960, indicating a good fit with factor loadings above 0.380 for all 24 items.

The table below illustrates the number of the items in the final version of the scales:

Table 5

The number of the items in the final version of the scales

Scale	Number of the Items
Organizational Effectiveness Scale	8
Organizational Citizenship Behaviours Scale	15
Leadership Scale	10
Teacher Self-efficacy Scale	10
Organizational Communication Scale	24

The reliability coefficients for the finalized versions of the scales were computed as follows:

Table 6

Reliability coefficients ($N = 201$)

Scale	Cronbach's alpha values
Organizational Effectiveness	0.91
Organizational Citizenship Behaviours	0.85
Leadership	0.97
Teacher Self-Efficacy	0.80
Organizational Communication	0.87

As seen in the table, all scales had high to excellent reliability after the confirmation of their factor structures. Consequently, they were ready for the main study.

3.4.2. Qualitative Data Collection Instrument: Semi-structured Interviews

For this study, semi-structured interviews were employed to reveal the perceptions of the members of the SFL towards organizational communication and the channels employed to facilitate organizational communication, besides revealing whether the

organizational communication channels served the purpose of enhancing OE. Interviews are natural and socially acceptable data collection tools which can be utilized to yield information in-depth in situations in which the participants feel comfortable (Dörnyei, 2007). Furthermore, interviews are flexible enough to allow the emergence of new aspects (Richards, 2009) while the guidance of the interviewer provides organized coverage of the topics (Dörnyei, 2007). When the questions are misinterpreted by the interviewees or the answers go off-topic, the researcher can clear up the confusions or misunderstandings, and guide the participants back to the topic being discussed. Hence, the interview method was acknowledged to be fruitful to obtain relevant and valuable information from the participants.

Essentially, the interviews are categorized into three types: structured, semi-structured, and unstructured (Richards, 2009). Structured interviews enable the collection of highly specific data in the most controlled form with minimum variation in pre-determined questions (Richards, 2009). Quite the contrary, unstructured interviews, which are also called as 'open interviews' or 'in-depth interviews' (Richards, 2009), obtain data without pre-determined questions (Currie, 2005). Semi-structured interviews are a "compromise" between structured and unstructured interviews (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 136). Despite the pre-determined questions, the participants are encouraged to expand on the issues and the interviewer acts as the guide and the director of the "professional conversation" (Dörnyei, 2007; Kvale, 1996, p. 5, as cited in Richards, 2009). They allow the researcher to organize the conversation intentionally to explore new significant areas. Therefore, within the purpose of revealing the possible differences in the perceptions of the instructors and the administrators towards organizational communication and the channels, semi-structured interviews with slight differences in questions were carried out with instructors and the administrators.

As stated by Clark and Cresswell (2014, as cited in Yeong et al., 2018), the quality of the interview data can be enhanced with the employment of refinement steps in the interview protocol development phase. By considering this statement, the Interview Protocol Refinement Framework developed by Castillo-Monoya (2016) was employed in four steps in order for fine-tuning the questions so that the questions were applicable to the research purposes and the participants.

Step 1: Questions that were aligned with the research questions were generated. In this step, the mother tongue of the participants, Turkish, was employed in order to prevent language-barrier; and questions that were close-ended, guiding, and that had more than one focus at the same time were avoided (Friedman, 2012).

Step 2: An inquiry-based conversation was constructed by generating a variety of questions that were different from research questions, preparing a script with follow-up questions and prompts and organizing the interview with the social rules of ordinary conversation (Castillo-Monoya, 2016).

Step 3: Feedback was received on the drafts generated after the first two steps in order to check whether the interview questions were conversational and related to the study (Castillo-Monoya, 2016). For this step, the advisor of the researcher who is an expert was asked to examine the questions in terms of length, style, and comprehension.

Step 4: Pilot studies were conducted with three individuals with the aim of finding out how long the interview would take, whether the participants were able to answer the questions and whether the questions lead to the elicitation of answers in accordance with the purpose of the study (Castillo-Monoya, 2016), besides avoiding conflicts and reaching more valid results (Olson et al., 2016). One of the participants for the pilot study was a vice director at an SFL of a state university in Turkey and the others were instructors working at the SFLs in two different state universities in Turkey. All three participants had a similar background to the participants of the main study as the main study aimed to investigate the perceptions of the academic members of an SFL in İstanbul, Turkey. The interviews were held on Zoom Application individually and lasted around 25 minutes. In the beginning, they were informed about the aims of the pilot study, and their consent was granted for being video recorded. The researcher took notes as the interview continued and at the end of the interview, the participants were asked to report the clarity of the questions, and possible problems that would result in deviation from the subject. As a result of their feedback and comments, besides the notes of the researcher, two questions were merged since they were repetitive and yielded the same answer.

Following these steps, the final versions of the interview protocols emerged with 15 questions with some prompts for the interview with instructors and 14 questions with prompts for the interview with administrators (Appendix 3 – Turkish version of instructor interview questions, Appendix 4 – Turkish version of administrator interview questions, Appendix 5 – English version of instructor interview questions, and Appendix 6 – English version of administrator interview questions).

3.5. Data Collection Procedures

Before conducting the main study, an official permission letter to conduct the research was obtained from the Ethics Committee of COMU School of Graduate Studies (Appendix 7). Then, the administration of the SFL where the main study was carried out was informed and verbal approval was attained. Next, the official permission was received from the Ethics Committee of Beykent University (Appendix 8). Additionally, the researcher held a meeting that informed on the research purpose and requests from the participants with the instructors, and the verbal approvals were taken.

The data collection took place in the spring term of the 2021-2022 academic year between March 1st and March 30th. In order to obtain the quantitative data for the main study, the online version of the survey was prepared on *Google Forms* and the link was shared with all full-time instructors working at the school in the group involving the academic staff of the school on *Signal Application*. The participants were already informed of the purpose of and the requests for the study. Nevertheless, the participants were provided with the purpose of the study, the statement of confidentiality at the beginning of the survey, and they were asked for their written consent before carrying out the survey (Appendix 1 - Turkish Version of the Consent Letter for the Survey, Appendix 2 - English Version of the Consent Letter for the Survey). 2 days after sharing the link, the instructors were reminded to complete the survey via the school group on *Signal Application* and during the End of Module Meeting held on *Zoom Application*.

On the other hand, in order to obtain qualitative data, the instructors who verbally stated their willingness to participate in the interviews when the researcher held the meeting to inform them on the purposes of the study were contacted via *Signal Application* and

requested participation in their spare time. Similarly, although they were familiar with the purpose of the study, and assured of the confidentiality in the meeting, they were reminded of the aims of the study and the confidentiality via *Signal Application*. Since all the participants ($N = 10$) were eager to conduct the interview online and agreed to be video recorded for the analysis, the interviews were scheduled and carried out one on one on *Zoom Application*. Prior to the interviews, the consent of the participants was obtained both in written form (Appendix 9 - Turkish version of the interview consent form, Appendix 10 - English version of the interview consent form) and verbally. Also, at the beginning of the interviews, the participants were encouraged to explain their opinions freely. The interviews took approximately 30 minutes and the interview data collection was completed in a week.

3.6. Data Analysis

To find answers to the research questions, 'The Embedded Design', combining both quantitative and qualitative data, was employed in the study. The quantitative data was analysed by means of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) v25 and the qualitative data was analysed by inductive content analysis manually.

3.6.1. Quantitative Data Analysis

The data analysis methods aligned with the research questions are illustrated in Table 7

Table 7

Data analysis methods aligned with the research questions

Research Question	Quantitative Data Collection	Quantitative Data Analysis	Qualitative Data Collection	Qualitative Data Analysis
R.Q.1. What are the perceptions of the SFL instructors towards OE, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, instructors' perceived self-efficacy, and organizational communication? Are they related?	Scales of OE, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, teacher self-efficacy, organizational communication	Descriptive (Overall) Correlation	X	X
R.Q.2. What are the roles of leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours and teachers' perceived self-efficacy in OE?	Scales of OE, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, teacher self-efficacy	Multiple Regression	X	X
R.Q.3. Where does organizational communication stand in the interaction among OE, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours and instructors' perceived self-efficacy?	Scales of OE, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, teacher self-efficacy, organizational communication	SEM	Semi-structured Interview	Inductive Content Analysis
R.Q.4. Do organizational communication channels serve the purpose of enhancing OE? **4a.** What are the most/least contributing channels of communication? How do (not) they contribute to OE? **4b.** What are the facilitators of/barriers to OE with regard to the present communication channels?	X	X	Semi-structured Interview	Inductive Content Analysis
R.Q.5. What are the perceptions of instructors towards organizational communication channels in terms of OE in the SFL?	X	X	Semi-structured Interview	Inductive Content Analysis

As indicated in Table 7, the first research question necessitated descriptive analysis and correlation analyses, the parametric version of which assumed that the data were normally distributed. Hence, the skewness and kurtosis values were investigated before the analysis. The preliminary analyses revealed kurtosis values above 2.50 in OE and organizational citizenship variables. An analysis of the outliers revealed only a single outlier in the data set; therefore, this data instance was removed. Therefore, correlation analyses were performed with 49 participants (Table 8).

Table 8
Skewness and Kurtosis values for normality of data ($N = 49$)

Scale	Skewness	SE	Kurtosis	SE
OE	-0.79	0.34	1.38	0.67
Organizational Citizenship Behaviours	-0.87	0.34	0.97	0.67
Leadership	-0.87	0.34	0.43	0.67
Teacher Self-efficacy	-0.34	0.34	-0.46	0.67
Organizational Communication	-0.61	0.34	0.61	0.67

In Table 8, the results with 49 participants are presented. The results showed that all the variables in the data set were normally distributed. Therefore, Pearson's correlation coefficient was computed to discover the relationships among variables. The descriptive results were reported as means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values.

For the second research question, a multivariate regression model was tested to see if organizational citizenship, leadership, and teacher self-efficacy could predict OE. In the assumption tests, it was seen that the correlation coefficients among the variables were between .531 and .748, indicating no multicollinearity. The Durbin-Watson value was 1.664. Collinearity statistics were also acceptable for organizational citizenship (tolerance = 0.591, $VIF = 1.691$), leadership (tolerance = 0.399, $VIF = 2.504$) and teacher self-efficacy (tolerance = 0.412, $VIF = 2.428$). No heteroscedasticity was present in the model. The residuals of the model were normally distributed with 50 participants (skewness = -0.296, kurtosis = -0.317).

In the second research question, a second regression model was also tested to see if the variance explained by the model could be improved. In this model, teacher self-efficacy was excluded and OE was attempted to be predicted using organizational citizenship and leadership variables. The correlation coefficients within the model were .611 and .727. The

Durbin-Watson value was computed to be 1.662. Both predictors had a tolerance value of 0.633 and a variance inflation factor of 1.579. The skewness and kurtosis values of the error terms in the model were -0.293 and -0.321 respectively, which meets the assumptions.

As for the third research question, a structural equation model was tested. According to Gochhayat et al. (2017), communication facilitated in organizations including schools provides guidance to the members, clarity of the operations, answers for the questions, and motivation for the goal attainment, clears up confusion, establishes professional relationships, prevents conflicts, imposes regulations and rules and maintain the discipline. In other words, communication plays a mediating role in the effectiveness of the organizations. In the literature, the mediating role of communication in OE was studied for the variables such as leadership, job involvement, commitment, and culture. In this regard, the model displayed below (Figure 8) was developed to reveal whether organizational communication has a mediating role for OE with leadership, teacher self-efficacy, and organizational citizenship behaviours.
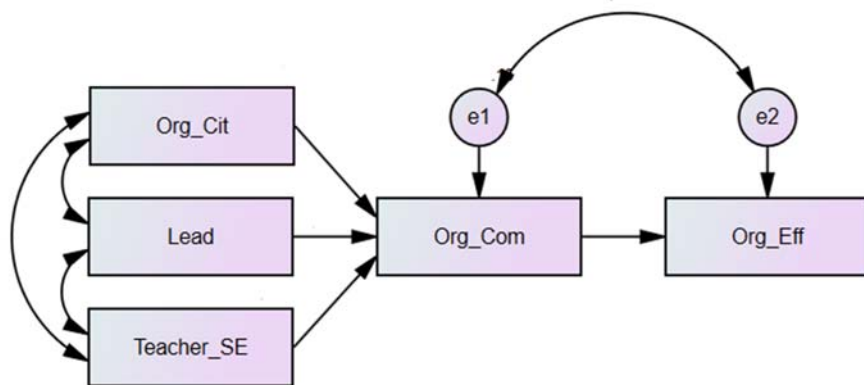
Figure 8. Path Model ($N = 49$)

Table 9

Skewness and Kurtosis values for normality of Path Analysis ($N = 49$)

Variable	Skewness	CR	Kurtosis	CR
Organizational Citizenship	-.830	-2.372	.751	1.073
Teacher Self-efficacy	-.331	-.945	-.538	-.769
Leadership	-.841	-2.404	.266	.381
Organizational Communication	-.589	-1.684	.429	.613
Organizational Effectiveness	-.768	-2.196	1.121	1.602
Multivariate			.340	.142

In order to test the model, a structural equation model was employed. Since this particular analysis assumes normality, the skewness and kurtosis values were investigated initially. The same data point that had the data set violate the normality assumption was removed for this research question too since the kurtosis values were seen to be high if it is included. For that reason, the model was built with 49 data points, whose skewness, kurtosis and critical ratio values can be observed in Table 9.

3.6.2. Qualitative Data Analysis

The qualitative data were subjected to inductive content analysis since it is a bottom-up approach and allows explaining the phenomenon by focusing on the details by means of coding method (Baltacı, 2017). For this purpose, the recordings were transcribed on Word documents and entered into notebooks on Saturateapp to be analysed inductively. Then, "preliminary exploratory analysis" was conducted to see the general picture of the data, organize the information (Cresswell, 2012, p. 243). For this purpose, the entire data was read several times and emerging ideas were noted down as memos before coding was initiated. In this way, the researcher was familiarized with the data that allowed her to get meaningful, organized, and succinct results from a great amount of written text (Cresswell, 2007). Later, the transcripts were coded iteratively, the codes were categorized and themes were created based on the research questions. During these processes, open, axial, and selective coding strategies were adopted in order to reduce the data, make interpretations in accordance with the research aims and contribute to the literature (Williams & Moser, 2019). In regard to these aims, open coding strategy was employed to create codes for similar chunks of words, sentences, or paragraphs in the transcripts based on the research aims, axial coding strategy was adopted to categorize and highlight the relationships among the open codes (Strauss, 1998, as cited in Williams & Moser, 2019), and selective coding strategy was employed to unify the open and axial codes under main themes which were aligned with the research questions. Consequently, the researcher was able to grasp deeper meaning of the perspectives of the participants (Williams & Moser, 2019), and explain their interactions in terms of 'what, how, and why' within the research setting (Charmaz, 2008).

Although qualitative investigation is interpretive and the interpretation is shaped based on the personality and the background of the researcher (Cresswell, 2012), the level

of accuracy and credibility of the interpretations are highly significant to justify that the results are trustworthy and accountable (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this regard, some strategies, which are explained below, were employed to enhance the trustworthiness of this phase of the study.

After collecting the main data, the transcripts were shared with the participants and they were asked for their approval to enhance reliability. As for another strategy, inter-coding was also carried out. Inter-coding reliability contributes to the idea that the interpretation is beyond only an individual and that the judgements are accurate (O'Connor & Joffe, 2020). Similarly, Cohen (1960) states that it is significant to determine whether the judgements are "reproducible" (p. 37) and reliable since they are made subjectively by individuals and suggests having independent individuals to determine the stability of the codes and categories for a sample of data. In this respect, to carry out inter-coder reliability, the interview data of three participants, which constituted 30 % of total data (N = 10), was randomly chosen. The researcher coded the interview data and created the categories and the themes. Then, an inter-coder who is a Ph.D. student of English Language Teaching and has experience in qualitative studies was asked to independently apply a similar analysis of the same randomly chosen interview data and she was encouraged to feel free to reject any interpretations of the researcher. After independent coding of the inter-coder, both researchers compared the codings, categories, and the themes to reach an agreement and a few changes were made to the codes. In order to check the consistency of the codes between the raters and ensure reliability, Cohen's Kappa was employed, the results of which are illustrated in Table 10.

Table 10

Cohen's Kappa in interviews between the raters

		Value	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	Approx. T[b]	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement	Kappa	.978	.009	91.514	.000
N of Valid Cases		283			

As indicated in the table above, the reliability between the raters was found to be (κ) = 0.98 (p <0.001). McHugh (2012) explains that Kappa value which is (κ) = .90 or above

indicates "almost perfect" (p. 279) agreement between the raters and 82 – 100 % of the data is reliable. Therefore, the reliability of the coding for the current study indicates almost perfect.

Furthermore, triangulation was employed by comparing interview results with survey results and the handbooks of the school since the evidence can be justified with different data sources, which improves the accuracy of the data (Cresswell, 2012). The comparisons revealed that the communication network of the SFL written in the handbooks aligned with the data that emerged in the interviews. Finally, as for another validity measurement, member checking was utilized to reveal whether the findings were accurate, complete, realistic, and fair (Cresswell, 2012). In this respect, the findings were shared with the participants and asked for their accuracy. All participants approved that the findings were accurate and realistic.

3.7. Chapter Summary

In this chapter the research design, setting and participants, data collection instruments and procedures and data analysis are presented. Also, the procedures for the pilot studies are explained and the reliability and validity test results of the scales as well as the measures employed for the accuracy and trustworthiness of the semi-structured interviews are presented in detail.

CHAPTER IV
FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

The chapter starts with the representation of the research purpose and the research questions. Then, the findings of the comprehensive data analysis from the scales and the interviews are presented in accordance with the research questions.

4.2. Research Purpose and Questions

This study attempted to investigate OE in terms of some possible predictors which are leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, teacher self-efficacy, and organizational communication at a school of foreign languages in a non-profit university in Turkey, and explore possible interactions of these characteristics with each other. Also, the study aimed to examine the communication network of the school and to uncover the extent to which it relates to OE with implications of present communication channels in terms of capability and possible useful channels. Within this purpose, the chapter presents the findings to answer the research questions below:

RQ1. What are the perceptions of the SFL instructors towards OE, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, instructors' perceived self-efficacy, and organizational communication? Are they related?

RQ2. What are the roles of leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, and teachers' perceived self-efficacy in OE?

RQ3. Where does organizational communication stand in the interaction among OE, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, and instructors' perceived self-efficacy?

RQ4. Do organizational communication channels serve the purpose of enhancing OE?

RQ4a. What are the most/least contributing channels of communication? How do (not) they contribute to OE?

RQ4b. What are the facilitators of/barriers to OE with regard to the present communication channels?

RQ 5. What are the perceptions of instructors towards organizational communication channels in terms of OE in the SFL?

4.3. Findings of RQ1: What are the perceptions of the SFL instructors towards OE, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, instructors' perceived self-efficacy, and organizational communication? Are they related?

The first research question aimed to reveal the descriptive statistics along with the correlations among OE, organizational citizenship behaviours, leadership, teacher self-efficacy, and organizational communication. The descriptive results are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Descriptive statistics of all variables ($N = 49$)

Scale	*M*	*SD*	*Mdn*	*Min*	*Max*
Teacher Self-efficacy	4.26	0.88	4.20	2.30	5.70
Organizational Citizenship Behaviours	4.03	0.51	4.00	2.60	4.80
Leadership	3.75	1.03	3.95	1.00	5.00
Organizational Effectiveness	3.57	0.54	3.63	1.75	4.50
Organizational Communication	3.41	0.67	3.44	1.42	4.67

The results indicated that the highest mean value was obtained in the teacher self-efficacy variable ($M = 4.26$, $SD = 0.88$). These results revealed that the instructors display a strong sense of self-efficacy in the SFL. However, it should be noted that this scale was a six-point rating scale unlike the others. Among the scales that were five-point Likert scales, the highest mean was observed in the organizational citizenship behaviours scale ($M = 4.03$, $SD = 0.51$). Organizational communication had the lowest mean among them ($M = 3.41$, $SD = 0.67$). Besides teacher self-efficacy, the results displayed that the instructors exhibited

OCBs in the SFL. On the other hand, organizational communication in the SFL was perceived to be the weakest among the variables.

In terms of teacher self-efficacy, the perceptions of the participants are presented item by item in Table 12.

Table 12

Teacher self-efficacy perceptions: item by item analysis ($N = 50$)

Item	M	SD	Min	Max
10. I think I have friendly relationships with colleagues at school.	5.38	0.73	4.00	6.00
6. I believe I enjoy a good rapport with the administrators at school.	4.68	1.44	1.00	6.00
3. I feel that my school administrators are not sympathetic to me or my ideas for promoting the schools' educational and social goals.*	4.34	1.38	1.00	6.00
7. When I have problems at school, I do not know whom to turn to.*	4.30	1.79	1.00	6.00
8. When faced with too many difficulties in my relations with colleagues and administration staff, I prefer to retreat or give up.*	4.20	1.57	1.00	6.00
5. I think I can play an important role in solving serious school problems.	4.10	1.17	1.00	6.00
9. I do not know who really makes the important decisions in my school.*	4.06	1.71	1.00	6.00
1. I have difficulty in making demands of the school administration.*	3.80	1.47	1.00	6.00
4. I do not think my school administrators are sufficiently familiar with me or my views.*	3.78	1.65	1.00	6.00
2. I think that my director would readily accept my plans or suggestions for promoting the school's educational and social goals.	3.58	1.34	1.00	6.00
TOTAL	4.26	0.88		

* item is reverse coded

Table 12 reveals that Item 10 had the highest mean ($M = 5.38$, $SD = 0.73$), which shows that the participants had the strongest sense of self-efficacy in having positive and friendly relationships with their colleagues. Following Item 10, Item 6 had the next highest mean score ($M = 4.68$, $SD = 1.44$), which illustrates that the participants had and enjoyed good rapport with the administrators. These results displayed that the participants related their sense of self-efficacy to relationships with colleagues and administrators. On the other hand, Item 2 had the lowest mean score ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 1.34$), which showed that the administrators did not directly accept the plans or suggestions of the participants regarding the goals of the school. Following that, Item 4 had the second lowest mean score ($M = 3.58$,

SD = 1.34), which revealed that the administrators were not familiar enough with the ideas of the participants. Considering the results of Item 2 and Item 4 and that Item 3 had the third highest mean score (*M* = 4.34, *SD* = 1.38), which reveals they were sympathetic to ideas promoting the educational and social goals of the SFL, it could be indicated that, according to the participants, the administrators claimed they were supportive of the ideas of the participants however they did not pay enough attention to the plans or the suggestions of the instructors.

The item-based results for the perceptions of the participants towards organizational citizenship behaviours are given in Table13.

Table 13

Organizational citizenship behaviours perceptions: item by item analysis (*N* = 50)

Item	*M*	*SD*	*Min*	*Max*
10. I come to work on time.	4.68	0.62	2.00	5.00
6. I prioritize protecting the rights of my colleagues.	4.52	0.65	3.00	5.00
2. If I am available, I attend the classes instead of my colleagues who are late or unable to attend their class for any reason	4.34	0.96	1.00	5.00
9. I always tell those around me that I want to quit teaching.*	4.32	0.94	1.00	5.00
3. I voluntarily allocate time to help my colleagues when they have problems.	4.30	0.91	1.00	5.00
15. I try to keep up with the changes at school.	4.28	0.88	1.00	5.00
5. Before making a decision related to my school, I seek the opinions of my colleagues who will be affected by the outcome of this decision.	4.24	0.82	2.00	5.00
8. I always inform the administration before taking an important step in my job.	4.16	1.02	1.00	5.00
1. I help my fellow instructors who have a heavy workload.	4.04	0.95	1.00	5.00
7. I take precautions for possible problems that may arise between me and colleagues.	4.04	0.99	1.00	5.00
11. I do not take a break from my work except the official break times.	3.76	1.14	1.00	5.00
4. I help new instructors even if they do not ask for help.	3.74	1.10	1.00	5.00
12. I follow the changes in the school and take an active role in helping colleagues to accept these changes.	3.20	0.86	1.00	5.00
14. I attend all meetings related to school and take active part in discussions.	3.20	1.23	1.00	5.00
13. I voluntarily participate in all activities that strengthen the image of the school.	2.96	1.29	1.00	5.00
TOTAL	4.03	0.51		

* item is reverse coded

In the organizational citizenship behaviours scale, it was seen that Item 10 (*M* = 4.68, *SD* = 0.62) had the highest mean, which revealed that arriving at school on time was the strongest point of the participants. However, the lower mean score of Item 11 (*M* = 3.76, *SD* = 1.14) indicated that punctuality of the participants was specific to coming to school on time. Also, taking the results for Item 2, which referred to attending classes instead of colleagues, and Item 4, which referred to helping others when being asked, into consideration, it could be indicated that attending classes instead of others were considered to be an in-role behaviour which was exerted as a result of a request from superiors. As for the item with the lowest mean, the mean value for Item 13 (*M* = 2.90, *SD* = 1.29) displayed that the participants did not voluntarily participate in all activities. Regarding this, the overall results displayed that the participants did not attach importance to strengthening the image of the school, and they exhibited OCBs to help colleagues rather than promoting the SFL (Table 13).

Regarding the perceptions of the participants towards leadership, the results are presented item by item in Table 14.

Table 14

Leadership perceptions: item by item analysis (*N* = 50)

Item	*M*	*SD*	*Min*	*Max*
10. It is clear where members of the leadership team are authorized to.	4.04	1.14	1.00	5.00
8. Members of the leadership team know which tasks they have to perform.	3.96	1.05	1.00	5.00
2. The leadership team tries to act as well as possible.	3.78	1.31	1.00	5.00
1. There is a well-functioning leadership team in our school.	3.68	1.30	1.00	5.00
7. Members of the leadership team have clear goals.	3.62	1.11	1.00	5.00
4. All members of the leadership team work in the same strain on the school's core objectives.	3.60	1.25	1.00	5.00
3. The leadership team supports the goals we like to attain with our school.	3.58	1.28	1.00	5.00
5. In our school, the right person sits on the right place, taken the competencies into account.	3.58	1.39	1.00	5.00
9. The leadership team is willing to execute a good idea.	3.58	1.25	1.00	5.00
6. Members of the management team divide their time properly.	3.56	1.09	1.00	5.00
TOTAL	3.75	1.03		

In the leadership scale, the three items with the highest mean scores, Item 10 (*M* = 4.04, *SD* = 1.14), Item 8 (*M* = 3.96, *SD* = 1.05), and Item 7 (*M* = 3.62, *SD* = 1.11), revealed

that the participants perceived that the responsibilities of the administrators were clearly defined and explained. Also, based on the mean scores of Item 1 ($M = 3.68$, $SD = 1.30$), Item 7 ($M = 3.63$, $SD = 1.11$) and Item 4 ($M = 3.60$, $SD = 1.25$), the analysis disclosed that the participants perceived that the administrators had clear goals aligned with the core objectives of the school and worked efficiently to achieve them. However, Item 6 with the lowest mean score ($M = 3.56$, $SD = 1.09$) displayed that the administrators were perceived to have problems with dividing their time properly for their responsibilities.

As another variable, the results of item-by-item analysis for the perceptions of the participants towards OE are tabulated in Table 15.

Table 15

Organizational effectiveness perceptions: item by item analysis ($N = 50$)

Item	M	SD	Min	Max
4. The instructors in this school use available resources efficiently.	4.00	0.95	1.00	5.00
3. The instructors in my school do a good job coping with emergencies and disruptions.	3.92	1.01	1.00	5.00
8. When changes are made in the school, instructors accept and adjust quickly	3.60	1.07	1.00	5.00
1. Most everyone in the school accepts and adjusts to changes.	3.46	1.07	1.00	5.00
5. The instructors in this school anticipate problems and prevent them.	3.36	0.88	1.00	5.00
7. The quality of products and services produced in this school is outstanding.	3.34	0.96	1.00	5.00
2. The quantity of products and services in this school is high.	3.28	1.09	1.00	5.00
6. The instructors in this school are well informed about innovations that could affect them.	3.24	0.96	1.00	5.00
TOTAL	3.57	0.54		

As seen in the table, the perceptions of the instructors towards OE were revealed to be high in terms of using available resources efficiently ($M = 4.00$, $SD = 0.95$), coping with emergencies and the problems effectively ($M = 3.92$, $SD = 1.01$), adjusting changes quickly ($M = 3.60$, $SD = 1.07$). On the contrary, the analysis for Item 6 revealed slightly low perceptions with regard to being informed on the changes affecting them ($M = 3.24$, $SD = 0.96$). This result could indicate that OE is ensured thanks to the effort of the instructors rather than the administration. Also, the analysis exposed that the products and the services produced in the school were not perceived to be outstanding or high in terms of both quality and quantity (Item 7, Item 2).

The item-based results for the perceptions of the participants towards organizational communication are presented in Table 16.

Table 16

Organizational communication perceptions item by item analysis ($N = 50$)

Item	M	SD	Min	Max
4. In the school, communication is facilitated in noisy environments where there are disturbing sounds that will prevent communication from occurring.*	4.28	0.95	1.00	5.00
5. The structure of the language used in organizational communication in the school is plain and simple.	3.92	0.99	1.00	5.00
15. The gender of people who take part in the organizational communication process affect the communication at the school.*	3.92	1.09	1.00	5.00
1. The messages transmitted in organizational communication at the school are clear and comprehensible.	3.88	1.14	1.00	5.00
2. Channels that are not suitable for the school environment and conditions are employed for the communication at the school.*	3.88	1.29	1.00	5.00
24. Feedback for the messages is provided on time in organizational communication at the school.	3.86	1.11	1.00	5.00
6. The harmony of message, channel, time and place is of utmost importance in the organizational communication at the school.	3.84	0.93	1.00	5.00
3. In organizational communication, the person who is the source forms and transmits the message allusively and indirectly.*	3.76	1.30	1.00	5.00
8. The messages transmitted in organizational communication at the school are interpreted differently from the intended meaning.*	3.70	1.06	1.00	5.00
9. The parts who are involved in the organizational communication process at the school hold negative attitudes and thoughts about each other and the topic discussed.*	3.50	1.20	1.00	5.00
12. The members can express themselves as they wish in organizational communication at the school.	3.48	1.20	1.00	5.00
13. In organizational communication at the school, the person addressed, who is the receiver, focuses on the messages sent sufficiently.	3.40	1.11	1.00	5.00
23. In organizational communication at the school, the members are given sufficient time for their work.	3.40	1.25	1.00	5.00
18. The organization has a "strict hierarchical structure" (superior-subordinate relationship) in organizational communication at the college.*	3.38	1.31	1.00	5.00
19. There is a discrepancy between the social life of the members and their attitudes and behaviours at the school in organizational communication.*	3.22	1.00	1.00	5.00
20. During organizational communication processes, the school members are loaded with excessive information.*	3.18	1.32	1.00	5.00
21. In organizational communication at the school, the administrators ignore the opinions of subordinates. *	3.16	1.33	1.00	5.00
16. The physical distance between the source of the message (addressor) and the receiver (the addressee) is long in organizational communication at the school.*	3.12	1.21	1.00	5.00
17. The difference of hierarchical status at the school is obvious and emphasised in organizational communication.*	3.12	1.27	1.00	5.00
10. The fact that individuals have the values of different social and cultural structures affects organizational communication at the school.*	2.98	1.24	1.00	5.00
14. The ages of people who take part in the organizational communication process affect the communication at the school. *	2.76	1.45	1.00	5.00
22. The type of communication employed affects communication at the school.*	2.66	1.15	1.00	5.00
11. There are members who accept their thoughts as absolute correct during organizational communication at the school.*	2.52	1.18	1.00	5.00
7. In organizational communication at the school, the source (interlocutor) and the receiver (the listener) have different personality traits.*	2.04	0.88	1.00	4.00
TOTAL	3.41	0.67		

* item is reverse coded

As illustrated in Table 16, Item 4, which referred to that external environment did not disturb the quality of the communication had the highest mean ($M = 4.28$, $SD = 0.95$). In this regard, it could be indicated that when communication is facilitated, third parties do not interfere with the process. In terms of the messages, the analysis yielded that the language employed in communication was plain, which led the messages to be clear and comprehensible, and that feedback for the messages delivered was provided on time. In terms of the communication channels employed, the results revealed that although the channel employed affected the communication process, they were appropriate in terms of conditions and purposes. All the above-mentioned results were aligned with the result of Item 6 ($M = 3.84$, $SD = 0.93$), which explained that the harmony of the message, channel, time and the place is of utmost importance in organizational communication at the SFL. Additionally, in terms of demographic features of the participants, the gender of the people in the conversation did not affect the communication unlike age, which affected. Furthermore, the differences in personal characteristics could be observed during the communication process yet the parts of the communication process did not hold negative attitudes about each other and the topic. In terms of negative perceptions, the participants perceived that the information load tended to be excessive during organizational communication processes (Item 20) ($M = 3.18$, $SD = 1.32$). Also, the results displayed that the difference of hierarchical status at the school was obvious and emphasised in organizational communication, administrators could ignore the opinions of subordinates, which could explain the low mean score for Item 11 ($M = 2.52$, $SD = 1.18$) that expressed people did not always assume to be right during a conversation. That the administrators ignored the opinions of the subordinates could cause the participants to think that there were people who claimed to be always right.

Finally, to understand whether and to what extent the instructors' perceptions of OE, organizational citizenship behaviours, leadership, teacher self-efficacy and organizational communication correlate, the correlation coefficients for each variable pair are tabulated in Table 17.

Table 17

Correlation coefficients for the scales ($N = 49$)

Variable	Value	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Organizational Effectiveness (1)	r				
	p	.			
Organizational Citizenship Behaviours (2)	r	.631			
	p	**< .001**	.		
Leadership (3)	r	.534	.528		
	p	**< .001**	**< .001**		
Teacher Self-efficacy (4)	r	.474	.543	.723	
	p	**.001**	**< .001**	**< .001**	
Organizational Communication (5)	r	.525	.677	.705	.708
	p	**< .001**	**< .001**	**< .001**	**< .001**

As seen in Table 17, All the variables were moderately and positively correlated with one another with correlation coefficients ranging from .474 to .723, explaining 23% to 52% of the variance in the data. The highest correlation coefficient was observed in the leadership – teacher self-efficacy pair ($r = .723$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = .52$), followed by teacher self-efficacy – organizational communication ($r = .708$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = .52$), leadership – organizational communication ($r = .705$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = .52$), organizational communication – organizational citizenship behaviours ($r = .677$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = .52$). On the other hand, the lowest was observed in the organizational effectiveness - teacher self-efficacy pair ($r = .474$, $p = 001$, $r^2 = .23$).

4.4. Findings of RQ2: What are the roles of leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours and teachers' perceived self-efficacy in OE?

This research question aimed to see if organizational citizenship behaviours, leadership and teacher self-efficacy could significantly predict OE. The F test for the model is shown in Table 18.

Table 18

Regression model ($N = 50$)

Model	Value	SS	df	MS	F	p
1	Regression	11.129	3	3.710	20.692	**< .001**
	Residual	8.246	46	0.179		
	Total	19.375	49			

$R^2 = .574$, Adjusted $R^2 = .547$, $SEE = 0.423$

The results showed that the model was statistically significant, explaining 55% of the variance in the data ($F_{(3, 46)} = 21.06$, $p < .001$, Adjusted $R^2 = .55$). The coefficients for the model are given in Table 19.

Table 19.

Regression coefficients ($N = 50$)

Model	Value	B	SE	Beta	t	p
1	Constant	0.508	0.438		1.158	.253
	Organizational Citizenship	0.615	0.136	0.564	4.507	**< .001**
	Leadership	0.158	0.088	0.275	1.804	.078
	Teacher Self-efficacy	-0.004	0.104	-0.006	-0.039	.969

The coefficient analysis showed that teacher self-efficacy ($t = -0.04$, $p > .05$) and leadership ($t = 1.80$, $p > .05$) were not a statistically significant contributor in the regression model. However, organizational citizenship ($t = 4.507$, $p < .001$) contributed significantly to the regression equation which indicated that OCB predicted OE. Based on the coefficients, it was seen that the linear prediction equation could be written as follows:

$$OE = 0.508 + (OC * 0.615) + (L * 0.158) + (TS * -0.004)$$

Due to the observation that a high p value was computed for teacher self-efficacy in the coefficient analysis, a second model which excludes this variable was also tested. The results are given in Table 20.

Table 20

Regression model without teacher self-efficacy (N = 50)

Model	Value	SS	df	MS	F	p
1	Regression	11.128	2	5.564	31.711	**< .001**
	Residual	8.247	47	0.175		
	Total	19.375	49			

R^2 = .574, Adjusted R^2 = .556, *SEE* = 0.419

As seen in the table, the second regression model without teacher self-efficacy could explain 1% more of the variance in the data (Adjusted R^2 = .56) with a higher F value. The results of the coefficient analysis for this model is presented in Table 21.

Table 21

Coefficient analysis for the second regression model (N = 50)

Model	Value	B	SE	Beta	t	p
1	Constant	0.504	0.422		1.193	.239
	Organizational Citizenship	0.613	0.130	0.563	4.705	**< .001**
	Leadership	0.156	0.069	0.271	2.266	**.028**

In the second model without teacher self-efficacy, leadership was also seen to be a significant contributor to the model unlike the first regression model which included teacher self-efficacy as a predictor (t = 2.27, p < .05). Organizational citizenship was again the most significant contributor to the model (t = 4.71, p < .001). The results of the second model indicated that both leadership and citizenship behaviours predicted OE. Based on the results, the linear regression equation for the second model can be written as follows:

OE = 0.504 + (OC * 0.613) + (L * 0.156)

4.5. Findings of RQ3: Where does organizational communication stand in the interaction among OE, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, and instructors' perceived self-efficacy?

The third research question aimed to find out where organizational communication stands between the interaction of organizational citizenship, leadership, teacher self-efficacy, and OE. The model fit indices are shown in Table 22.

Table 22

Path model fit indices

Fit Indicator	Good Fit	Acceptable Fit	Current Model
CFI	$\geq .970$	$\geq .950$	.998
TLI	$\geq .950$	$\geq .900$	.991
NFI	$\geq .950$	$\geq .900$	.984
PNFI	-	$\geq .050$	.197
IFI	$\geq .950$	$\geq .900$	.998
SRMR	$\leq .050$	$\leq .100$	.028
GFI	$\geq .950$	$\geq .900$	.982
X²/df	≤ 2.000	≤ 3.000	1.117
RMSEA	$\leq .050$	$\leq .080$	.049

As shown in the table and based on the thresholds, the model had a good fit. Hence, the regression weights and R-squared values were interpreted. The path model can be seen in Figure 9 which is followed by the regression weights in Table 23.
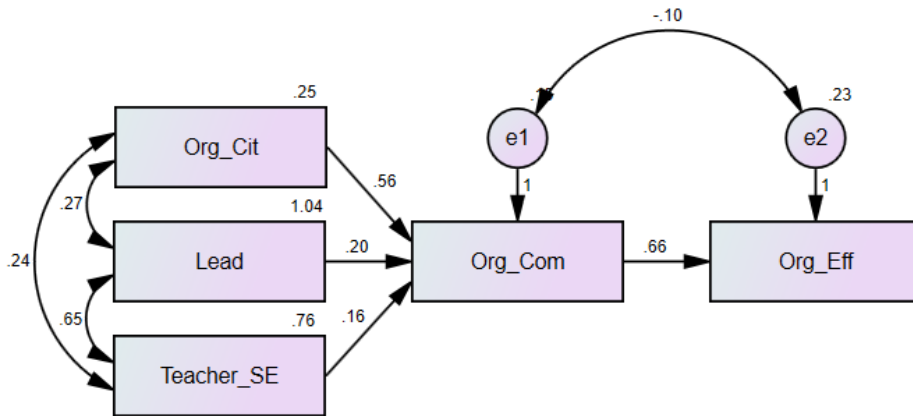
Figure 9. Path model with correlation coefficients ($N = 49$).

Table 23

Path model regression weights ($N = 49$)

Dependent	<--	Independent	Estimate	SE	CR	p
Organizational Communication	<---	Organizational Citizenship	.560	.118	4.736	**< .001**
Organizational Communication	<---	Leadership	.201	.069	2.916	**.004**
Organizational Communication	<---	Teacher Self-efficacy	.164	.081	2.032	**.042**
OE	<---	Organizational Communication	.660	.130	5.091	**< .001**

As seen in Table 21, all the relationships in the model were statistically significant ($p < .05$). Among the predictors of organizational communication, the effects of teacher self-efficacy ($R^2 = .16$), leadership ($R^2 = .20$), and organizational citizenship ($R^2 = .56$) were very weak, weak and moderate respectively. In the same model, organizational communication could predict OE with a moderate effect ($R^2 = .66$) (Chin, 1998).

On the other hand, to uncover the mediating role of the organizational communication between OE and other variables, the interactions of organizational communication with other variables were investigated by means of interviews. The essential reason for carrying out the interviews was to reveal the underlying factors for the interactions.

In this regard, firstly, to present the overall distribution of the coded data as per variable which are OCB, leadership and teacher self-efficacy, the frequencies are presented in Figure 10.
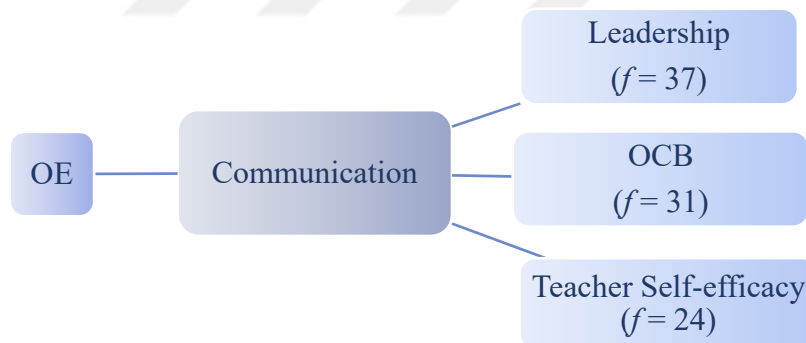
Figure 10. Distribution of the frequencies for the codes for leadership, OCB, teacher self-efficacy.

From a broad aspect, some parts of the qualitative data findings seem to support the quantitative data findings as illustrated in Figure 10. In this regard, teacher self-efficacy was the least attributed variable by the participants for the mediation role of OC to OE, which supported the quantitative data finding of the very weak mediation role of organizational communication between OE and teacher self-efficacy ($f = 24$). However, leadership ($f = 37$) was mentioned more frequently than OCB ($f = 30$) although the quantitative data findings

indicated a stronger mediation role of communication between OCB and OE. Below, to better understand the mediator role of OC between the OCB and OE, the categories and sub-categories that the qualitative data analysis yielded are presented in relation to the two groups of participants, the administrators and instructors (Table 24).

Table 24

Interactions between organizational communication and citizenship behaviours in terms of OE

Theme	Category	Sub-Category	Administrator (*N* = 3)	Instructor (*N* = 7)
Organizational Citizenship Behaviours	Supportive behaviours (*20*)	participation in decision making (*7*)	AD2, AD3	INS2, INS3, INS4, INS6, INS7
		multiple channels for solidarity (*6*)	AD3	INS2, INS3, INS5, INS6, INS7
		register (5)	AD1, AD2, AD3	INS1, INS7
		leisure time activities (*2*)	AD2	INS1
	Weakening behaviours (*11*)	top-down decision making (*5*)	AD1, AD2, AD3	INS4, INS6
		multiple channels for the same purpose (*3*)	AD2	INS2, INS7
		violation of personal life (*3*)	AD2	INS3, INS7

Regarding OCB, seven sub-categories under two categories emerged from the qualitative data. Four of the sub-categories which were 'participation in decision making', 'multiple channels for solidarity', 'register', and 'leisure time activities' constituted the first category, 'supportive behaviours' (Table 24). Among these sub-categories, 'participation in decision making' had the highest frequency (*f* =7). According to the participants, the availability of communication channels by which the instructors could freely express their opinions for possible changes regarding curriculum and other work-related issues such as management, environment, and the fact that their ideas were considered by the administration in decision-making processes increased the voluntary participation of the instructors. In this respect, INS4 remarked "Through communication channels via which we can express our opinions such as 'Level meetings', we as the first-hand implementers of the materials and pacing schedules contribute to the improvement of the curriculum by providing feedback." Regarding 'multiple channels for solidarity', through communication

channels i.e. level groups on *Signal*, 'Level meetings', e-mails, 'End of Module meetings' on *Zoom* the instructors mentioned that they shared their professional opinions, new materials, professional events, challenges encountered in the class, which promoted sharing and encouraged improvements in curriculum implementations. INS7 stated:

> While observing my partner, she used a material which I thought to be very useful for the students. After class, I told her about it and she sent it to me via e-mail. …or when a colleague asks for help for a problem regarding smart boards on the Signal group, I share the solution if I have had the same issue and known the solution.

Apart from in-class issues, communication was also related to social life and the participants stated that they were eager to support each other without any obligations. In this respect, INS7 remarked "Sharing also includes social life. When someone leaves the job, I voluntarily say goodbye to that person and wish good luck face to face and on Signal group even though I am not obliged to do so." 'Register' adopted in communication also impacted extra-role behaviours of the instructors and the administrators, which indirectly affected OE. This sub-category was mainly related to the feelings, and seriousness of the issue being discussed, which determined the effort they were willing to devote to a task. AD1 explained:

> I might have a very stressful and busy day or I might have some personal problems. However, I should not reflect those feelings to others in communication and I should watch my language not to offend both in written and verbal communication.

Similarly, AD3 stated, "The language used in communication causes me to have positive or negative feelings towards the instructors." As to seriousness, AD2 pointed out "Instructors form opinions about us and the issues according to the register. For instance, starting the text with 'Hi friends' indicates a soft issue while 'Dear colleagues' indicates a serious issue." Also about register, both administrators and instructors stated that requesting kindly instead of using imperatives positively influenced the citizenship behaviours of the instructors. INS7 explained "I am very pleased with the language my administrators use with me. I am always kindly told about my duties even though they are already in my job description." As the last sub-category of 'supportive behaviours', 'leisure time activities' was mentioned by two of the participants and emphasised as to be motivators. According to

the participants, leisure time activities increased communication among staff and indirectly improved the effectiveness of the SFL.

Apart from 'supportive behaviours', communication resulted in 'weakening behaviours' of OCB, and three sub-categories that were 'top-down decision making', 'multiple channels for the same purpose' and 'violation of personal life' emerged under this category (Table 24). As the most mentioned sub-category, 'top-down decision making' ($f =$ 5) appeared to be the opposite of 'participation in decision making'. According to the participants, top-down decisions which were announced to staff by means of e-mails, *Signal* messages, *Zoom* meetings and *Moodle* (Language Management System) caused the staff to feel obliged to carry out a task, avoid taking extra responsibility. In this regard, AD2 explained:

The SFL is very crowded and we need to make firm decisions in order to ensure equity and make sure of the maintenance. For instance, medical reports are not excused for attendance. I do not agree with this policy written on our regulations and feel bad when I have to talk to students on this issue.

INS4 stated:

I sometimes feel under pressure and restrained due to the decisions of the administration. …I am told to cover certain pages on daily basis via pacing schedules uploaded on Moodle. I understand the necessity of such decisions but I do not voluntarily cover extra materials.

In terms of the second sub-category, 'multiple channels for the same purpose' was attributed as being reminded on duties that were already sent via e-mails by means of *Signal* groups. The participants stated that they already planned to carry out the tasks asked via e-mails but getting reminders on *Signal* caused them to feel stressed. Furthermore, these reminders resulted in spoon-feeding by imposing the idea that important duties were reminded on *Signal* and there was no need to check e-mails regularly. In this respect, INS2 pointed out:

It is easier to keep the track of the messages on Signal than on e-mails. Therefore, the duties shared via e-mails are reminded on Signal, as well. This creates the perception that there is no need to check e-mails regularly as they are reminded via Signal.

For the last category, 'violation of personal life' emerged as the opposite of 'leisure time activities' since both indicated the time off work. While the latter focused on spending quality and fun time with colleagues, 'violation of personal life' referred to working extra hours. In such situations, the participants unwillingly worked and felt that they were 'too much' available. INS7 expressed:

Zoom sometimes became a tool that forced us to work extra hours because it enabled meetings to be held without the restrictions of time and place." Similarly, INS3 stated "We sometimes get messages on Signal outside of office hours. When I am 'on-duty' the next day, I have to check the messages at night in case of a possible cover and I feel stressed about it.

On the other hand, in order for a deeper understanding about the mediator role of organizational communication between Leadership and OE, the categories, sub-categories that the qualitative data analysis revealed are demonstrated in relation to the two groups of participants, the administrators and instructors (Table 25).

Table 25

Interactions between organizational communication and leadership in terms of OE

Theme	Category	Sub-Category	Administrator (*N* = 3)	Instructor (*N* = 7)
Leadership	supportive environment (*27*)	overt support behaviour for expression of ideas (*7*)	AD2, AD3	INS3, INS4, INS5, INS6, INS7
		participatory decision making (*7*)	AD1, AD2, AD3	INS1, INS2, INS3, INS6
		register (*7*)	AD1	INS1, INS2, INS3, INS5, INS6, INS7
		accessibility (*3*)	AD3	INS1, INS2
		promotion of professional learning (*3*)	AD3	INS5, INS7
	sustained use of communication channels (*10*)		AD1, AD2, AD3	INS1, INS2, INS3, INS4, INS5, INS6, INS7

As illustrated in Table 25, two categories, which were 'supportive environment' and 'sustained use of communication channels', emerged in terms of leadership. For the first category, 'over support behaviour for expression of ideas', 'participatory decision making', and 'register' came out as sub-categories. Among these, the first sub-category was mentioned by seven of the participants and referred to encouraging all stakeholders to express opinions by means of multiple channels i.e. online meetings, 'End of Module feedback', Level meetings, Signal groups, face-to-face. In this regard, AD3 explained "Through communication channels, everyone expresses their opinions. If these channels were not provided, I do not think everyone would share their ideas for various reasons. Thanks to this network, we can hear everyone." INS7 explained:

So far, I have always been able to share my ideas via multiple channels. We have an environment in SFL where we can knock on everyone's door from the secretary to the administrators and express opinions, and I am very pleased with it.

Similarly, INS4 pointed out "Being able to freely share my opinions not only with a particular superior but with all of them, being heard by them means the communication is effective in our SFL." Regarding 'participatory decision making', the participants mentioned that the instructors and students were encouraged by the administrators to take part in the evaluation part of the curricular implementations by means of communication channels, i.e. 'End of Module meetings', 'level groups' on *Signal*, 'grading groups' on *Signal*, 'End of Module feedback forms'. Their participation influenced the effectiveness of the SFL since they were the first-hand experts and practitioners. AD2 stated:

Everything we discuss in 'Quality Life Cycle' is actually communication. Prior to taking any action, we collect data from instructors and students by means of meetings, and feedback forms. Then, we as administrators meet with the members of academic units [Testing and Assessment Unit, Curriculum and Material Development Unit, Continuous Professional Development Unit, Institutional Effectiveness and Quality Unit, Digital Unit], evaluate the data, and make instant changes if they are minor. If major changes are required, we include them in our 'action plan' to be considered in a longer period of time.

INS6 supported the statement of AD2 by pointing out "We requested having 'Level meetings' bi-weekly rather than weekly in 'End of Module feedback forms'. The administrator evaluated this and approved having bi-weekly Level meetings. I find such decisions highly effective and to-the-point." Regarding 'register' in terms of leadership, the participants made similar statements to 'register' in OCB. They stated that the register of the administrators showed they were professional and set examples for the instructors. INS3 expressed:

Our director uses a very formal language during communication. This indicates that he is highly professional and decent and he takes his job very serious. Also, I sometimes look up some words he uses in the dictionary which indicates that he uses communication tools very professionally and it also gives me an idea about his professional ethics.

Also, the register adopted led them to be comfortable about approaching any of the administrators. For instance, INS7 expressed "I prefer to share my negative opinions rather than hiding them. The way they use the language encourages me to get in touch with them at any time. I appreciate this." Regarding 'accessibility', the participants pointed out that the administration is always accessible thanks to multiple communication channels. The instructors were able to reach them by means of e-mails, instant messaging groups, or face-to-face and this increased the trust in the SFL. INS2 pointed out "Knowing that my superiors are always available and I can find a relevant person whenever I need makes me feel safe." Similarly, INS1 explained "The instructors can always reach a superior when they have questions or need help, and this ensures the maintenance in our SFL." As for the last sub-category under 'supportive environment', leadership was also related to 'promotion of professional learning'. According to the participants, the administrators always encourage, plan professional learning workshops, events, and training, and share the ones held by different schools or organizations.

As seen in Table 25, for the second category of leadership, 'sustained use of communication channels' was mentioned by all of the participants ($f = 10$). According to the participants, particular communication channels are used for certain purposes. Therefore, sustained use of the channels enabled standardisation and clear transmission of messages besides preventing unexpected situations, all of which were related to OE. For instance,

according to the participants, the director mostly used e-mails to communicate with the staff while the vice directors, the head of the programme, and the programme coordinator used e-mails for the announcements related to the university, *Moodle* to share relevant materials such as timetables, announcements, *Signal* to solve urgent problems. In this regard, INS7 explained:

> I know that timetable, days 'on-duty / off', schedule for online – face-to-face classes are shared by the administrators via e-mail before the beginning of a new module. It is a standardized operation that saves time for everyone, as I do not have to ask how I will reach this information each module.

Finally, with respect to the last variable, teacher self-efficacy, the mediator role of OC between teacher self-efficacy and OE in relation to the two groups of participants, the administrators and instructors, are presented in Table 26 for profound understanding.

Table 26

Interactions between organizational communication and teacher self-efficacy in terms of OE

Theme	Category	Sub-Category	Administrator (*N* = 3)	Instructor (*N* = 7)
Teacher Self-efficacy	administrative impacts (17)	participatory decision making (*8*)	AD2, AD3	INS1, INS2, INS3, INS4, INS6, INS7
		top-down decision making (*6*)	AD1, AD2, AD3	INS4, INS5, INS6
		promotion of professional learning (*3*)	AD2	INS2, INS3
	experience-ability (*7*)		AD1, AD2, AD3	INS2, INS4, INS5, INS7

Table 26 illustrates the mediation role of communication between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs in the context of school and in-class and OE. According to the qualitative data analysis, two relevant categories, which were 'administrative impacts' and 'experience-ability', emerged. Under the first category, three sub-categories, of which 'participatory decision making' had the highest frequency (*f* = 8), were grouped. According to the participants, the most frequent sub-category had positive impacts on their self-efficacy

beliefs as the administration appreciated and considered the professional opinions of the participants. INS1 stated:

During 'Level meetings', we provide our opinions regarding the content and materials. According to our feedback and requests, new materials are prepared and shared with us by the Curriculum and Material Development Unit and we see the direct impact of our participation in decision-making in our classrooms.

For another example, AD2 explained:

Before Signal, we used WhatsApp in the SFL. Due to the request of the instructors on switching to another application, we gathered with instructors who are knowledgeable about this kind of technology and asked for their advice on alternative applications. Based on their opinions, we started using Signal.

On the other hand, the second sub-category, 'top-down decision making' referred to the opposite and indicated either negative impacts or no impacts in terms of OE. As for the negative impacts, one of the participants pointed out that the decision of the administration on including *WhatsApp* in the communication network of the SFL in previous years caused her to question her competency in technology and qualification of being a part of the SFL. From a different perspective, AD3 explained "When an instructor states that teaching 24 class hours a week is exhausting and ineffective and this should change via Signal, nothing can be changed. Communication channels do not have any significant role at this point." In this respect, maintaining an operation despite the opposing beliefs of instructors could cause the instructors to feel inefficient and worthless as professionals. In terms of not promoting self-efficacy, the participants stated that being obliged to carry out duties makes them feel bad but does not cause any changes in their self-efficacy beliefs. For instance, INS5 expressed:

I think the book we use for writing classes is not beneficial for our students because it mainly focuses on reading skills. Although I have shared this opinion via feedback forms and 'end of module' meetings, we have been told that we have to keep using this material.

I believe it is a waste of time and this decision makes me sad but I keep covering the book.

As for the final sub-category, 'promotion of professional learning' was related to having positive impact on instructors' self-efficacy beliefs. For this sub-category, the participants mentioned professional tips and information provided not only by outside experts but also by their colleagues. As for the first one, the participants stated that professional development opportunities were offered and shared by the administrators by means of e-mails, *Signal* messages. INS2 stated "Announcements for training, workshops which I would not know about are shared with us. This enables me to contribute to my professional knowledge." In terms of professional learning provided by the colleagues, the participants emphasised the challenges faced in the SFL and the relief experienced after discussing them among the staff. Accordingly, INS3 pointed out:

Thanks to the communication channels such as 'Level meetings', a colleague mentions a problem that I also encounter in the class. I see that I am not the only one having this challenge and I feel relieved. Also, the ideas discussed to solve the problem make me feel more competent.

The second category that emerged in the qualitative data analysis, 'experience-ability', was mentioned by seven participants (Table 26). Regarding this category, the participants highlighted that communication did not always affect their self-efficacy beliefs because they feel they have enough experience and ability. In this regard, INS7 expressed:

Although what is delivered to me by means of communication channels affects my self-efficacy beliefs shortly, it does not change my teaching performance in the classroom. My performance in teaching, communication abilities with the students do not depend on what I have been told. I do what I do in the classroom because I believe it to be the right thing to do.

From a different perspective, AD3 claimed that previous experiences formed her self-efficacy beliefs but once they were set, her beliefs rarely changed even though counterarguments were presented by means of multiple communication channels and she

added "It is not healthy to teach 24 class hours a week. No matter what communication channel is employed to tell the necessity of teaching 24 class hours a week, I will not change my mind."

Overall, when the findings are analysed altogether, it could be strongly stated that participatory decision-making, promotion of professional learning, register and use of multiple channels appear to be the most significant sources for OE in terms of organizational communication. On the other hand, top-down decision-making was revealed to be affecting OE negatively.

4.6. Findings of RQ4: Do organizational communication channels serve the purpose of enhancing OE in the SFL?

The fourth research question aimed to investigate whether the current communication channels employed in the SFL serve the purpose of enhancing OE. For this purpose, the data was obtained by means of semi-structured interviews with 10 participants, three of whom were administrators and seven of whom were instructors.

Due to the nature of the research, RQ4 was comprised of two separate yet relevant sub-questions. Hence, the data analysis of each sub-question is separately demonstrated.

4.6.1. Findings of RQ4a: What are the most/least contributing channels of communication? How do (not) they contribute to OE?

In order to reveal the contribution of communication channels to OE, the channels employed in the SFL were investigated by means of interviews. In this regard, to present the overall picture, the contribution percentages of each communication channel to OE, which qualitative data analysis yielded, are displayed in Figure 11.
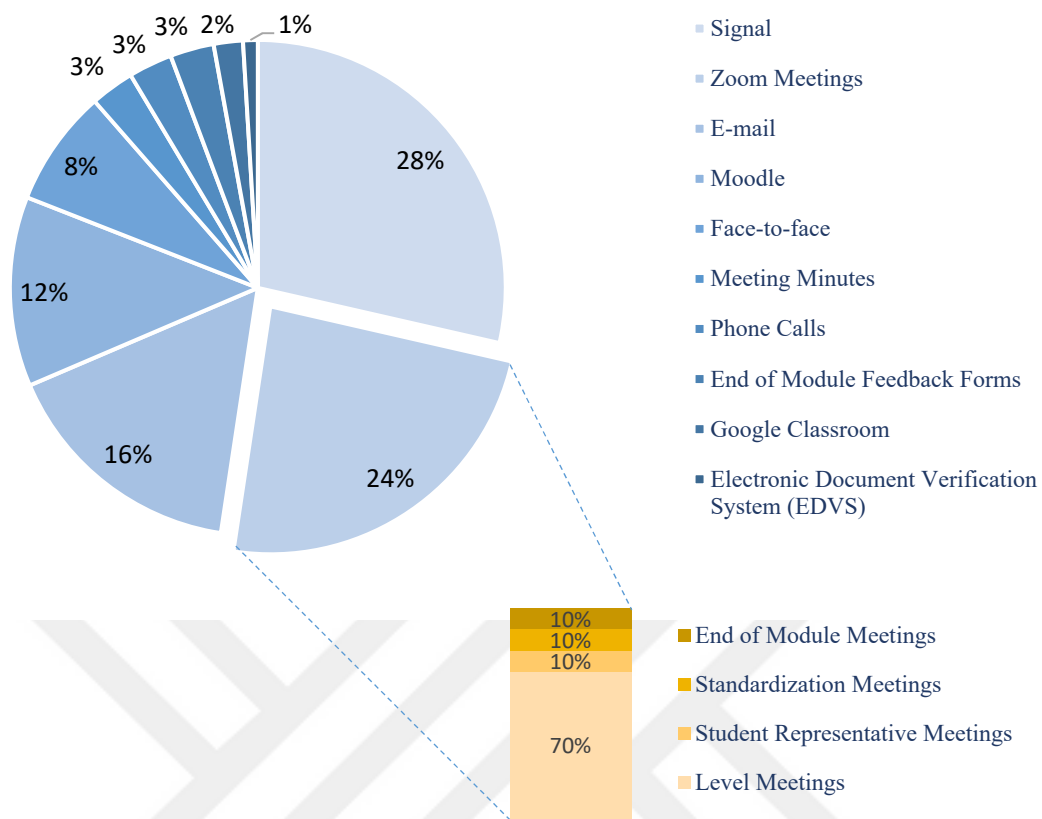
Figure 11. Contribution percentages of present communication channels to OE.

As illustrated in Figure 11, communication channels that were mentioned by the participants involved *Signal*, e-mails, *Google Classroom*, face-to-face, EDVS, *Moodle*, *Zoom* meetings, meeting minutes, and phone calls. Since the meetings were held on Zoom application, they were grouped under this category and comprised of 'End of Module meetings', 'Level meetings', 'Standardisation meetings', and 'student representative meetings'. Accordingly, the qualitative data analysis revealed that all present channels contributed to the OE of the SFL to some degree. In this respect, *Signal* was revealed to have the highest contribution to effectiveness with 28 % while EDVS had the lowest with only 1%. As for *Signal*, the participants stated that they were involved in several groups each of which served particular purposes. The main group included not only instructors but also administrators and secretaries, which enabled multiple stakeholders such as instructors, administrators, and secretaries to have a voice and to be heard regarding the functioning of operations rather than being passive workers. As to this, INS3 pointed out:

We have groups on Signal where we discuss urgent and day-to-day basis issues. For instance, we discuss the issues concerning all instructors on the main group, curricular issues on the groups allocated for the levels we teach or alternative answers for the exams on the groups created for grading based on the level.

Apart from involving the stakeholders, as stated by the participants, *Signal* contributed to OE in several other aspects. Firstly, instant communication enabled solving unexpected problems such as technical issues with the smartboards in the class, which ensures the proper functioning of the operations. Secondly, it enabled making surprise announcements such as last-call changes in the attendance lists, or alternative answers to be added to the answer keys for an exam, which contributes to OE by ensuring standardisation and crowd management. AD1 pointed out:

The SFL is a huge institution with many instructors. That is why it is not possible to talk to everyone in person. When I have an announcement to make, I share it on Signal which allows 70 instructors to learn the announcement at once.

Also, *Signal* was employed by the participants to get answers for urgent questions such as admitting a latecomer with an unusual reason to the exam, which also ensures standardisation and maintenance. Furthermore, urgent demands such as ink for the printer, supplementary materials for extra practice were also issued via Signal, which promotes goal-attainment, and saves time. Finally, it was employed to remind duties that were previously sent by e-mails, which promotes the proper functioning of the SFL.

Concerning *Zoom* meetings, the participants explained that all the meetings, which had been held face-to-face previously, were held on *Zoom* application due to the Covid-19 break-out. Regarding, 'End of Module meetings', 'Level meetings', and 'Standardisation meetings' were revealed under the category of *Zoom* meetings (Figure 11). From a general aspect, the participants stated that *Zoom* eliminated time and place restrictions, aimed to involve all stakeholders in decision-making processes, besides ensuring the functioning of the SFL. AD3 explained:

Especially during the Covid-19 pandemic, Zoom made the life easier for us. A few days after the lockdown, we as the SFL were able to continue teaching. Apart from teaching, we started to have our meetings on Zoom. This saved a great amount of time since we had to commute to other campuses for meetings before. I used to spend four hours commuting to attend a meeting on Ayazağa Campus.

As for the meetings held on *Zoom*, 'Level meetings' had the highest frequency (*f* = 8). According to the participants, 'Level meetings' served the purpose of involving instructors as stakeholders in the planning, and evaluating phases of the curriculum, besides curriculum implementations. They were encouraged to evaluate the curriculum by providing feedback on the materials, and the pacing schedules. The relevant academic unit members and the head of the programme considered the feedback, they made necessary changes, and the instructors were informed on the plans and the changes. According to INS1:

During Level meetings we discuss and give feedback on the curriculum. Based on our feedback, the relevant people make changes and inform us. For instance, we ask for a supplementary material, the Curriculum and Material Development Unit prepares it and shares the material with us so that we can use it in class. Therefore, we are able to see the results of our feedback directly in the class.

Apart from involving stakeholders in decision-making processes, 'Level meetings' also contributed to OE by promoting the emotional well-being of the instructors. In this regard, INS3 pointed out:

Thanks to the communication channels such as 'Level meetings', a colleague mentions a problem that I also encounter in the class. I see that I am not the only one having this challenge and I feel relieved. Also, the ideas discussed to solve the problem make me feel more competent."

As for another type of meeting held on *Zoom*, according to the participants, 'End of Module meetings', which involve the instructors, administrators, and secretaries, also promoted being involved in decision-making processes and encouraged to have a voice by offering a chance to give feedback on the implementation of curriculum and other

operations. For the participants, 'End of Module meetings' served to evaluate the practices of the previous module in terms of pros and cons, and to prevent the possible problems that could be encountered in the next modules. As the qualitative data analysis yielded, 'Standardisation meetings' were also held in the SFL for the writing exams. As the name of the meeting indicates, these meetings contributed to OE in terms of ensuring standardisation. In this regard, INS3 remarked "While grading writing quizzes, we encounter unusual types of papers. Being informed on how we should grade such papers before we start grading helps us a lot." Finally, 'Student Representative meetings' were held twice a module with the students who were class representatives chaired by a vice director, the head of the programme, and the coordinator of the programme in the SFL. According to the participants, these meetings enabled the students to express their opinions on the curriculum and the facilitates of the SFL, which contributed to OE in terms of involving other stakeholders and fostering learner autonomy. In this regard, AD2 explained:

Student Representative meetings are really useful because the students can see that they have a say and they are an important part of their education. This develops learner autonomy. The students feel that they are part of the learning process and this reflects in the classrooms in a very positive way. They can even talk about the materials at these meetings regarding usefulness, or even answer keys. They love to see they are taken seriously.

As for another communication channel contributing to OE, e-mail was stated as the most formal communication channel employed among all departments of the university (Figure 11). The participants expressed that e-mails promoted the idea that the message delivered was significant for the maintenance of the operations, and it concerned the receivers at the university level, which promoted communication with other departments in terms of its contribution to OE. Additionally, e-mails ensured standardisation, saved time and provided proof since the participants were able to check previous emails on similar subjects. AD2 explained:

I receive a lot of e-mails from the students and archive them because they have questions on the same subjects. In order to save time and ensure standardisation, I check previous

e-mails. Also, we add other members of the administration on the e-mails so that they can give the same answer when students ask them the same questions.

Similarly, AD3 explained "...I send e-mails to have proof for what has been discussed. If I have a problem regarding the subject a month later, I could prove that I had sent an e-mail on the subject and got a response." Also, e-mails enabled keeping the track of the tasks, and planning operations, which enhanced OE. For instance, INS7 stated "When I check my e-mails, I am able to take notes and plan the duties carefully since I do not usually have the pressure of responding instantly." As for another communication channel that emerged in the qualitative data analysis, the participants mentioned *Moodle* and stated that all supplementary materials, announcements regarding the classes or exams were shared and archived there. Therefore, in terms of contributions to OE, the channel served as a database for the instructors and students since all the documents were available for their use, it saved time since the samples for petitions, templates for feedback forms, and meeting minutes were shared via *Moodle*. As for another contribution, *Moodle* promoted routine since all stakeholders knew that the necessary documents such as pacing schedules, 'must' materials, timetables were regularly shared there. Regarding this, INS7 explained:

Moodle establishes routine. At the end of the week, I know I need to check Moodle to plan my lessons for the following week. Without extra help, I download pacing schedules, 'must' materials. For another instance, on Moodle, I can find the necessary documents for 'Speaking' exam on the exam day so I do not have to ask anyone about them.

In addition, it fostered learner autonomy since the students were able to find extra materials for self-study and enabled ongoing communication with the students since it offered instant messaging with school identities.

As indicated in Figure 11, face-to-face communication was, also, stated to contribute to OE. According to the participants, face-to-face communication increased sincerity among the staff, and enhanced clear transmission of the intended message by means of body language. Also, meeting minutes were mentioned as communication channels and related to OE. According to AD3, they enabled everyone to speak up, provide feedback, which contributes to OE by involving all stakeholders in decision-making processes, offering

equity as to have a say and informing superiors on the functioning of the operations. On the other hand, similar to *Signal*, phone calls were stated to be employed in case of emergencies. In terms of OE, they saved time in emergencies, and prevented misunderstandings about the intended message thanks to intonation. Regarding, AD2 remarked "I believe that it is easier to transmit the intended message to the receiver during face-to-face communication and phone calls. By paying attention to intonation, we can identify what is actually intended while talking on the phone." With respect to 'End of Module feedback forms', the participants stated that they provided opportunities for everyone to express their opinions regarding the operations in the SFL. The issues shared on the feedback forms were read, discussed by the people who were responsible and necessary adjustments were made accordingly. In terms of OE, the feedback forms involved everyone in the planning, and evaluation stages of the curriculum, achieved consensus, and made sure of the maintenance. As another communication channel, *Google Classroom* was also pointed out although it was emphasised as a teaching tool. The participants expressed that they employed *Google Classroom* for their writing lessons and used it as a communication channel with their students. Regarding, INS5 remarked "I consider Google Classroom as a social media platform where I can communicate with my students on their progress of writing portfolios." Similarly, AD2 explained "I can see when a student adds a new paper, or asks a question regarding writing papers on Google Classroom. It enables me to communicate with my students directly outside the class." In respect to the statements of the participants, *Google Classroom* contributed to OE by fostering learner autonomy, enabling ongoing communication with the students, and adjusting to technological advances at the organization level. Finally, only one participant mentioned EDVS as a communication channel contributing to OE. According to her, EDVS, which was a highly formal channel, was employed for document transmission among the university rather than the SFL and it contributed to OE by keeping in touch with other departments.

Altogether, the qualitative data analysis revealed that the present communication channels employed in the SFL served the purpose of contributing to OE at some point (Figure 11). However, they differed in terms of their support for or hinderance to OE.

4.6.2. Findings of RQ4b: What are the facilitators of/barriers to OE with regard to the present communication channels?

To find out the facilitators of and barriers to OE with regard to the communication channels employed in the SFL, inductive content analysis was employed for the analysis of qualitative data. In this regard, for deeper understanding, the facilitators and the barriers, which emerged in the qualitative data analysis, were separately presented in detail with categories and sub-categories in relation to the two groups of participants, the administrators and instructors.

For this purpose, firstly, the overall distribution of the coded data as for facilitators and barriers of communication channels in terms of OE is presented in Figure 12.
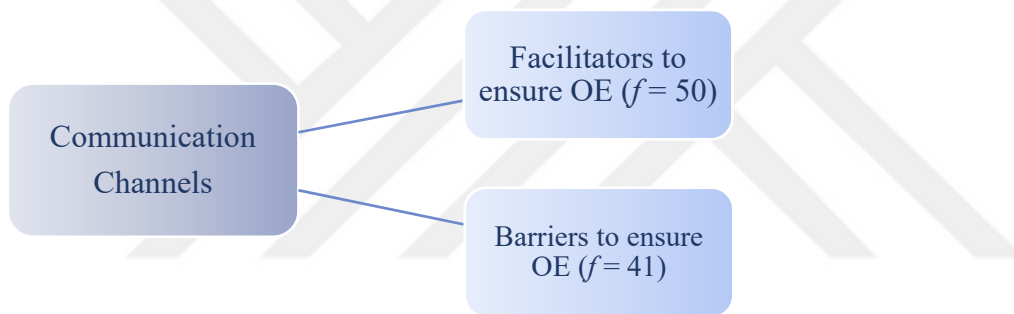

Figure 12. Distribution of the frequencies for the codes for the facilitators and the barriers of communication channels in terms of OE

As illustrated in Figure 12, the qualitative data analysis revealed that the facilitators of the communication channels ($f = 50$) outnumbered the barriers ($f = 41$) in terms of OE despite the small amount of difference. In order for better comprehension of the facilitators and the barriers of present communication channels in ensuring OE, the categories, sub-categories which emerged as a result of qualitative data analysis are separately displayed and explained in detail in relation to the two groups of participants, the administrators and instructors. Secondly, the facilitators of the present communication channels to ensure OE are presented in Table 27.

Table 27

Facilitators of the present communication channels to ensure OE

Theme	Category	Sub-Category	Administrator (*N* = 3)	Instructor (*N* = 7)
Facilitators	work-related facilitators (*38*)	instant delivery of the intended message (*10*)	AD1, AD2, AD3	INS1, INS2, INS3, INS4, INS5, INS6, INS7
		database (*8*)	AD2, AD3	INS1, INS2, INS3, INS4, INS6, INS7
		accessibility (*7*)	AD3	INS1, INS2, INS3, INS4, INS6, INS7
		document transmission (*7*)	AD2	INS2, INS3, INS4, INS5, INS6, INS7
		multiple channels for different purposes (*6*)	AD1, AD3	INS1, INS2, INS3, INS7
	personal facilitators (*12*)	display of feelings (*5*)	AD2, AD3	INS2, INS3, INS4
		reminder (*4*)	AD2	INS1, INS4, INS6
		register (*3*)	AD1, AD2, AD3	

As Table 27 illustrates, according to the qualitative data analysis, the facilitators were grouped under two categories which were 'work-related facilitators' and 'personal facilitators'. Under the first category, 'work-related facilitators', 'instant delivery of the intended message, 'database', accessibility', document transmission', and 'multiple channels for different purposes' emerged as sub-categories. 'Instant delivery of the intended message' had the highest frequency under the relevant category (*f* = 10) and was mentioned as a facilitator that enabled managing the time effectively, maintaining the operations smoothly, ensurimh the organization and preventing the problems in terms of OE with reference to both instructional and operational effectiveness. Although all of the participants associated the sub-category with *Signal*, two of the participants also mentioned phone calls, *Moodle*, and e-mails. In terms of instructional functioning, the participants explained that last-call covers, urgent need for materials or documents such as printed materials in case of a power-cut or attendance lists, and problems with the smart board during the class hours were informed via *Signal*. In this respect, AD1 explained:

Thanks to Signal, in case of problems, we can act instantly. For instance, when we get a last-minute call from an instructor who would not be able to teach the class that starts in 10 minutes, we can immediately assign another instructor via Signal to cover the class.

Similarly, INS3 stated:

When I have a problem during the lesson, I instantly share it via Signal. For instance, when the smartboard stops working, I ask for help via Signal and the members of the Digital Unit come and solve the problem immediately.

As for the operational functioning, AD1 explained:

Communication is not comprised of teaching in the SFL. The school is an organization which is a part of life. Therefore, the staff may have problems or needs other than instruction-related ones. Signal is, also, used for the request for drinking water, office cleaning, complaints on the noise due to constructions and these problems are solved in a very short time.

As for another sub-category of work-related facilitators, 'database' was mentioned by eight of the participants (Table 27). *Moodle*, e-mails, and *Signal* was revealed to serve as database and enable managing the crowd, ensure standardisation, manage time effectively, and foster autonomy as regards OE. According to the participants, the announcements for the exams such as dates, classrooms, *Zoom* codes, the documents necessary for exam invigilation and grading, timetables, pacing schedules, cover lists, regulations, petition samples for grade appeals, supplementary and must materials for all levels were shared, continuously updated in *Moodle* and permanently stored there. Students were able to download the materials for self-study, find the documents for appeals without the direction of instructors, which fostered autonomy, maintained the functioning of operations, and saved time. In this respect, INS3 explained:

We may not be able to cover all the materials during the classes. However, students are able to check them on Moodle, revise the subjects and do extra activities on their own.

…Last week, one of my students expressed her appreciation of Moodle by saying she could find extra materials for the subjects covered in class and it was very helpful.

Also, the instructors were able to check the materials or documents of previous modules whenever they needed them, which saved time, enabled successful management of the crowd, and enhanced organization. For the participants, e-mails also functioned as a database. All previous emails were achieved and when they replied to an e-mail, they were able to check the previous mails that were on the same topic and made sure of the standardisation in their responses. Besides, e-mails enabled keeping the track of the operations in terms of OE. Regarding, INS1 stated:

I was supposed to send new codes for the online versions of coursebooks. I checked the previous emails about the codes that I sent to instructors, identified the expiration dates and the books, planned my own schedule and worked on the task in an organized way.

As for 'accessibility', the participants mentioned Signal, 'End of Module feedback forms', and *Zoom* meetings and discussed several points. Firstly, the administrators were always accessible and open to feedback via *Zoom* meetings, *Signal*, feedback forms, which increased their faith and commitment to the SFL. Secondly, the participants were able to find solutions for urgent problems such as cover needs, technical issues, and material requirements in class via *Signal*, which enabled the maintenance of the operations and increased the quality of English language education. Thirdly, they were able to reach all the staff in a short time thanks to *Signal*, and the e-mails, which enabled managing the crowd. Finally, the staff was able to have meetings on *Zoom* without the restriction of place, which saved time, and increased motivation since the staff did not have to commute to other campuses only for a meeting. Corresponding to another sub-category, 'document transmission', the participants explained that all the necessary documents were delivered by means of e-mails, and *Moodle*. According to the participants, the information, which would take long time to explain by means of face-to-face communication, was documented and sent by e-mails or shared in *Moodle*. This saved time and promoted an orderly environment. As for the last sub-category, 'multiple channels for different purposes', the participants stated that communication channels and their intended use were well-defined in the SFL. For instance, *Signal* was mainly used for emergencies and instant solutions, *Moodle* was

used for sharing materials and documents, e-mails were employed to make announcements that concern all the staff, 'Level meetings' were held to receive feedback on the curriculum. Accordingly, INS1 pointed out "Because how we employ communication channels is planned, programmed, and clear we know well what to do, when and how. Since there is no uncertainty, we can see ahead."

Apart from 'work-related facilitators', the qualitative data analysis also revealed 'personal facilitators' as a category for facilitators of communication channels to ensure OE (Table 27). Under the category, three sub-categories, 'display of feelings', 'reminder', and 'register' emerged. In terms of 'display of feelings', the use of 'emojis' on *Signal* and the use of body language, mimics, gestures in face-to-face communication, phone calls and *Zoom* meetings were associated with clear transmission of the intended message regarding OE by the participants. AD2 remarked:

I am always careful about my body language, mimics, and intonation while communicating face-to-face. Since I cannot display our mimics on Signal, I need to use 'emojis'. For instance, I send a 'heart emoji' in order to indicate I mean 'well', or a 'thumbs up emoji' to show I approve what's been written.

AD3 explained "My facial expression helps the other person understand what I really mean." 'Reminder' also emerged as a facilitator of the communication channels to ensure OE. The participants mentioned that the duties and deadlines that were previously shared by e-mails were reminded on *Signal*, which facilitated the maintenance of the operations and effective crowd management. Finally, 'register' was revealed as the last sub-category for 'personal facilitators'. The participants who mentioned 'register' stated that *Signal* allowed them to adjust their language according to their purposes. In this regard, AD3 expressed "The best part of Signal is that I can hide my feelings by adjusting the language I use." Similarly, AD2 pointed out "Starting the text with 'Hi friends' indicates a soft issue while 'Dear colleagues' indicates a serious issue."

Thirdly, apart from the facilitators, the participants also reported some factors pertaining to the communication channels as barriers to OE (see Table 28).

Table 28

Barriers of the present communication channels to ensure OE

Theme	Category	Sub-Category	Administrator (*N* = 3)	Instructor (*N* = 7)
Barriers	personal barriers (*24*)	wording (*7*)	AD1, AD2, AD3	INS1, INS3, INS4, INS7
		accessibility (*5*)	AD1	INS3, INS5, INS6, INS7
		display of feelings (*5*)	AD2	INS1, INS2, INS5, INS6
		inaccessibility (*5*)	AD2	INS1, INS2, INS4, INS5
		experience-ability (*2*)	AD1, AD2	
	work-related barriers (*18*)	multiple channels for different purposes (*8*)	AD1, AD2, AD3	INS2, INS3, INS5, INS6, INS7
		delivery of the message to everyone (*5*)	AD1, AD3	INS5, INS6, INS7
		multiple channels for the same purpose (3)	AD2	INS2, INS7
		failure to record (*2*)	AD1, AD2	

As illustrated in Table 28, similar to the categories of the facilitators, the barriers of present communication channels mentioned by the participants were grouped under two categories, 'personal barriers' and 'work-related barriers'. The first category, 'personal barriers' involved five sub-categories which were 'wording', 'accessibility', 'display of feelings', 'inaccessibility', and 'experience-ability'. Among the sub-categories, 'choice of wording' had the highest frequency (*f* = 7) while 'experience-ability' had the lowest (*f* = 2). Regarding the most frequent sub-category, 'wording', the participants stated that too little attention for choosing the correct words, and the use of extra or insufficient words in written communication such as *Signal*, e-mails, 'End of Module Feedback Forms' prevent clear transmission of the messages, and result in misunderstandings and eventually malfunctioning in the SFL due to the time constraints such as urgencies, and the lack of body language, mimics, gestures, and intonation. In this respect, AD3 stated "My facial expression enables the receiver to understand what I really mean. On Signal, I may be misunderstood, or the other person may think that I have a direct or opposite attitude." Similarly, INS4 explained "During the day, we race against time. While writing messages on Signal, we do not pay much attention to the wording. That is why we may not able to express ourselves correctly." On the contrary, the participants stated that the body language, gestures, and intonation employed in communication channels such as face-to-face, *Zoom* meetings, phone calls could cause a 'display of feelings' and impact OE negatively. In this respect, the body language and intonation could reveal their negative feelings and affect the flow of

communication, which could impair motivation, result in misunderstandings and jeopardize the maintenance of the operations. AD2 explained:

> When I have to talk about an unpleasant issue with an instructor, face-to-face communication is disadvantageous because receiving negative reactions from the instructor or showing my negative feelings impact the quality of the communication negatively and decrease the possibility of solving problems.

As for another barrier, 'accessibility', the participants mentioned that *Signal* and *Zoom* created the perception that they were always available and it caused the violation of personal life, excessive workload, pressure, and distraction, which damages the quality of operations and the state of mind. INS3 explained "When I get messages on Signal, I immediately check the notification even during the classes. This distracts me for a short time but I feel the need to check if the message concerns me and if it is urgent." AD1 explained the necessity of being accessible by stating that she could not risk ignoring the messages on *Signal* even when it was her day off in case of an emergency. On the other hand, INS1 pointed out the result of it as "People think that they have the right to get an answer anytime and do not simply care whether I am sleeping, studying or travelling. This, actually, violates my personal life." Similar to 'accessibility', 'inaccessibility' emerged as another sub-category in the context of barriers ($f = 5$). In this regard, the participants mentioned that e-mails were not checked regularly which caused failures in transmission of the intended messages and malfunctions in the operations such as delays in meetings the deadlines for exam results, attendance reports of the students. According to AD2, that was why they felt the need to send reminders via different communication channels. Furthermore, attending the *Zoom* meetings with cameras and microphones off caused to question the presence of the attendees and doubt whether they were able to comprehend their duties or get answers to their questions, which damaged OE in terms of managing the crowd and making sure of the maintenance. As for the last sub-category, 'experiences-abilities' of the staff could also be barriers of communication in terms of OE, as stated by the participants. Considering the differences in age and skills of the staff, the lack of experience and ability in using communication channels such as *Zoom*, *Signal, Google Classroom*, and *Moodle* that requires knowledge on technology could affect the operations negatively and cause stress. Regarding, AD2 explained:

Before, I was reluctant to use Google Classroom in my writing classes due to my age and claimed that my traditional writing classes were already efficient. Also, before Moodle, we used to share pacing schedules and other documents via e-mail. Once the previous administration decided to employ Moodle, we were stressed about shifting to Moodle.

On the other hand, four sub-categories, 'multiple channels for different purposes', 'delivery of the message to everyone', 'failure to record', 'multiple channels for the same purpose', were grouped under 'work-related barriers' as a result of qualitative data analysis (Table 28). As for 'multiple channels for different purposes', which had the highest frequency under the relevant category ($f = 8$), the participants mentioned being exposed to too much information, being distracted, and reducing time for duties, all of which could indicate a decrease in the quality of the organization. INS5 explained:

We have to communicate in many groups on Signal. For instance, we have a group for all staff of SFL, a group for all staff of Ortaköy Campus, another one for the level we teach, and another one for exam grading. We can get tens of messages at the same time. During grading, I could receive irrelevant messages from another group. Consequently, I tend to ignore other groups or be distracted due to receiving information about different issues at the same time.

As for another sub-category, 'delivery of the message to everyone' was stated as another barrier that also distracted the participants and caused them to be exposed to insignificant information. The participants mentioned that they had to see the warnings made in *Signal* groups, e-mails, or meetings regardless of the relevance, which decreased their motivation. Moreover, when the amount of information shared with everyone increased, the relevant information could be skipped. That is why, as AD1 pointed out, only the people who were related to the subject should be communicated with instead of involving everyone. In terms of another sub-category, 'multiple channels for the same purpose' was related to being exposed to insignificant information, wasting time, and having an excessive workload in terms of OE. AD2 pointed out:

We send reminders about the information which was previously e-mailed via Signal in case the instructors skip the mail and this doubles our workload. …The rules for the

exams are always accessible to the instructors on Moodle and it irritates me when an instructor asks about the same rules on Signal, as well.

From a different perspective, INS7 complained about getting reminders on *Signal* by stating that she already carried out the reminded tasks and she had to be exposed to that insignificant information that doubled her workload. Finally, 'failure to record', the least frequent sub-category ($f = 2$), was mentioned as a barrier to face-to-face communication and claimed that it tended to be temporary and lost in the flow of operations.

All in all, considering communication channels in terms of ensuring OE, the qualitative data analysis revealed that the participants perceived the communication channels as involving facilitators of ($f = 50$) more than barriers to OE ($f = 41$). Also, on the contrary to the qualitative data analysis for barriers which displayed 'personal barriers' ($f = 24$) outnumbered 'work-related barriers' ($f = 18$), 'work-related facilitators' ($f = 38$) was revealed to exceed 'personal facilitators' ($f = 12$). Furthermore, the overlapping of three sub-categories which were 'accessibility', 'display of feelings', 'multiple channels for different purposes' revealed that they were both barriers and facilitators of the communication channels for the assurance of OE.

4.7. Findings of RQ 5: What are the perceptions of instructors towards organizational communication channels in terms of OE in the SFL?

The inductive content analysis was employed to reveal the perceptions of instructors towards organizational communication channels in terms of OE in the school and considering that the research question was addressed to the instructors, the answers of the administrators were omitted from the analysis. Consequently, the analysis was carried out with the answers of instructors ($N = 7$) and the results are presented below in Table 29.

Table 29

Perceptions of instructors towards communication channels in terms of OE

Category	Sub-Category	Instructor (*N* = 7)
Positive Perceptions (*55*)	effective use (*7*)	INS1, INS2, INS3, INS4, INS5, INS6, INS7
	attention paid to the feedback (*7*)	INS1, INS2, INS3, INS4, INS5, INS6, INS7
	register (*7*)	INS1, INS2, INS3, INS4, INS5, INS6, INS7
	formality (*6*)	INS1, INS2, INS3, INS4, INS5, INS6
	the strongest preference (*6*)	INS2, INS3, INS4, INS5, INS6, INS7
	opinions formed about others (*6*)	INS1, INS2, INS3, INS4, INS6, INS7
	motivation (*6*)	INS1, INS2, INS3, INS4, INS6, INS7
	problem solving (*6*)	INS1, INS2, INS3, INS4, INS5, INS6
	Covid-19 (*4*)	INS2, INS5, INS6, INS7
Negative Perceptions (*18*)	pressure (*6*)	INS2, INS3, INS4, INS5, INS6, INS7
	violation of personal life (*6*)	INS1, INS2, INS3, INS4, INS5, INS7
	exposure to insignificant information (*4*)	INS4, INS5, INS6 INS7

Based on the answers of the participants, two categories which were 'positive perceptions' and 'negative perceptions' arose and they were illustrated in Table 29. Among positive perceptions 'effective use', 'attention paid to the feedback' and 'register' emerged as the sub-categories that were mentioned by all instructors. Concerning 'effective use', all of the instructors mentioned that the present communication channels were sufficient and effective for the school. Accordingly, INS1 remarked "We have a very effective communication system. Pre-planned events and highly significant announcements are delivered via e-mail, urgent problems-solutions or demands are delivered via Signal." Also, some of the instructors (*f* = 3) mentioned that the channels are adapted based on the advances or the changes in the world. In this respect, INS5 stated "Based on the advances in the technology, we include new channels to our communication system. The applications of Zoom and Signal are some of the examples." As for another sub-category, the participants explained that the present channels enabled seeing that the receivers of the communication 'attention paid to the feedback'. The instructors observed actions taken based on their feedback. For instance, academic unit members made necessary changes immediately when the instructors shared their opinions on supplementary materials. Additionally, they felt comfortable to talk to administrators since they are not obliged to use a limited number of channels. When the instructors needed to communicate with a superior, they could e-mail them, text them or just knock on their office doors and talk to them face-to-face because communication channels were employed to listen to all stakeholders rather than only

delivering a message top-down. Furthermore, the language used to communicate, 'register', by means of the communication channels determined the feelings of the participants towards the subject, and the sender, which indirectly and positively affected the OE. INS1 said "When the administrators assign a task, they ask kindly instead of using imperatives. Although it is my responsibility to carry out the task regardless the language employed, the kindness makes me feel as a valuable part of the process."

Six sub-categories each of which was mentioned by six participants emerged as 'formality', 'the strongest preference, 'opinions formed about others', 'motivation' and 'problem solving' (Table 29). Regarding 'formality', the participants mentioned that particular communication channels determined the level of formality, which indicated the significance of the information delivered. Regarding INS2 explained:

…Administrators prefer e-mails since they imply formality… When people receive a formal e-mail with the signature of the administrator at the end, they consider that the content of the mail is significant and that is why the administrator does not prefer to share it via Signal.

Six of the instructors specifically emphasised 'the most preferred' communication channels which included e-mails, and face-to-face conversations, and related their choice to the effectiveness of the school. In terms of face-to-face conversations, INS4 stated that the information could be missed in written conversations if there is too much information flow; and, talking to the relevant people face-to-face would ensure the intended message was delivered clearly. Regarding e-mails, INS7 stated that e-mails allowed seeing the main idea and reading the rest at the time when people were available and could pay more attention, which led to being more productive without the pressure to read right away. Also, communication channels and how they are employed led to forming opinions about others and taking necessary precautions for the effectiveness of the school. In this respect, the instant response from the administrators creates the perception that the administrators are always available for help and increases the trust in the school. In addition, the fact that all administrators opened their cameras during online meetings indicated that they take the instructors seriously and they were professionals. Regarding 'motivation', the instructors emphasised the importance of effective communication in improving the motivation in the

school and highlighted that the motivation resulting from effective communication among staff leads to facilitating effective communication with the students. Also, INS1 stated, "Face-to-face communication increases the rapport. That my administrator stops by my office and tell about the tasks is much more motivating than sending an e-mail." As for the last sub-category mentioned by six participants, communication channels were related to 'problem-solving'. The participants mentioned that having multiple channels allowed for solving problems in an organized and fast way. In case of urgent issues, the problems were solved immediately via *Signal.* Even when the person in charge did not see the message at that moment on *Signal*, other people took initiatives and solved that problem. The written feedback provided by the instructors and the meetings resulted in informing the relevant person and solving the problems. The breakout of the Covid-19 was another sub-category that arose regarding school effectiveness and communication. According to the participants, due to Covid-19, the school had to adopt a new working environment and effective use of communication channels ensured uninterrupted education. INS7 said:

If we were able to transfer all operations and the entire program of the school to online platforms without a single hour of interruption during the pandemic period, without meeting face-to-face even once, and if everyone understood correctly what to do, then we have managed the period effectively.

Besides the positives, three negative sub-categories, which were 'pressure', 'violation of personal life', 'exposure to significant information' were also pointed out in the interviews (Table 29). In terms of the first sub-category, the text messages placed pressure on the instructors and evoked the idea of having misbehaved. INS7 explained "When I get a message on Signal, I feel obliged to check it immediately in case of an emergency such as an urgent cover, change in the attendance list and it rises the pressure for me." Similarly, INS2 explained that getting too many messages on *Signal* or being repeatedly reminded on a duty via Signal resulted in questioning her ability to perform well. Also, the warnings of the administrators in the group of all staff caused the rise of doubt about whether they misbehaved and whether the warning was for them. As for the second sub-category, the participants complained about the flow of information exceeding the official working hours and the assumption of always being accessible. INS1 claimed that people assumed to have the right to get in touch whenever or wherever they need something and ignored the fact that

the receiver could be busy or not available, which increased the workload and work-related stress and decreased the effectiveness. Similarly, INS7 stated:

There have been times when I seemed to be too 'available' because of online platforms such as Zoom. The elimination of time and place restrictions on Zoom resulted in misinterpretation of availability, which caused having meetings after official working hours.

INS4 also remarked:

There was a time without mobile phones and communication was healthy back then, as well. Now, we are too used to its practicality and when we do not get a response in five minutes, we get angry. However, we simply ignore the personal life of the others.

Finally, the perception of 'exposure to insignificant information' was stated by four of the participants. They described a tendency to fail to notice crucial information resulting from their having been buried in insignificant information. For instance, INS6 expressed "A need for 'cover' in the morning shift does not concern me as an instructor of afternoon shift, but I have to read that message besides many others."

4.8. Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the research purpose, the research questions and the findings are presented. The findings of the comprehensive data analysis from the scales and one-on-one semi-structured interviews are provided in accordance with the five research questions. Within this respect, the findings of quantitative data analysis are presented for the first and the second research questions while the findings of qualitative data analysis are presented for the fourth and the fifth research questions. On the other hand, the findings revealed from both quantitative and qualitative data analysis are displayed for the third research question. Additionally, the fourth research question, which examined more than one parameter, is separated into two sub-sections.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

5.1. Introduction

This section is comprised of the summary of the study, the discussion of the findings in accordance with the aim of the research and the conclusions. Also, implications are provided based on the findings and discussed issues along with the limitations. The discussion part presents the interpretations of the findings aligned with the relevant literature with reference to each research question. Following the discussion part, conclusions are drawn, implications and recommendations are offered.

5.2. Discussion of Research Questions

In the five parts below, the findings are summarised and discussed in the light of the relevant literature. The parts are organized in accordance with the research questions.

5.2.1. Discussion of RQ1: What are the perceptions of the SFL instructors towards OE, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, instructors' perceived self-efficacy, and organizational communication? Are they related?

In order to answer this question, descriptive and correlation analyses were employed. Regarding the descriptive analysis results, the level of perceived teacher self-efficacy that refers to performing organizational tasks and promoting organizational goals as 'an organizational person' rather than the classroom context (Friedman & Kass, 2002) was revealed to be the highest while the level of perceived organizational communication was the lowest among the staff of the SFL.

Regarding teacher self-efficacy, the literature reveals many studies with similar results (Anderson et al., 1988; Dolgun, 2016; Guskey, 1988; Solar Şekerci, 2011; Ulusoy, 2008). However, there are only a few studies that investigate teacher self-efficacy in the organizational-context besides classroom-context (Cherniss, 1990; Friedman, 2003; Vaezi & Fallah, 2011). Moreover, the relevant studies investigate teacher self-efficacy with other

domains such as burnout, stress and discuss the results of teacher self-efficacy mainly by integrating classroom and school contexts (Cherniss, 1990; Friedman, 2000; Friedman, 2003; Vaezi & Fallah, 211). Friedman (2003) investigated the perceived teacher self-efficacy and burnout out of 322 elementary school teachers in Israel, the results of which are in line with this current study. According to the results of his study, the level of teachers' perceived self-efficacy was revealed to be high (Friedman, 2003). Also, the researcher revealed that the participants perceived to have effective interpersonal relationships at the school level such as being involved in decision-making processes, communicating effectively with colleagues and superiors, and trusting the support and assistance of the organization. Similarly, in the context of this study, the high level of teacher self-efficacy may indicate that participation of the instructors in the governance of the SFL and effective communication among the staff enhance the self-efficacy beliefs in the school context. In another study, Friedman (2000) studied the discrepancy between the expected and the observed self-efficacy levels of novice teachers in order to explain burnout with the participation of 16 teachers and revealed that high level of organizational domain of teacher self-efficacy is significant to reduce stress and burnout. Also, the study indicated that setting clear boundaries within relationships among the staff, setting clear and achievable goals, fostering participative environment, encouraging collegiality and facilitating effective communication within the school community enhance teacher self-efficacy in the school-context. At this point, similarly, this current study may indicate that the support of administration, having good relationships with colleagues enhance self-efficacy beliefs of the instructors.

As for another variable, the participants were revealed to have quite high OCB perceptions (M = 4.03, SD = .51). The close analysis of the variable displayed that the instructors mostly displayed extra-role behaviours in terms of altruism dimension, which was revealed as a significant dimension in the literature (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; Deluga, 1994; Graham, 1991; Organ, 1988, 1990a, 1990b; Smith et al., 1983; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996; Vey & Campbell, 2004; Williams & Anderson, 1991). In the literature, altruism was mainly referred as behaviours of helping colleagues in need (Moorman & Blakely, 1995), and voluntary acts of helping colleagues to complete task (George & Bried, 1992), all of which intend to enhance the welfare of the members (Brief & Motowildo, 1988). Accordingly, this study revealed that the instructors tended to exhibit extra-role behaviours

with the intention of benefitting their colleagues by attending classes instead of others who were unable to attend, allocating time to help colleagues having work-related problems, consulting others before making decisions that could impact them. This result showed similarities with the study of Baltacı (2019). He examined the perceptions of 28 EFL instructors working at a non-profit university in Turkey towards OCBs by means of interviews and classroom observations, and revealed that the instructors exhibited OCBs to benefit colleagues and students more than the organization (Baltacı, 2919). In the study, he also revealed that altruism was practiced more commonly and explained the reason as it was related to personal traits rather than extrinsic dynamics since the instructors were not committed to the organization due to worthlessness, and lack of financial support and a common culture (Baltacı, 2019). Furthermore, Baltacı (2019) found that the instructors were pleased with the working environment in relation to their colleagues rather than the organizational practices, physical and financial conditions provided by the organization, and the instructors trusted their colleagues more that the administration, which resulted in an individualistic culture in the organization and hindrance to OCBs. Similarly, the result of the current study, which revealed that OCBs were mainly displayed in the altruism behaviour, might stem from the instructors' feeling worthless at the organizational level, being dissatisfied with the opportunities provided at the institutional level and trusting their colleagues more than their superiors.

Also, the item 10, 'I come to work on time' had the highest mean score among the items of organizational citizenship behaviours ($M = 4.68$, $SD = 0.62$). In this regard, Graham (1991) explains that OCB includes organizational obedience that refers to the behaviours of recognizing and accepting the necessity of the rules and regulations. Within the perspective of Graham (1991), it could be stated that the rules and regulations are internalized by the instructors of the SFL and perceived as the most frequently exhibited behaviour, which might stem from the instructors' being aware of the fact that another colleague should compensate for the malfunctions in case they disobey the rules. Besides organizational obedience, Graham (1991) also includes organizational loyalty and organizational participation as OCB. According to him, organizational loyalty refers to the behaviours that promote the organization outside while organizational participation refers to the behaviours of showing interest in organizational issues and taking responsibilities in organizational operations (Graham, 1991). Similarly, Organ (1988) and Podsakoff et al. (2000) state that

the behaviours of macro-level involvement in the organization, taking active part in the governance of the organization and prioritizing its interests even at a personal cost such as working late are grouped under civic virtue dimension of OCBs, which aims to benefit the organization directly. Considering that the behaviours such as participating in the activities, strengthening the image of the school, attending all meetings related to school, and taking active role for the acceptance of changes were revealed to be the least exhibited behaviours, the results of this study imply that the instructors do not give priority to civic virtue, organizational loyalty and organizational participation. When the context of the study is considered, this result can be attributed to the financial insecurity, the lack of reciprocal communication between the SFL instructors and the rectorate, and the indifference of the rectorate towards the SFL staff at an individual level.

Regarding leadership, the participants were revealed to have quite high perceptions, as well ($M = 3.75$, $SD = 1.03$). However, since this study examined the perceptions of the instructors towards the cooperation of the leadership team, the number of the studies in the literature are scarce. Nevertheless, the study of Hulpia et al. (2010) shows some similarities with the results of the current study. The researchers examined the impact of leadership on organizational commitment of 1522 secondary school teachers in Belgium and revealed that the perception of teachers towards leadership was high (Hulpia et al., 2010). In this regard, the researchers indicated that the teachers perceive the leadership team to be goal-oriented united with clear roles, which promotes commitment of the teachers (Hulpia et al., 2010). The current study, also, revealed that the perceptions of the instructors displayed that the responsibilities of the administrators were clear and they carried them out properly. Also, the administrators were perceived to have clear goals aligning with the core objectives of the school. Thus, it may be inferred that the administrators of the SFL indirectly aim to promote organizational commitment; however, the concerns of the instructors about the superiors at the institutional level prevent commitment. These results could also be explained by the leadership model developed by Avolio et al. (2004). According to Avolio et al. (2004), when the administrators are clear on the goals, demonstrate that they share the same values, express transparency and integrity and build trust among the staff, they influence the behaviours of followers. Thus, the administrators in this study might be indicated to be influencing the instructors by being clear about their responsibilities, acting as role models, setting goals aligned with the mission of the SFL, and gaining the trust of the instructors in working hard

for the goal attainment. Also, according to distributed leadership, multiple individuals share leadership responsibilities in the direction and functioning of organizations (Bolden et al., 2009; Devos et al., 2014; Gronn, 2002; Harris, 2004; Hoy & Miskel, 2010). The perception of the instructors towards the administrators' clearly informing and properly carrying out their responsibilities could indicate that the tasks are properly distributed among the administrators and serve the purpose of functioning of the SFL. As it can be seen, when the administrators exhibit distributed leadership roles, the instructors tend to perceive that administrative operations function smoothly. Accordingly, it can be inferred that, in order for the proper governance of SFLs, the administrative responsibilities should be distributed to multiple individuals rather than being assigned to a single individual. Regarding another point, the item, 'members of the management team divide their time properly' had the lowest mean score (Item 6, $M = 3.56$, $SD = 1.03$). Considering the perception of the instructors towards clear distribution of the tasks and the hard work of the administrators, this result could imply that the workload of the administrators is not manageable. As some of the instructors indicated during the interviews, the administrators tend to get in touch with the instructors regarding work-related subjects during teaching hours or after office hours, which distract the instructors and violate their personal life. Therefore, this result shows the significance of distribution of the tasks in a manageable way so that the administrators could plan their operations accordingly.

As another variable of the study, the perceptions of instructors towards the effectiveness of the school had relatively lower mean score ($M = 3.57$, $SD = 0.54$). In the literature, the majority of the studies examine the influence of different domains on OE. However, the studies investigating the effectiveness of the schools are fewer. In the literature, other studies reveal similar level of perceived school effectiveness (Arslan et al., 2006; Ayık & Ada, 2009; Özcan, 2020; Yılmaz, 2015). As a relevant study, Yılmaz (2015) examined the effectiveness of the elementary, primary, secondary and high school schools in Aydın, Turkey with the participation of 370 teachers and revealed that the perceived school effectiveness was at a moderate level. Accordingly, the researcher revealed that according to the perceptions of the teachers, school effectiveness was mostly related to the efficient use of available materials and the quality of the services and products was revealed to have the lowest mean, which was explained by the researcher as the services and the outcomes of the schools were exam-oriented, the financial support of the government

decreases and social outcomes were ignored (Yılmaz, 2015). Although the findings of Yılmaz (2015) are in line with the current study, the level of perceived school effectiveness cannot be attributed to the decrease of financial support of the government or exam-orientedness since the current study was carried out at the SFL of a non-profit university. Rather, it could be inferred that the SFL is often ignored at the institutional level, the needs of undergraduate and graduate programmes for resources are prioritised since the students and the staff of those departments mostly outnumber the SFL's. As another study, Özcan (2020) investigated the school effectiveness perceptions of 400 secondary school teachers in Ankara, Turkey and revealed the level of perceived school effectiveness was sufficient. Similarly, the results revealed that the efficient use of available materials had the highest mean score, yet the researcher did not explicitly explain the reasoning behind this result (Özcan, 2020). As stated, the close analysis of the results revealed that the instructors played a significant role in the effectiveness of the school by using available resources effectively, coping with emergencies, accepting and adopting changes and anticipating problems. Also, they perceived that the quality and the quantity of the services provided in the SFL were not very high or outstanding. In this regard, it can be inferred that the instructors attribute the effectiveness of the SFL to their efforts and experiences rather than the opportunities provided by the SFL. This result was also in line with the study of Özgenel and Mert (2019), who revealed that teacher performance predicts both school effectiveness and student achievement because teachers are expected to be actively involved in solving challenges and attaining the goals of the schools. Similarly, the results of this study could indicate that the instructors indirectly take the role of problem-solvers at the organizational level. From a different perspective, Robbins (1990) claims that the goals of 'achievement of high quality product' and 'low cost' conflict with each other and one must be given up in order to achieve the other. In this respect, in terms of outputs, the effectiveness of the SFL could be related to using available sources at 'low cost' rather than offering efficient service, which could be related to the inadequate financial support of the university.

On the other hand, in terms of the system functioning, the literature reveals that the effectiveness depends on how successful the organization functions as a system in coping with the problems arising from internal or external environments (Balcı, 2014; Miner, 1988; Robbins, 1990). Also, it is related to smooth internal functioning and smooth information flow (Cameron, 1980). In this respect, the perceptions of the instructors towards using

resources efficiently, coping with disruptions, adjusting changes, and preventing problems indicate that the internal functioning of the SFL is effective.

Regarding the last variable of the study, organizational communication was revealed to have the relatively lowest mean score among all variables which was at the moderate level ($M = 3.41$, $SD = 0.67$). The literature reveals that the majority of the relevant studies in the educational context examines communication in relation to other domains (Johnson et al., 1994; Khan et al., 2017; Smalls-Reed, 2004). Demir (2014) studied the perceptions of 341 elementary and secondary school teachers towards organizational communication and revealed that the perceptions of the teachers were at a moderate level, which is in line with the results of the current study. In this regard, the researcher revealed that forming friendships was perceived to be at utmost importance in communication, which might create groups and damage effective communication processes within the school, and opinions of the teachers were perceived to be ignored by the principals during communication, which might cause challenges in goal attainment since the teachers would be uninterested in the tasks (Demir, 2004). Considering the results of this study that the perceptions of the instructors revealed that forming friendly relationships with colleagues was important, differences in personal traits were obvious in communication, it could be inferred that groupings emerge at the SFL and cause the differences in the traits to be noticed more often, which impacts communication processes negatively. Also, the instructors perceived that the administrators ignored their opinions. This might indicate that the motivation of the instructors for goal attainment decreases, similar to the study of Demir (2004).

When the item-based analysis of the organizational communication was examined, the findings showed that the cultural, age and the personality differences of the parts facilitating communication were noticeable. Also, the interview analysis revealed that the age of the staff affected the employment and use of technological communication channels in a way that older members of the SFL sometimes had difficulties in accepting and adopting the use of technological channels. In this regard, Antos (2011, as cited in Lunenburg, 2010, p. 5) explains that communication barriers could stem from psychological and social reasons which are grouped in three categories: 'fields of experience', 'filtering', or 'psychological distance'. Among all, 'fields of experience' refers to the barriers resulting from differences in demographic background, perceptions, beliefs, prejudices (Lunenburg, 2010). Therefore,

considering the results, it may be inferred that social reasons such as demographic differences create communication problems in the SFL. Also, the instructors perceived that the parties who were involved in the communication process did not hold negative feelings or opinions about each other and the topic discussed (Item 9, *M* = 3.50, *SD* = 1.20). This seems to demonstrate that the instructors do not form permanent negative attitudes towards others although social reasons such as demographic differences cause temporary communication problems.

Overall findings indicate that, in terms of formal communication, the downward vertical communication is emphasised at the SFL and upward communication, which is a form of vertical communication and refers to the transmission of the message from the staff to administrator based on hierarchical order to provide feedback (Lunenburg, 2010; Sabuncuoğlu & Gümüş, 2008), is problematic. The high perceptions of the staff concerning that there were people at the SFL who accepted their thoughts as absolute correct (Item 11), the hierarchical status was emphasised in the communication (Item 17) and the administrators sometimes ignored the opinions of the instructors (Item 21) clearly support that the communication is hierarchically built and employed downward for the transmission of information, and the instructors are sometimes ignored by the administrators in upward communication. In this regard, it may be inferred that the instructors go through isolation with loads of information and responsibilities provided by the superiors.

On the other hand, Berlo (1960) explains the content of the message should be considered when choosing a channel in order to facilitate effective communication. Accordingly, the instructors perceived that the language employed in communication was plain, the messages transmitted were comprehensible and the channels employed were appropriate, which demonstrates that, in the SFL, communication channels were employed by taking the content of the message into consideration. This indication could also be supported by the result that the instructors believed there was a harmony of the message, channel, time, and place in the SFL. Consequently, regarding the communication in the SFL, it could be concluded that the communication processes function well; however, the content of the messages results in dissatisfaction for the instructors, which might be attributed to assigning responsibilities rather than the communication acts. In this regard, Myers and Myers (1982, as cited in Baker, 2007) explain that regulating and coordinating the

operations, and promoting socialization to ensure the alignment of organizational goals with the individuals' are primary functions of communication. Hence, it could be stated that the communication processes of the SFL function well at coordinating the tasks and responsibilities, yet they tend to fail to ensure the alignment of the organizational goals with the instructors'. In this respect, at the SFLS, upward communication processes should be revised and organizational goals should be promoted by the administrators besides explaining them clearly.

As for the results of the correlation analysis, it was displayed that all the variables were positively and moderately correlated explaining 23% to 52% of the variance in the data. In this regard, the high correlation between leadership and teacher self-efficacy shows similarities with a few previous studies (Çelik & Konan, 2021; Duyar et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2021; Tian, 2011; Xia & Sun, 2018). However, none of them has been conducted in the context of HE. Duyar et al. (2013) conducted a study with 2967 secondary school teachers in Turkey, and revealed that leadership was significantly correlated to teacher self-efficacy at a moderate level (Duyar et al., 2013). The results, also, revealed that principals' clearly stating responsibilities and the goals, involving other stakeholders, and promoting professional learning fostered self-efficacy (Duyar et al., 2013). Considering the descriptive findings of leadership for this current study, the items that indicated clear description of leadership responsibilities, intentional role modelling and having clear goals could explain the correlation between leadership and teacher self-efficacy similarly to the study of Duyar et al. (2013). In another study, Tina (2011) found that self-efficacy was related to leadership. According to the results, promoting peer cooperation and improving relationships among staff promoted self-efficacy beliefs (Tina, 2011). Similarly, the current study revealed that building rapport with peers, having friendly relationships, playing an important role to solve problems, and administrators' valuing the opinions of instructors had high mean scores among the staff. This finding is also in line with that of the study by Liu et al. (2021). According to their results, that leadership is related to teacher self-efficacy significantly and directly, and self-efficacy of teacher is promoted when they are involved in decision-making by the administrators (Liu et al., 2021). Similarly, this study displayed that the instructors perceived that their opinions for promoting the educational goals were valued by the administration, which fostered their self-efficacy beliefs. Thus, in order to encourage self-efficacy beliefs of instructors, leadership skills must be cultivated.

The result of the descriptive analysis for leadership, which revealed that the administrators were perceived to be working hard for the well functioning of the SFL in terms of goal attainment and supporting the instructors accordingly, could also be related to the high correlation between self-efficacy and leadership. According to Friendman and Kass (2002), teachers operate in two different social system: the classroom and the school, and in the school context, teachers are associated with colleagues and administrators. In this regard, teachers as "organizational people" (p. 679) look for influence in carrying out organizational tasks and confidence in their operations by means of establishing positive relationships with the administrators (Friedman & Kass, 2002). On the other hand, in terms of leadership, Elmore (2000) states that leaders are required for the organizations in order to create a common culture, improve the skills and abilities of people and organize people to contribute to collective results. The researcher also states that leaders should support performance enhancement, create an environment to foster continuous learning, be role models to represent collective outcomes, distribute fair responsibilities based on capabilities, interests and knowledge to assure task completion (Elmore, 2000). In this respect, the positive correlation between leadership and teacher self-efficacy, revealed in the current study, could be explained by the fact that the administrators indirectly foster self-efficacy of instructors through influencing the instructors by being role models and providing support for the goal attainment. Therefore, considering the significant impact of leadership on teacher self-efficacy, which in turn promote goal attainment, the administrators must be trained on their leadership skills.

When the correlation analysis was compared to descriptive analysis, the result that the highest correlation was revealed to be between leadership and teacher self-efficacy while leadership had lower mean score than teacher self-efficacy was surprising. However, Bandura (1977) explains that people are the intentional agents of their lives, shape their actions by interacting reciprocally with the environment, and internal factors (e.g. personal traits) impact the behaviours as well as external factors (e.g. environment). Although these three determinants which are behaviours, environment, and personal factors, affect each other bidirectionally, the strength of their impacts might not be equal and simultaneous (Bandura, 1997). Therefore, this might explain the reason for the difference between the results of the correlation and the descriptive result of the variables. In other words, other factors might influence school-context self-efficacy of the instructors more strongly than

leadership. Additionally, the information which is obtained from the sources other than leadership at the school such as interactions with colleagues or students, professional learning training, previous experiences, circumstances might be indicated to be having a stronger significance and impact for the instructors in terms of teacher self-efficacy. Therefore, that only the information chosen, weighed and cognitively interpreted in terms of social, situational and personal factors constructs and influences self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997) might also explain the result of descriptive analysis.

On the other hand, the study also revealed that teacher self-efficacy and OE had the lowest correlation. The item-based analysis of teacher self-efficacy showed that the instructors related their sense of self-efficacy mostly to their relationships with colleagues rather than organizational operations. Although teacher self-efficacy was moderately correlated to OE, its having the lowest correlation could be explained with instructors' enhancing personal relationships among the staff rather than OE. On the other hand, the moderate correlation between the pair could be explained with the internal process model of OE, which relates effectiveness to the processes rather than the products. According to Cameron (1980), the effectiveness of an organization is related to trust and goodwill among the staff that ensures the staff integration to the system. Accordingly, it could be implied for this study that the good relationships among staff as an indicator of self-efficacy ensures the smooth functioning of the organizational processes and enhances OE. From another point, the correlation could be explained by Friedman and Kass (2002)'s dividing self-efficacy into two social systems. According to the researchers, teachers have two different roles: leader in the class, which requires performing instructional tasks, and employee in the organization, which involves performing organizational tasks and promoting organizational goals (Friedman & Kass, 2002). Therefore, teacher self-efficacy in the school context, naturally, promotes OE since it requires serving as an organization employee. In this regard, it may be inferred that stronger relationships between instructors and administrators must be established. Also, the administrators must make sure that the instructors know their opinions and suggestions are taken into consideration and necessary adjustments are made based on their ideas when appropriate.

5.2.2. Discussion of RQ2: What are the roles of leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, and teachers' perceived self-efficacy in OE?

To answer this research question, quantitative data analysis was employed and a multivariate regression model was run to see if organizational citizenship behaviours, leadership and teacher self-efficacy could predict OE. According to the results, the model explained 55% of the variance, and the coefficient analysis revealed that teacher self-efficacy and leadership were not statistically significant contributors to OE while organizational citizenship behaviours contributed significantly to OE. However, a second model that excludes teacher self-efficacy was also tested to improve the variance explained by the model due to the observation of a high p value computed for this variable in the coefficient analysis. Accordingly, OE was attempted to be predicted using OCBs and leadership variables. The second model explained 1% more of the variance in the data and revealed that organizational citizenship behaviours were, again, the most significant predictor. Furthermore, unlike the first regression model, the coefficient analysis revealed that leadership could also predict OE.

In terms of the predictor role of OCBs in OE, the study shows similarities with the previous research (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005; Khandelwal & Nair, 2022; Organ, 1988; Van Dyne et al., 1994). Organ (1988) states that extra-role behaviours of the staff, which are beyond formal obligations, contribute to OE and, similarly, Van Dyne et al. (1994) explain that OCBs are intended to benefit the organizations directly or indirectly. The results of the current study support the statements of Organ (1988) and Van Dyne et al. (1994) with the result of OCB being the strongest predictor of OE. In addition, Mortimore et al. (1988) emphasise the significance of teachers in the effectiveness of the schools by emphasising teaching performance, communication among teachers and students, and teacher involvement in decision-making processes as characteristics of effective schools. Considering the importance of teachers in the effectiveness of the schools, willingness of the instructors to display OCB could explain its role in OE of the SFL.

In another study, Khandelwal and Nair (2022) investigated the relationship between OCB of 721 university lecturers and OE in state and private universities in India and found that OCB and OE are closely related. The researchers, also, revealed that OCB explained

78% of the variance in OE of state universities and 49 % of variance in OE of private universities (Khandelwal & Nair, 2022). Furthermore, they explained the difference by stating that academicians working in private universities might exhibit fewer OCBs due to pressure, competitiveness and stress faced in private universities in comparison to state universities the lecturers of which could have better reputation, flexibility, and autonomy (Khandelwal & Nair, 2022). Considering the fact that this current study was carried out at the SFL of a non-profit university, 56% variance could indicate that the staff of the SFL have similar concerns that prevent them from showing more OCBs. Hence, treating instructors of non-profit universities as second-class citizens should be prevented by making necessary changes in governmental policies such as offering the same employee personal rights as the state university instructors'. Council of Higher Education should pay unexpected visits to the SFLs rather than only to the rectorates to make sure that the decisions such as equal salary payment are implemented by the university. At the organizational level, the instructors should feel that they are valued and they should not be treated as passive, obedient employees.

As for another point, the study yielded that the effectiveness of the SFL was mainly predicted by helping behaviours of the instructors in order to benefit each other rather than the organization. Williams and Anderson (1991) state that 'altruism' involves voluntary actions taken to directly benefit the individuals and indirectly contribute to OE. Furthermore, Podsakoff et al. (2000) explain that individuals tend to form emotional bonds with colleagues, which leads to exhibiting OCB. Therefore, it could be indicated that the altruistic behaviours of the instructors were meant to form bonds with colleagues, which results in OCB and indirectly contributes to the effectiveness of the SFL. Furthermore, as for another dimension, 'Civic virtue' indicates a sense of macro-level involvement in the organization as a whole and commitment to it despite the possibility of personal sacrifices (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 2000). For this current study, the items related to 'civic virtue' such as voluntarily participating in the activities to strengthen the school image, following changes in the school and taking active role to help others to admit the changes had relatively lower mean scores, which might indicate that the instructors of the SFL show extra-role behaviours to benefit the individuals rather than the SFL.

The second multivariate regression model that excludes teacher self-efficacy displayed that leadership was another contributor to OE. In this regard, the perceptions of the participants revealed that when changes were made in the school, the instructors accepted and adjusted changes quickly. In this respect, Avolio et al. (2004) explain that leaders affect the behaviours of followers by expressing honesty, transparency, directness, and integrity in the issues with followers and by making them internalize the goals in order to keep the followers engaged in the work for the benefit of collective (Avalio et al., 2004). On the other hand, Hoy and Miskel (2010) explain that leaders motivate followers by displaying an appealing future, clearly explaining the possibility of goal attainment, and fostering innovativeness and creativity by questioning old operations, assumptions from a different aspect. And, similarly, Fiedler (1978) states that organizational effectiveness depends on the match between leader attributes that reflect the motivational structure and situational control of the leader (Fiedler, 1978). Therefore, it could be indicated that leadership is a predictor of OE because the administrators successfully explain the necessity of the changes at the SFL, motivate the instructors and lead them to internalize the changes and fostered innovativeness.

As for another point, the results revealed that the participants were clearly informed of which tasks the leadership members were required to perform and where they were authorized. Accordingly, distributed leadership advocates that multiple individuals share leading responsibilities for the functioning of organizations (Bolden et al., 2009; Devos et al., 2014; Gronn, 2002; Harris, 2004; Hoy & Miskel, 2010). Considering the fact that there were academic units such as Material and Curriculum Development Unit, Testing and Assessment Unit, Quality Enhancement Unit, and the roles of the members were clearly described by the administration and familiarized by the instructors, and that some of the leading responsibilities were distributed among the unit members, the role of leadership in predicting OE could be subjected to the well-functioning distribution of leading responsibilities.

Furthermore, the predictor role of leadership in OE, revealed in this study, could be related to and partially explained by the results of Bryman's (2007) literature review on the effectiveness of leaders in university departments. For his study, Bryman (2007) reviewed the literature on leadership between 1985 and 2005 and listed 13 leadership factors consistently identified in the studies as promoters of effectiveness. According to his list, 13

common effective leader behaviours include providing clear guidance on the mission and vision of the department, initiating goal attainment, forming relationships of trust and mutual respect among staff, treating subordinates fairly and equitably, being trustworthy, fostering autonomy of the staff to take part in decision-making processes by means of open communication, communicating effectively regarding work-related issues, being a role model, creating a positive climate, promoting the image of the department internally and externally, providing feedback, providing resources, and recruiting and retaining successful staff (Bryman, 2007). The results of this study revealed that the administrators had clear goals, they supported the participation of the instructors in goal attainment, and instructors accepted and adjusted the changes at the SFL quickly. Within this regard, it could be indicated that the administrators of the SFL display effective leadership behaviours to enhance OE by providing clear guidance on the missions of the SFL, becoming the role models for goal attainment, initiating goal attainment, and promoting participation in decision-making processes, which could explain that the instructors quickly accept and adjust changes in the SFL.

Regarding the last result revealed in the regression models, teacher self-efficacy was not a predictor of OE in both regression models. Although it was in line with the result that the lowest correlation was between OE and teacher self-efficacy, it was unexpected due to the predictor role of leadership in OE and the significant correlation among teacher self-efficacy and leadership, which is supported in the literature with similar results of the correlation between leadership and teacher self-efficacy (Duyar et al., 2013; Lui et al., 2021; Tian, 2011; Xia and Sun, 2018). However, this result could be explained by that the SFL has a functioning system with clearly pre-described operations, which ensures its effectiveness. Accordingly, it might be inferred that instructors' sense of self-efficacy do not influence the effectiveness since they simply follow the rules with the support and guidance of administrators even though they have opposite beliefs regarding the operations.

The result also contradicts with the study of Damanik and Aldrige (2017), which revealed that teacher self-efficacy promoted school effectiveness. According to the researchers, collegiality among the school and goal consensus promoted teacher self-efficacy, which positively influenced school effectiveness (Damanik & Aldridge, 2017). In this study, the perceptions of the instructors towards teacher self-efficacy revealed that they

had friendly relationship with colleagues and good rapport with the administrators. Therefore, it could be indicated that collegiality promotes their self-efficacy yet it does not have any influence on organizational effectiveness. Also, instructor perceptions displayed that the administrators paid attention to the opinions of instructors regarding the goals which might demonstrate that goal consensus is a significant part of the SFL. However, the perception that the administrators did not readily accept the suggestions for promoting the goals might indicate that the goal consensus is mono-directional, which might imply that mostly the decisions made by the administration are implemented. In this regard, it can be inferred that goal consensus does not directly influence perceived self-efficacy; thus, opinions of the instructors should be taken seriously by the administrators.

From another point, Bandura (1997) emphasises that individuals operate as a result of the interdependence among environment, personal factors, and behaviours. Although these determinants affect each other bidirectionally, the strength of their impact is not always equal and simultaneous, which is dependent on circumstances (Bandura, 1997). Therefore, in the context of the SFL, it could be indicated that the environment, which is the SFL in this case, had a role in forming the sense of self-efficacy of the instructors while, in turn, their personal beliefs and behaviours did not influence the effectiveness of the SFL equally.

5.2.3. Discussion of RQ3: Where does organizational communication stand in the interaction among OE, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours and instructors' perceived self-efficacy?

To answer the third research question, both quantitative and qualitative data analysis were employed to uncover the mediating role of organizational communication for OE with leadership, OCB, and teacher self-efficacy. For this purpose, a structural equation model was tested for the quantitative phase of the analysis. The results revealed that the mediation role of organizational communication was very weak for teacher self-efficacy, weak for leadership, and moderate for OCBs. Also, it was revealed that organizational communication could predict OE with a moderate effect. In the literature, the studies investigating the mediating role of communication in the school context are scarce, which examine the mediation role of communication between different domains such as culture, job involvement, organizational change (Abu Bakar et al., 2010; Elving, 2005; Gochhayat et al.,

2016; Gochhayat et al., 2017; Khalid & Rehman, 2011). The only relevant study was revealed to be conducted by Gochhayat et al. (2016), who examined the mediating role of communication between leadership and OE. The researches carried out a quantitative study with 153 heads and 306 subordinates of technical institutions in India, revealed that communication mediated between leadership and OE and indicated that effective communication enables the transmission of the superiors' messages clearly and promoting effective use of leadership attributes and skills for OE (Gochhayat et al., 2016). Although Gochayat et al. (2016) did not mention the mediation level of communication between leadership and OE, it could be stated that the study shows some similarities in that communication enables the clear transmission of the messages, which are related to organizational goals, and enables the administrators to show their leadership skills such as using appropriate and supportive language. Considering this mediating role, it may be implied that school administrators should be trained on communication skills to enhance OE.

Apart from quantitative data analysis, inductive content analysis for one-on-one semi-structured interviews was employed to reveal the underlying factors for the interactions. Although the quantitative data analysis resulted that organizational communication had the strongest mediation role between OCB and OE, the inductive content analysis revealed that the mediating role of communication was mostly attributed to leadership for OE. Furthermore, the results of the quantitative data analysis was in line with the results of inductive content analysis regarding communication being mediator between OE and teacher self-efficacy the least level.

In the light of quantitative data analysis, it was revealed that organizational communication mediated between OCB and OE at moderate level. Since there is no similar study investigating the mediation role of communication between OCB and OE, to the knowledge of the researcher, the results are discussed in the light of qualitative data analysis and the studies examining each domain. The qualitative analysis revealed both negative and positive mediation of communication. In terms of positive mediation of communication between OCB and OE, the instructors stated that communication fostered OCBs in terms of OE with the availability of multiple channels employed to express opinions for possible changes regarding curriculum and other work-related issues and to participate in decision-making processes. This result could indicate that communication plays a mediation role for

OE in terms of the civic virtue dimension of OCB. Civic virtue, which was referred as organizational participation (Graham, 1991) and protecting the organization (George & Brief, 1992), includes behaviours of member's recognition of being part of the organization, and taking active part in the governance of the organization (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Therefore, it could be inferred that the availability of multiple communication channels fosters civic virtue behaviours of the instruction, which in turn, enhanced OE by involving multiple stakeholders and ensuring consensus. In this regard, it could be suggested that instructors are offered multiple opportunities to express their opinions and they are encouraged to take active part in decision-making processes, which might, in turn, promote the commitment to the SFL and result in devoting extra effort for the sake of the organization.

As for another mediation role of communication, multiple channels were also referred to be fostering solidarity which promoted altruistic behaviours in terms of OCB and encouraged improvements in curriculum implementations in terms of OE. In this respect, the participants indicated the significance of helping colleagues and supporting them on curricular issues, which indicates the key role benefitting colleagues plays in OE (Organ, 1988). In this regard, it could be stated that the school culture promoting organizational solidarity and commitment besides the solidarity among colleagues might increase altruistic behaviours of the instructors towards the SFL since organizational commitment might promote the efforts paid for the organization. Regarding another positively mediating role of communication, Podsakoff et al. (2000) explain that individuals tend to form emotional bonds with colleagues and superiors that lead to OCB. Aligned with the statement of Podsakoff et al. (2000), the participants indicated the importance of appropriate register employed by the administrators in assigning responsibilities. Hence, this result of the study indicates that OCBs of the staff in the SFL are promoted by means of the register employed in communication.

Apart from the supportive mediation role, the inductive content analysis revealed some weakening influences of communication between OCB and OE. Firstly, employing multiple channels to announce top-down decisions was revealed as a weakening mediation role of communication between OE and OCB, which contradicted the employment of channels to foster participation in decision-making processes. Baterman and Organ (1983)

state that the efforts of organizational officials that are interpreted as non-manipulative lead members to reciprocate the efforts by means of OCB. Also, Miskel et al. (1979) explain that effective schools are characterized with more participatory organizational processes and less centralized decision-making structures by teachers. Accordingly, the results of this study revealed that top-down decisions were announced by means of multiple channels and caused the staff to feel obliged to carry out a task, and avoid taking extra responsibility, which negatively influenced internal processes in terms of OE. In this respect, communication mediated the announcement of top-down decisions, decreased OCBs and negatively influenced OE. Therefore, considering that top-down decisions are inevitable, the administrators should explain such decisions with their reasons and encourage instructors to share their opinions on the implementation processes of these decisions. As for another weakening role, employing multiple channels for the same purpose was stated to be causing stress, fostering spoon-feeding and, consequently, decreasing the motivation to exert OCBs. Podsakoff et al. (2000) state that employees who are eager to perform at their best require less supervision and it allows the managers to focus on other tasks. Therefore, it could be inferred that administrators' reminding the duties via different communication channels decrease OCBs of the instructors and prevents administrators from focusing on other productive purposes in terms of OE. Therefore, it may be recommended to set particular channels to deliver the information, set definite deadlines for the completion of the tasks, and leave some space for the instructors to fulfil their duties. For the last negative factor, the technological communication channels were revealed to create the perception of being available without time and place restrictions, which resulted in an obligation of time off work rather than going beyond existing role requirements (Van Dyne et al., 1995). In this regard, violation of personal life emerged as the opposite of leisure time activities since both indicated the time off work. While the later focused on spending quality and fun time with colleagues, 'violation of personal life' was referred as being obliged to work extra hours. In such situations, the participants unwillingly worked and felt that they were 'too much' available, which decreased job satisfaction (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Hence, it may be suggested that not only the administrators but also the instructors should respect the private life of each other and limit the communication to the office hours.

Regarding the mediation role of communication between leadership and OE, the quantitative data analysis revealed that communication weakly mediated leadership and OE.

On the other hand, the qualitative data analysis revealed that the mediation of communication for OE was attributed to leadership more frequently than other variables. This result could be explained with the statements of Luthans and Avolio (2003) and Yukl (2013). According to the researches, the relationship with mutual trust and open communication between the leaders and subordinates enhances the development and transformation of organizations (Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Yukl, 2013). When the findings were examined in detail, the results of inductive content analysis revealed that communication fostered OE in terms of supporting the instructors to freely express opinions, encouraging participation in decision-making, accessibility, employing appropriate register, promoting professional learning and using communication channels sustainably in terms of leadership. In this regard, these results support the findings of the studies on effective leadership that emphasise the leadership roles such as realizing the feelings and ideas of subordinates, paying attention to professional development, becoming role models, and socially and intentionally influencing others (Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Kotter, 2001; Luthans, 2011; Rauch & Behling, 1984; Sucu, 2016; Zel, 2001). Therefore, these results supported with the literature indicate the significance of training the administrators regarding effective leadership practices.

As for another result, the participants stated that they were encouraged to express their opinions freely by means of multiple communication channels. According to Kotter (2001) and Bass and Bass (2008), leadership is the interactions between the members of the group that aim to foster a vision by means of realising the emotions and ideas of all members. Similarly, Elmore (2000) claims that leadership is not individualistic and each staff member has particular competencies; therefore, leadership requires organizing these competencies to complement that of another, to bring them all together in a common culture. In this respect, it might be indicated that the administrators of the SFL try to create a common culture by providing communication opportunities for everyone to express their opinions, which aims to enhance OE. Regarding fostering participation in decision-making, the literature reveals that it is a significant characteristic of leadership, which enhances effectiveness (Bryman, 2007; Cameron, 1978; Cameron & Smart, 1998; Liu et al., 2021; Mortimore et al., 1988; Tanrıöğen & İşcan, 2016; Tian, 2011; Weber, 1989; Yılmaz, 2018). Respectfully, this study revealed that the instructors and students were encouraged by the administrators to take part in the evaluation part of the curricular implementations by means of communication

channels. Therefore, it could be recommended that the administrators of the SFLS promote participatory decision-making by means of providing many opportunities for instructors as the first-hand experts, which positively influence OE in terms of curricular implementations.

Regarding 'register' in terms of leadership, the participants made similar statements to 'register' in OCB, which indicates display of professionalism and setting examples for the instructors. Elmore (2000) points out that leaders should be role models for the values representing collective outcomes. Accordingly, the administrators of the SFL might be demonstrated as role models for professional attitudes to attain collective outcomes with the language they employ during communication. Furthermore, the instructors stated that the register of the administrators led them to be comfortable about approaching any of the administrators, which indicates that the register of the administrators reflects their open communication policy. Also, the results revealed that the administrators were always accessible thanks to multiple communication channels, which, similarly, reveals their open communication policy. In this regard, Bryman (2007) reviewed the literature on the effectiveness of leaders in departments of studies, grouped the characteristics of leaders and revealed that fostering autonomy of the staff to take part in decision-making processes by means of open communication, communicating effectively regarding work-related issues are among the characteristics of effective leadership. Hence, in order to enhance OE, it might be suggested for the SFL administrators to employ open communication policy by means of employing appropriate register and being accessible for the instructors to express their opinions. In terms of sustained use of communication channels, the results revealed that particular channels were employed for certain purposes by the leaders. According to Cameron (1980), smooth functioning of internal operations leads to effectiveness in organizations. In this respect, this study indicates that administrators' employing particular channels for particular operations enable standardisation and clear transmission of messages besides preventing unexpected situations, all of which are related to OE.

Finally, the mediation role of communication between OE and teacher self-efficacy was revealed to be very weak as a result of quantitative data analysis. Similarly, qualitative data analysis displayed that teacher self-efficacy was attributed the least for the mediation role of communication for OE. According to Bandura (1997), three sources of information, which are "mastery experiences", "vicarious experiences" and "verbal persuasion" (p. 79),

form teacher self-efficacy and "mastery experiences", which are comprised of personal experiences, are the most effective source. Similarly, this study could indicate that the instructors form their self-efficacy beliefs mostly based on their previous personal experiences; therefore, communication facilitated at the SFL mediates between teacher self-efficacy and OE very weakly. Within this respect, this study contradicted with the study of Friedman (2013), who revealed that teachers' involvement in organizational decisions, communication among teachers and administrators influenced school-based teacher self-efficacy, which enhanced OE.

On the other hand, the inductive content analysis revealed that the very weak mediation role of communication between teacher self-efficacy and OE could result from administrative impacts on teacher self-efficacy and the experiences – abilities of the instructors. According to Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998), forming self-efficacy was related to both external and internal factors. Furthermore, in order to form teacher self-efficacy, both internal and external factors are interpreted in the stage of cognitive processes (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). In the light of the study of Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998), the result that top-down decisions did not have a significant impact on teacher self-efficacy since they were simply perceived as job descriptions could indicate that the obligations, which the instructors are imposed via communication channels, are perceived as external factors and they are not internalized by the participants. Furthermore, some of the participants mentioned that top-down decisions had a negative impact on their self-efficacy beliefs as such decisions caused instructors to question their qualification of being a part of the SFL. In this regard, it could be indicated that top-down decisions shared by means of communication channels cause the instructors to feel inefficient and worthless as professionals and impact their performance in terms of OE. Therefore, in order for the communication to mediate between teacher self-efficacy and OE, it could be suggested that the decision-makers clearly explain the reasons and the necessities of top-down decisions and lead the instructors to internalize the decisions rather than forcing them to obey. Finally, the study revealed that communication did not have a mediation role between OE and teacher self-efficacy in terms of experiences and abilities of the instructors since they felt that they had enough experience and abilities and their previous experienced formed their self-efficacy rather than the incidents happened in the SFL. This result showed similarities with the study of Hipp and Bredeson (1995). In their study, the researchers revealed that teachers

perceived to have more control over their own performance than the group performance and its impacts. Similarly, the study could imply that communication among the staff do not influence teacher self-efficacy in terms of experience and abilities or have a mediation role for OE because the participants do not believe that they had control over the school performance. In this regard, it may be recommended that the administration shows instructors their impact on and importance in the organizational operations besides teaching.

Overall, when the results were analysed together, it was revealed that there were some overlapping categories. Therefore, it could be strongly stated that participatory decision-making, promotion of professional learning, register and use of multiple channels are the most significant sources that organizational communication mediated for OE. On the contrary, top-down decision making was revealed to be affecting OE negatively. Hence, instructor participation in decision-making processes should be promoted, and professional development opportunities should be provided at the SFLs. Furthermore, all academic and administrative staff should be trained on effective communication skills and open communication policy should be promoted to enhance the effectiveness of the SFLs.

5.2.4. Discussion of RQ4: Do organizational communication channels serve the purpose of enhancing OE in the SFL?

In order to reveal the answer for the fourth research question, qualitative data analysis was employed on the data obtained from one-on-one semi-structured interviews to uncover whether communication channels of the SFL serve the purpose of enhancing OE. As the research question is comprised of two separate but related sub-questions, each sub-question is discussed separately below.

RQ4a: What are the most/least contributing channels of communication? How do (not) they contribute to OE?

To reveal the contribution of communication channels to OE, the channels employed in the SFL were investigated by means of one-on-one semi-structured interviews. The results were discussed based on grounded theory since, to the knowledge of the researchers, communication channels have not been studied in relation to OE in terms of educational

context. Cresswell (2012) explains that grounded theory is employed when the research question or the context cannot be addressed to existing theories or the existing theories have limited applicability to the problem. In this respect, the results of the research questions are explained based on grounded theory although they were partially supported by the literature.

Within this respect, the contribution percentages of each communication channel to OE revealed as a result of qualitative data analysis. The results displayed that 13 different communication channels, four of which were grouped under Zoom meetings, were employed in the SFL and all channels contributed to OE at some degree. Additionally, Signal was revealed to have the highest contribution to effectiveness with 28 %, which was followed by Zoom meetings, e-mail, Moodle, face-to-face, meeting minutes, phone calls, 'End of Module feedback forms', Google Classroom, and EDVS respectfully. As for Zoom meetings, the results revealed that 'level meetings' had the most contribution to OE. Furthermore, student representative meetings, standardisation meetings and 'End of Module meetings' contributed to OE at the same degree.

As for the most contributing communication channel, Signal served multiple purposes and the staff was included in several groups. Regarding the first purpose, it enabled multiple stakeholders to express their opinions and take active role in the governance of the SFL. This result could be related to the findings of Mortimore et al. (1988) who investigated the characteristics of effective schools and found that teacher involvement, and positive climate are among the characteristics of effective schools. Considering that teaching is carried out in two shifts as morning and afternoon and the SFL is crowded with around 70 staff members, Signal serves the purpose of ensuring school effectiveness by involving teachers regardless of time and place restrictions and enhancing positive climate via offering the opportunity to freely express opinions. In this regard, it may be recommended that the SFLs adopt similar instant messaging applications into their communication network to manage the crowd, promote their participation and create a positive climate. Secondly, it enabled proper functioning of the operations and speeded up the operations since the instructors were able to deliver their urgent demands and solve instructional problems instantly. In this regard, Pektaş (2019) states that the problems in channels cause delays of the transmission of the message. In this respect, in the context of the SFL, Signal could be indicated to be functioning well in terms of fast delivery of the message. Regarding another

purpose, it ensured standardisation in the processes such as grading, admitting late-comers. This result was in line with the statement of Selimoğlu (2004), who claims that written communication tools ensures standard processes that are provided to all members in the organization. Considering that Signal enables written communication with the help of technology, it could be indicated that the application serves the purpose. All in all, Signal could be indicated as functioning well for the proper functioning of the SFLs in terms of ensuring standardisation, maintenance and active participation of multiple stakeholders, promoting goal attainment, and saving time.

On the other hand, among Zoom meetings, 'level meetings' was found to offer opportunities to express opinions regarding curriculum and became a significant contributor to plan and evaluate the curriculum, besides implementing. Additionally, the results revealed that they promoted the emotional well-being of the instructors by the opportunity to share experiences and problems encountered in the class. In this regard, the literature shows that effective schools prioritize the satisfaction of all stakeholders and provide the environment where the stakeholders unite for the success of the students (Helvacı & Aydoğan, 2011; Klopf et al., 1985; Özdemir, 2020). Therefore, it could be stated that the 'level meetings' held in the SFL serve well for the purpose of enhancing OE by focusing on instructional issues for the sake of student success and emotional well-being of the instructors. On the other hand, 'End of Module meetings' enabled discussing and evaluating the implementations of the previous modules in terms of pros and cons to prevent possible problems in the following modules. In terms of OE, Hot and Ferguson (1985) and Balcı (2014) emphasise the significance of maintaining internal consistency and Şişman (2012, as cited in Yıldırım, 2015) underlines that how the operations are maintained is more crucial than the quality and quantity of the inputs. Accordingly, it could be stated that 'End of Module meetings' contribute to OE by ensuring the maintenance of internal consistency with the involvement of multiple stakeholders and achieving consensus on implementing curriculum. Finally, regarding Zoom meetings, 'student representative meetings' were revealed to be contributing to OE in terms of involving students as significant stakeholders of the SFLs for the governance, promoting learner autonomy and promoting student personal development (Cameron, 1978). The literature reveals that the ultimate goal of effective schools is to ensure student success and improvement (Brookover, 1979; Cheng, 1997; Lysons, 1990; Mortimore, 1998; Scheerens, 2000). In light of this, 'student representative

meetings' could be indicated to be enhancing the effectiveness of the SFL by paying close attention to the opinions of the students to ensure their improvement in all aspects. In this regard, that providing opportunities for students to express their opinions, involving them in the planning phase of the curriculum, and considering them as active participants of the curricular implementations may be suggested for the SFLs in order to enhance their improvement. All in all, Şişman and Turan (2005) explain that effective schools meet the expectations of all stakeholders by providing an appropriate environment. Therefore, it could be inferred that Zoom meetings enhance the effectiveness of the SFL by enabling multiple stakeholders to have a say in the operations of the SFL, and eliminating time and place restrictions, which might be referred as providing appropriate environment.

Regarding another communication channel, the participants also stated that e-mails contributed to OE by being formal, enabling diagonal communication and serving as a database. In his literature review, Doran (2004) found that having order and discipline is a significant element of effective organizations. In light of Doran (2004)'s result and the result of this study revealing that e-mails were perceived as the most formal channel requiring close attention to the content could be interpreted as e-mails' contributing to OE by ensuring the discipline and being taken seriously by the SFL staff. As another point, diagonal communication, which refers to the interactions of members from different departments who do not have a direct relationship with each other (Baker, 2007; Şimşek, 1997), speeds up the flow of information, enrich understanding, and coordinate efforts to attain goals at the organizational level (Şimşek, 1997). In this regard, it could be inferred that e-mails enable the SFL staff to facilitate communication among the university, speed up the information flow and enhance the coordination to attain organizational goals. Finally, they served as a database since the staff were able to check previous mails on similar subject, which enabled keeping the track of the operations, promoted standardisation, saved time and provided proofs for the actions taken in terms of OE. All in all, in light of the results and the support of literature, it may be recommended that the SFLs involve e-mails in their communication network and promote use of e-mails to enhance the harmony of work for the goal attainment at the university level, ensure proper functioning without the delays resulting from hierarchical order, provide proof for the decisions and the operations and accelerate the operations.

On the other hand, Moodle was revealed to be enabling SFL stakeholders to benefit as a database and enhancing OE in terms of saving time, promoting routine and standardisation, and fostering autonomy both for the learners and the instructors. In their review of the literature, Podsakoff et al. (2000) revealed that routinization of the tasks increase OCB and Van Dyne et al. (1994) stated that job characteristics based on autonomy increase the sense of responsibility and the feeling of accountability and foster OCB. In this regard, in terms of instructors, Moodle can be indicated as enhancing OCBs by promoting routinization since all documents were regularly shared and fostering autonomy since the documents were always available for the use of the instructors regardless of time, which indirectly contributes to OE. Additionally, the results revealed that, in terms of students, the opportunity for the students to check and download the supplementary materials of the previous weeks for their self-study fostered learner autonomy, which is a crucial promoter for effectiveness (Bryman, 2007). In the light of these results and the support of the literature, it may be suggested for the SFLs to have a particular platform where all necessary SFL-related documents such as materials, rubrics, templates for minutes, rubrics, timetables are shared for the use of both students and instructors.

The result that face-to-face communication contributed to OE by increasing sincerity among the staff can be attributed to increase of motivation, and enhancement of the school climate. The literature shows similarities between this result and some studies emphasising the contribution of forming good relationships among staff to OE. Pounder (1999) investigated OE in HE institutions and revealed four core dimensions of OE as 'information management–communication', 'planning–goal setting', 'productivity–efficiency' and 'cohesion' (p. 392), among which 'cohesion' refers to the quality of relationships among the staff and their commitment. Additionally, Bucak (2002) examined OE in the faculty of education at Abant İzzet Baysal University in terms of organizational climate, and indicated that strong and healthy relationship among members enhance OE. In this regard, Yukl (2013) and Luthans and Avolio (2003) explain that administrators' forming strong relationships with mutual trust and open communication results in the enhancement of OE. Hence, all things considered, it may be suggested for the SFL administrators to increase the amount of face-to-face communication among the staff, plan extra-curricular activities to build up friendly relationships and create a school culture of solidarity.

As for another communication channel, meeting minutes and 'end of module feedback forms' were revealed to be enabling everyone to speak up, and provide feedback. Also, they were mainly associated with the leadership and indicated to be contributing to OE in terms of administrators' promoting participation in decision-making, offering opportunities to express opinions. In the literature, many studies investigating leadership emphasise the importance of participatory decision-making in ensuring OE (Atmaca, 2021; Avolio et al., 2004; Bryman, 2007; Cameron & Smart, 1998; Hughes et al., 2019; Mortimore et al., 1988; Stogdill, 1981; Tian, 2011; Yılmaz, 2018). Therefore, it could be inferred that the administration of the SFL is effective in involving instructors in decision-making processes by encouraging speaking up. And, it could be recommended that, in order to enhance OE instead of solely maintaining the operations, SFL administrators encourage instructors to express their opinions rather than simply implementing the decisions or reporting them. The qualitative data analysis also revealed phone calls to be a communication channel contributing to OE of the SFL since they prevented misunderstandings thanks to intonation, which is a form of non-verbal communication, and instant feedback of the receiver. In this regard, Gürgen (1997, as cited in Demir, 2014) and Tutar and Yılmaz (2014) explain that intonation strengthens verbal communication while Krizan et al. (2010) state that it is more accurate than words. Therefore, it could be inferred that non-verbal communication enables clear transmission of the messages and promotes proper functioning of the SFL.

Overall, the qualitative data analysis and the relevant literature reveal that all the communication channels employed at the SFL serve the purpose of enhancing OE. Also, it is revealed that the majority of the channels were comprised of technological tools, except face-to-face communication. Therefore, it could be indicated that the SFL highly makes use of technology and successfully adjusts technology on daily operations.

RQ4b: What are the facilitators of / barriers to OE with regard to the present communication channels?

Similar to the research question 4a, the qualitative data analysis of one-on-one semi-structured interviews was employed to find the facilitators of and barriers to OE with regard to the present communication channels. Due to the lack of relevant studies in the literature,

the results are discussed based on grounded theory. Overall results displayed that the facilitators of communication channels outnumbered the barriers to ensure OE and all the channels contributed to OE at some degree despite some barriers.

Regarding the facilitators, the data analysis revealed that they could be grouped in two categories: work-related and personal. For the first category, the results revealed that the communication channels enabled instant delivery of the messages that led to solve problems in a short time, manage time effectively and maintain the operations smoothly. Gürgen (1997) states that organizational communication is facilitated to prevent problems that affect proper functioning and to ensure that all stakeholders interact in line with the organizational goals. In this respect, instant delivery of the messages by means of communication channels could be stated to be enhancing proper functioning of the SFL by providing quick solutions and embodying instructors, administrators and secretaries as stakeholders. Also, the instant delivery of the messages enabled meeting the demands of the staff regarding issues other than instructional such as requesting drinking water or office cleaning. The literature reveals that the characteristics of effective schools involve positive school climate (Doran, 2004; Helvacı & Aydoğan, 2011; Oral, 2005) and job satisfaction (Alfred et al., 2007; Ashraf & Kadir, 2012; Ayuk & Jacobs, 2018; Horng et al., 2010; Zigarelli, 1996). Regarding this, this study also indicates that instant delivery of the messages by means of communication promotes satisfaction of the instructors and enhances the school climate, which are indicators of OE. Considering the contributions of instant messaging applications to the effectiveness, similar applications could be employed at the SFLs.

As for another facilitator, some of the channels served as a database that enabled sharing and archiving the significant documents such as supplementary materials, timetables, pacing schedules, samples of petitions, online lesson recordings, and providing proof, which contributed to OE in several points. The majority of school effectiveness definitions emphasise the significance of goal attainment and internal processes (Balcı, 2014; Başaran, 1996; Helvacı & Aydoğan, 2011; Hoy & Miskel, 2012; Miskel et al., 1979; Özdemir, 2000; Şişman, 2012; Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000; Yıldırım, 2015). In terms of goal attainment, Schereens (2000) states the ultimate goal of effectiveness to be student success. In this regard, the communication channels contribute to OE by fostering learner autonomy since they enable students to check all materials and watch previous lesson recordings for

self-study. Therefore, it could be recommended that students are provided with online platforms where they can find materials for their self-studies. On the other hand, in terms of internal processes, Hoy and Miskel (2012) state that maximizing school effectiveness depends on the quality, quantity and consistency of internal processes and Selimoğlu (2004) explains that communication ensures that standard processes are provided for all members in the organization. Giving consideration to the literature and the result, it could be indicated that the communication channels contribute to OE because they enable carrying out the operations effectively in an organized way, provide standardisation and decrease the workload since all the documents, which are significant to the functioning of the SFL are shared with the instructors and are available for their constant use.

Furthermore, communication channels ensured accessibility of both instructors and administrators. Regarding the accessibility of administrators, the channels offered multiple options for the instructors to reach the administrators, which could be indicated as enhancing the satisfaction of stakeholders by promoting open communication policy, trust and support in terms of OE (Cameron, 1978). This result is in line with some studies, which indicates that open communication of administrators, their allocating time for personal interactions, and teachers' freely sharing opinions with the administrators in case of problems promote school climate, OCBs and enhance OE (Gochayat et al., 2016; Gochayat et al., 2017; Ozsaker, 2012; Tyler, 2016). Therefore, it might be suggested for SFL administrators to allocate time to build up relationships with instructors, include interacting with instructors in their daily work routine instead of communicating with them in case of problems. On the other hand, the accessibility of the instructors enabled the maintenance of the operations and increased quality of English language education by solving problems in a very short time. According to Myers and Myers (1982, as cited in Baker, 2007), communication aims to coordinate the production activities requiring reciprocal and dynamic acts among all members. In this respect, it could be indicated that the SFL prioritises smooth functioning of operations and the active participation of administrators, and instructors to enhance OE. Regarding the last work-related facilitator of the channels, the results revealed that multiple channels were successfully employed for different purposes at the SFL and they contributed to OE. In this regard, Yorulmaz (2001) explains that the mission, vision, policies and the goals of the organization are considered in choosing proper communication tool, besides the qualification of the staff. In light of these points, it could be implied that the communication

channels of the SFL correspond to the capabilities of the staff, the content of the information being transmitted and the goals of the SFL. Therefore, it might be recommended that SFL administrators consider the aims, policies and the missions of SFLs when choosing communication channels.

Following the work-related facilitators, the qualitative data analysis, also, revealed that the communication channels of the SFL contributed to OE in terms of personal factors. Firstly, particular channels enabled showing feelings by means of mimics, gestures, intonation and emojis that led to clear transmission of the intended messages. According to Krizan et al. (2010), non-verbal communication is more accurate than verbal communication. In connection with this point, it may be stated that display of feelings during communication ensures correct interpretation of the messages both for the source and the receiver, and strengthens communication. Another facilitator of the channels at the SFL was revealed to be serving as reminders. According to Şimşek (1997), written communication allows the receiver to revise the message transmitted and minimize misinterpretations. Based on this, it may be stated that the written communication channels employed at SFLs enable the staff to revise the information, tasks and duties that have previously been shared at their convenience, comprehend the information fully and plan the operations accordingly. Finally, communication channels contributed to OE by providing the opportunity to adopt a register based on the purpose, which promoted the respect and commitment of the staff. In this regard, Avalio et al. (2004) explains that leaders with high moral standards keep the communication open and honest by expressing positive expectations, which enable the empowerment of subordinates to attain the goals. Therefore, the result and the explanation of Avalio et al. (2004) may indicate that the appropriate language employed during communication promotes the attempts to achieve organizational goals, and contributes to OE.

Apart from the facilitators, the results revealed that the communication channels created some barriers to OE, which were also grouped under two categories as personal and work-related. Starting from the personal barriers, the choice of wording was revealed to be the most frequently mentioned barrier. In this regard, Pektaş (2019) explains that the complexity and intricacy of the language employed can cause communication problems and Sabuncuoğlu and Gümüş (2008) state that complex sentences can distract the receiver from

the topic and prevent the proper interpretation of the message. Accordingly, as a result of the study, it could be indicated that the choice of wording sometimes prevents clear transmission of the messages and result in misunderstandings, which consequently causes malfunctioning at the SFLs. Therefore, it might be suggested that training programmes on effective communication are organized for the staff of SFLs. On the other hand, display of negative feelings was also revealed to be a personal barrier for communication channels to OE. In this regard, Sabuncuoğlu and Gümüş (2008) explain that having extreme attitudes towards the other part reflects in the acts of communication in terms of coding the message or interpretation and it sets a barrier to effective communication. The current study displayed a similar result which revealed that having negative feelings such as anger, sadness sometimes reflected in the body language and intonation of the staff, affected the flow of communication, impaired motivation and jeopardized the maintenance of the operations. This result may stem from peoples' deviating from being professional and taking work-related issues personal.

Furthermore, besides being a facilitator, accessibility due to digital communication channels was revealed to be a barrier to OE since it distracted the instructors, increased the work pressure, violated their private life. Considering that those channels served the purpose of solving problems in a very short time as a facilitator, that the instructors felt the need of checking messages during the class hour or after office hours in order not to miss any crucial information and in order to prevent possible problems is not unexpected. This result showed similarities with several researches in the literature. Cameron (1980) states that the effectiveness of an organization depends on the internal characteristics such as absence of internal pressure, smooth internal functioning and smooth information flow both horizontally and vertically. Additionally, Aziz and Dicle (2017), and Sillars (1997) explain that information overload and time pressure cause communicational barriers. Accordingly, it may be inferred that too much accessibility of instructors causes them to feel pressured, be exposed to too much information and it prevents the smooth functioning. Therefore, in order to solve this problem, work-related communication may be limited to the office hours and the staff may get in touch with relevant people rather than reaching out everyone. In contrast to accessibility, inaccessibility was also displayed as a barrier of communication channels to ensure OE. Communication in organizations is crucial to ensure coordination, information flow, and proper functioning (Solmaz, 2004). Therefore, the inaccessibility such

as not checking mails regularly, attending online meetings with cameras and microphones off could cause failures in the transmission of the intended message and malfunctions in daily operations, increase the workload and influence the school climate negatively. As for the last personal-related barrier, the experiences and the abilities of the staff to employ and adopt communication channels were revealed to be negatively influencing OE. In this regard, Pektaş (2019) explains that communication barriers that are directly related to the parties of the communication process are called psychological and social reasons, which may stem from the differences in demographic background (Lunenburg, 2010). Accordingly, the age differences of instructors might be explained as causing communication problems and creating barriers because of the differences in the skills and abilities of using technological communication channels and it may be suggested that such differences are taken into consideration when choosing communication channels at the SFLs.

On the other hand, communication channels, also, revealed work-related barriers, which were grouped under the categories: multiple channels for different purposes, delivery of the message to everyone, failure to record and multiple channels for the same purpose. Although multiple channels for different purposes were revealed to be facilitators of OE, they were also revealed to be barriers to OE. The results revealed that the use of multiple channels for different purposes caused the staff to be exposed to too much information, which decreased time allocated for duties, distracted them to focus on operations, and decreased the quality of the operations. Furthermore, the communication channels enabled the delivery of the message to everyone and it caused the staff to be exposed to insignificant information, besides the relevant information. In this respect, Bedeian and Glueck (1983) explain that being surrounded by lots of data causes individuals to miss the urgent and vital information, prevents them from transmitting valuable information, which, consequently, affects OE. Therefore, on grounds of the literature and the results, it might be recommended for the administrators to consider the information load and the channels delivering the information in terms of being manageable, leave enough time for the completion of duties, and get in touch only with the relevant individuals. Finally, the face-to-face communication was revealed to be a barrier due to failing to record the information, which caused the information to get lost, unlike written communication (Evans, 1978, as cited in Şimşek, 1997).

Consequently, considering communication channels in terms of ensuring OE, the inductive content analysis revealed that the frequency of the facilitators was higher than the barriers', which indicated that the communication channels served the purpose of OE despite having some barriers. Also, the work-related facilitators outnumbered the personal facilitators while the personal barriers outnumbered the work-related barriers. This result could indicate that the staff mainly related positive attributions, which are facilitators, to the effective functioning of the SFL while relating negative attributions, which are barriers, to personal reasons. In other words, this result could imply that the staff is pleased with the operations of the SFL; therefore, they tend to protect and prioritize the SFL even at personal cost (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Furthermore, accessibility, display of feelings and multiple channels for different purposes revealed to be both facilitators and barriers. In this regard, it could be indicated that communication channels benefit the SFL for making sure of the maintenance but they sometimes place burden on the shoulders of the staff at the same time.

5.2.5. Discussion of RQ5: What are the perceptions of instructors towards organizational communication channels in terms of OE in the SFL?

To reveal the answer for the last research question, qualitative data analysis was employed to the data obtained from one-on-one semi-structured interviews. The inductive content analysis revealed that the instructors had both positive and negative perceptions towards present communication channels employed in the SFL.

Regarding the positive perceptions, the instructors explained that the communication channels were in line with the technological advances in the SFL and they promoted the proper functioning by routinized use of the channels for particular purposes in terms of OE. In this regard, Hoy and Ferguson (1985) and Balcı (2014) explain that it is crucial for organizations to raise awareness and to keep successful interactions with the environment in order to ensure effectiveness. Therefore, it could be stated that the communication at the SFL serves for the purpose of enhancing OE in terms of interacting with technological changes in the world. In light of this result and the support of literature, it may be recommended that the SFLs regularly revise their communication channels in terms of being updated and useful in order not to fall behind. Regarding another result, communication channels enabled seeing that their feedback was taken serious in the SFL. The feedback

provided by the instructors on curricular issues were evaluated by the academic units and administrations and necessary changes were made accordingly. The study conducted by Mortimore et al. (1988) revealed that, in effective schools, administrators consulted and guided teachers in decision-making processes, and teachers actively took part in decision-making processes. Similarly, this study indicated that communication enhanced the effectiveness of the SFL because teachers actively participated in decision-making processes regarding curricular issues, which was appreciated and taken serious by the administrators. This result might emerge from the fact that administrators reflect in the feedback of the instructors and make necessary changes in the implementations. Furthermore, the administrators supported active participation of the instructors. According to Weber (1989), leadership is concerned with both instructional and managerial issues and effective leaders encourage collaborative planning by paying attention the concerns of the staff. Therefore, it could be stated that the administrators promoted collaborative planning by making use of the feedback provided by the instructors, which also increased active participation in the governance of the SFL (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Additionally, the results revealed how the communication was facilitated in terms of register, feedback, the length of responding time led them to form opinions towards the other parts of communication. Administrators' responding quickly, opening their cams and employing a professional language in communication created the perception that they were supportive, and cared about the instructors, which increased the trust towards administration and motivation for benefiting the school. In this respect, Berlo (1960) explains that communication skills and attitudes of the parts determine the interpretation and affect the communication behaviour. Therefore, it may be inferred that the instructors mainly form positive opinions about the administrators and shape how they approach to the information received from them in a positive way, which positively reflects in their motivation level. Furthermore, problem solving, which was not only attributed to the administration but also the instructors and the secretaries, was another perception towards the communication at the SFL. The instructors emphasised that communication played a significant role in solving problems in an organized and fast way and in case the person in charge was not available at that time, other people took initiatives and solved the problem. In this regard, Spillane (2009) explains that different individuals with skills and abilities such as teachers and secretaries ensure school effectiveness. Additionally, the researcher states that there are people who

take the responsibility of leading informally and subordinates are the key elements in leadership practice because their actions contribute to daily operations (Spillane, 2009). Hence, the result pointed out that the instructors, who are the key elements of the school, voluntarily take leading responsibilities to ensure the functioning of the SFL. Therefore, instructors of SFLs should be encouraged to take active part in offering solutions in order to maintain proper functioning of SFLs. As for the last positive perception, the communication channels employed at the SFL ensured the maintenance of teaching by adjusting the changes around the world. In this regard, the instructors stated that after Covid-19 breakout, all the operations of the school including teaching had to shift to online platform. When the context of the study is considered, this result can be attributed to the effective use of communication channels and instructors' adopting new teaching tools such as Zoom very quickly, which ensured education to be maintained uninterruptedly.

Although the positive perceptions outnumbered the negatives, the instructors stated some negative perceptions regarding the communication channels of the SFL. Firstly, repeated delivery of the same message, and warnings delivered to all instructors rather than the people who were faulty caused the instructors to feel pressured, doubt over their professionalism and capabilities, be exposed to too much information and miss the information that was crucial for the functioning of the SFL. Considering that verbal persuasion, which involves expressing faith in capabilities of the person, strengthens the self-efficacy of individuals (Bandura, 1997), unnecessary and unfair warnings could be inferred to be weakening the self-efficacy of the instructors. Therefore, it may be recommended to make sure particular channels are employed for particular purposes, warn relevant individuals about their faults in private and consider the workload of instructors when new duties are assigned.

5.3. Conclusions

The present study aimed to find out the perceptions of the SFL instructors towards OE, leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, teacher self-efficacy and organizational communication as well as their relation to each other. Secondly, the study aimed to reveal the roles of leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours and teacher self-efficacy in OE. Alongside with this aim, the study also focused on the function of

organizational communication in the interactions, and whether particular organizational communication channels had any significant impacts on OE in the context of the SFL at a non-profit university in Turkey. Furthermore, it aimed to investigate the present communication network of the school and its relation to the OE in terms of capability and usefulness. Finally, it aimed to reveal the perceptions of the SFL instructors towards present communication channels. Based on the findings, the discussions aligning with the research questions, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- Perceptions of the SFL academic staff towards OE, leadership, OCB, school-context teacher self-efficacy and organizational communication are high to moderate.

- Perceptions of the SFL academic staff towards OE, leadership, OCB, school-context teacher self-efficacy and organizational communication are correlated.

- The effectiveness of the SFL seems to be related to the smooth functioning of internal operations instead of achieving high level of success. Also, it is related to individual effort of instructors rather than the support or opportunities provided at the university level.

- The high level of school-context teacher self-efficacy seems to be related to personal relations such as forming friendly relationships with colleagues and building good rapport with the administrators rather than professional relations.

- Similarly, OCBs are mainly exerted to directly benefit individuals rather than the institution because the instructors do not feel they are valued at the university level. On the other hand, they feel valued by their colleagues, feel gratitude towards them, and consequently display citizenship behaviours to benefit them. In this regard, the study concludes that OCBs indirectly influence OE although they are exerted to directly benefit the colleagues.

- The administration of the SFL functions well aligned with the core objectives of the school and act as role-models. The leading responsibilities are distributed among the

administrators and the staff is informed on whom to approach for different issues. However, administrators have difficulties in managing their time properly.

- There is a harmony among the message, channel, time and place in the communication facilitated at the SFL.

- The highest correlation is between leadership and teacher self-efficacy. Administrators' being role models, setting clear goals, establishing friendly relationships, respecting instructors to express their opinions and encouraging participation in decision-making promote school-context teacher self-efficacy of the staff.

Besides the descriptive and correlation analyses, some conclusions are also drawn in terms of the predictor roles of leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours and teacher self-efficacy for OE:

- In the regression model, OCB explains 55 % of the variance in OE. When school-context teacher self-efficacy is excluded from the equation from the model, leadership also predicts OE although OCB still remains as the most significant contributor to OE. In the second model, both OCB and leadership explains 56 % of the variance in OE.

- OCBs indirectly influence OE as they are exerted to directly benefit the colleagues rather than the SFL.

- School-context teacher self-efficacy do not predict OE because the instructors simply follow the rules that are set to maintain the proper functioning of the SFL. Also, teacher self-efficacy is mainly related to having good relationships with colleagues and good rapport with the administrators. Therefore, it could be concluded that their self-efficacy promote collegiality but do not have any influence on OE.

Additionally, some conclusions are drawn in terms of the mediation role of organizational communication between OE and other variables, which are leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, school-context teacher self-efficacy:

- Organizational communication mediates teacher self-efficacy, leadership and OCB at very weak, weak and moderate level respectfully for OE.

- Employing multiple well-chosen communication channels, using communication channels for top-down decisions, and employing different channels for the same purpose seem to have an effect on the mediation role of communication between OE and OCB.

- Administrators' being accessible by means of multiple communication channels, employing appropriate register during communication, sustained use of the channels and employing the channels to share professional learning opportunities appear to have an impact of the mediation role of communication between OE and leadership.

- The support and the top-down decisions received via communication channels have a very weak effect on the mediation role of communication between OE and teacher self-efficacy, which do not affect carrying on duties.

Finally, this study investigated the communication network of the SFL and examined the perceptions of the staff towards the communication channels in terms of enhancing OE:

- Vertical communication is emphasised at the SFL and facilitated both upward and downward. In terms of downward communication, the administrators share duties and top-down decision with the instructors; on the other hand, in terms of upward communication, the instructors share their demands and provide feedback on curricular issues. The result that the administrators sometimes neglect the opinions of the instructors may be concluded as that upward communication do not function properly.

- 13 different channels are employed in the SFL to maintain the effective functioning of the operations. The majority of the channels are comprised of electronic and technological channels. Therefore, it could be concluded that the SFL keeps up with the technological advances in the world and update the communication channels accordingly.

- Digital communication channels contributes to OE by eliminating the time and place restrictions, saving time, ensuring the maintenance of internal consistency, involving all stakeholders in planning, implementing and evaluating the curriculum. Also, they promote the emotional well-being of the instructors with the opportunity of sharing experiences and problems encountered.

- After the breakout of the Covid-19, the SFL successfully employed online communication channels to maintain teaching and organizational operations uninterruptedly and continues to benefit from them even after the disappearance of the pandemic-related risks.

- However, after the breakout of the Covid-19 and increased adoption of digital communication channels, there seems to be a tendency among the administrators to demand work-related duties exceeding office hours, which violates personal lives, increases work pressure, impairs motivation and decreases the commitment and satisfaction.

- Moreover, digital communication channels seem to result in being exposed to too much information due to the excessive use since they eliminate time and place restrictions, which causes distraction during class hours and missing crucial information.

5.4. Implications

Effectiveness of the SFLs is determined by all the procedures and stakeholders, besides the curricular implementations. Therefore, in the broadest terms, the study shed light on some of the key components that ensures effectiveness of the SFLs and uncovered the

underlying motives and structures of these components. Considering the scope of the research and its significance to the quality of English language teaching at preparatory programmes, some implications can be offered to enhance the effectiveness of the SFLs. Firstly, implications for the institution can be drawn as:

- The results revealed that the instructors aim to benefit individuals rather than the organization. Although the instructors spend most of their office time with the students and their colleagues, in the big picture, they are the members who carry out organizational duties at the institutional level. Therefore, in order to enhance the effectiveness of the SFL, which essentially functions to accomplish the missions aligned with the vision of the university, commitment of the instructors to the institution should be promoted.

- In order to strengthen instructors' commitment to the institution, they should be made to feel valued by the institution both professionally and socially. Professionally, they should be consulted for their opinions regarding the organizational operations and informed on the reasons of the decisions made. On the other hand, socially, leisure time activities such as dinners on teachers' day should be planned and mails and small gifts such as cups with the institution logo should be sent on birthdays or special days.

- The results also revealed that the instructors do not voluntarily attend the meetings held by the institution. In this regard, the events and the meetings should be promoted by explaining the content in detail with target outcomes for the instructors.

On the other hand, in the SFL context, the implications can be drawn as:

- At the SFL, the administrators were perceived to ignore the opinions of instructors, despite offering multiple options to express them. In this respect, besides encouraging participation, the administrators should regularly report on how they made use of the instructors' opinions.

- The responsibilities of the administrators were clearly defined but they were not able to divide their time properly. In this regard, administrative responsibilities should be distributed by considering the already existing duties of the administrators so that their workload could be manageable and they could fulfil their responsibilities effectively.

- The top-down decisions decreased the motivation and commitment of the instructors. Therefore, similar to institutional level, the administrators should clearly explain the reasons behind the decisions and facilitate the process of internalization.

- Administrators tend to warn the entire group via Signal over a mistake having been made by an individual, without actually naming them. This leaders to instructors' feeling unnecessarily judged, resulting in unwarranted anxiety. Responsible individuals should be warned directly about any professional error, so as not to potentially weaken the others' self-efficacy.

- The differences in ages and capabilities affect the perceptions of the staff towards communication channels. Therefore, these differences should be considered by the administration in choosing communication channels in order to employ them effectively. Also, before employing the channels, informational meetings should be held to train the staff on how to use them.

- Although the results revealed that the parts of the communication do not hold negative feelings towards each other, displaying negative reactions might disturb the quality of the communication and result in temporary release of nervous tension, which might negatively influence the operations. On the other hand, displaying positive feelings excessively might create false perceptions, which might also result in disappointment and malfunctions. Therefore, the staff should be trained on non-verbal communication.

- Having routines enables standardisation in the organizations and prevents unexpected situations. Therefore, particular communication channels should be employed for certain kind of information so that the staff knows how to find the

necessary information, which might foster autonomy, clear up confusion and speed up the operations.

- Additionally, the information that has already been shared should not be regularly reminded by means of different communication channels because it results in spoon-feeding thereby taking attention away from the primary source of communication.

- Finally, the results showed that work-related use of communication channels after office hours deeply disturbs the staff, increases pressure and demotivates them. In this regard, the operations should be planned so carefully that they are facilitated within office hours.

5.5. Recommendations for further research

Further researches are suggested to investigate some issues revealed in the study. This current study aims to reveal the perceptions of instructors and administrators towards OE. In this respect, a further study could be carried out by including the students, who are key stakeholders, to investigate the impacts of leadership, citizenship behaviours, self-efficacy, communication and OE in the classroom. Also, this study was carried out with the participation of full-time instructors. However, another study could be conducted by including the part-time instructors involving Turkish individuals and native speakers of English.

As for another recommendation, qualitative data was obtained from 10 participants out of 50 full-time instructors at the SFL. Therefore, the ideas emerged from the one-on-one semi-structured interviews might not be generalized to the SFL although they offer an insight. In this respect, another study involving more participants could be carried out for the results to be more inclusive.

Also, the variables investigated in this study are not the only factors that determine and impact OE. Therefore, other elements should be included to these variables to reveal whether or in what way they interact with each other.

Additionally, this study focuses on the SFL of the a non-profit university in İstanbul, Turkey. As pointed earlier, the number of the studies investigating the effectiveness of OE is scarce. In this regard, a wider study could be carried out among the SFLs in Turkey in order to see the effectiveness of the SFLs and to reveal what functions well in English language education.

5.6. Chapter Summary

The chapter provides the summary of the study, in-depth discussions aligned with the relevant literature and the findings in accordance with the aim of the research. Also, conclusions are drawn, then implications are provided based on the findings. Finally, some recommendations are offered for further studies.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1 TURKISH VERSION OF THE SURVEY

ÖRGÜTSEL ETKİLİLİK, ÖRGÜTSEL VATANDAŞLIK DAVRANIŞLARI, LİDERLİK, ÖĞRETMEN ÖZ YETERLİLİĞİ, ÖRGÜTSEL İLETİŞİM ANKETİ

Değerli hocam,

Adım Gizem ARSLAN, Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi'nde yüksek lisans öğrencisiyim. "Liderlik, Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışları, Öğretmen Öz yeterliliği açısından Örgütsel Etkililik: Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu Bağlamında Örgütsel İletişimin Rolü" konulu tez çalışmamı yürütüyorum. Çalışmam için aşağıdaki ölçekleri kullanacağım:

1. Algılanan Okul Etkililiği Ölçeği (AOEÖ) (Yıldırım, 2016)
2. Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Ölçeği (Polat, 2007)
3. Liderlik Ekibinin İşbirliği Ölçeği (Cooperation of the Leadership Scale) (Hulpia vd, 2010)
4. Okul Bağlamında Öğretmen Öz Yeterliği Ölçeği (School Context Teacher Self-efficacy Scale) (Friedman & Kass, 2002)
5. Örgüt İçi İletişim Ölçeği (Pektaş, 2019)

Araştırmanın amacı yüksekokulunuzdaki örgütsel etkililiği liderlik, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları, öğretmen öz-yeterliği ve örgütsel iletişim gibi özellikler açısından analiz etmektir. Çalışma ayrıca, yüksekokulunuzun iletişim ağını ve örgütsel etkililiği ile ne ölçüde ilişkili olduğunu, mevcut iletişim kanallarının örgütsel etkililiği açısından artıları ve eksilerini ortaya çıkarmayı içermektedir. İngilizce eğitimi açısından örgütsel etkililiğe odaklanan çalışma sayısı yetersiz olduğundan, bu çalışma alanyazındaki boşluğu doldurmayı amaçlamaktadır. Üniversiteniz bünyesinde daha önce benzer bir çalışma yapılmadığından, çalışma yüksekokulunuzda örgütsel etkililiğin mevcut durumunu araştırmayı, olası iyileştirmeler sunmayı ve diğer birimlere örnek teşkil etmeyi ve üniversite gelişimine katkı sağlamayı amaçlamaktadır.

Onay vermeniz durumunda katılacağınız çalışma tahminen 15 dakikanızı alacaktır. Araştırmaya sizin dışınızda tahminen 50 kişi katılacaktır. Bu çalışmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Çalışmanın amacına ulaşması için sizden beklenen, bütün soruları eksiksiz, kimsenin baskısı veya telkini altında olmadan, size en uygun gelen cevapları içtenlikle verecek şekilde cevaplamanızdır. Bu formu okuyup onaylamanız, araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz anlamına gelecektir. Ancak, çalışmaya katılmama veya katıldıktan sonra herhangi bir anda çalışmayı bırakma hakkına da sahipsiniz. Bu çalışmadan elde edilecek bilgiler tamamen araştırma amacı ile kullanılacaktır.

Başka sorularınız varsa, lütfen benimle iletişime geçmekten çekinmeyin. Katılımınız ve zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederim.

Gizem ARSLAN

"Liderlik, Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışları, Öğretmen Öz yeterliliği açısından Örgütsel Etkililik: Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu Bağlamında Örgütsel İletişimin Rolü" konulu tez çalışması kapsamında uygulanacak ankete katılmayı kabul ediyorum. (__)

BÖLÜM A

Kişisel Bilgiler

1. **Yaşınız:** ……………………
2. **Cinsiyetiniz:**

Kadın (   )

Erkek (   )

Diğer (   )

Belirtmek İstemiyorum (   )

3. **En son mezun olduğunuz eğitim seviyesi:**

Lisans (   )

Yüksek Lisans (   )

Doktora (   )

4. **Lisans mezuniyetiniz:**

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi (   )

İngiliz Dili Edebiyatı / Amerikan Dili Edebiyatı (   )

İngilizce Mütercim ve Tercümanlık / Çeviri bilim (   )

Dil Bilimi (   )

Diğer (lütfen belirtiniz): (   ) ……………………

5. **Bulunduğunuz yüksekokulda çalışma süreniz (Ay / Yıl):** ……………………
6. **Çalıştığınız yüksekokuldaki haftalık ders yükünüz:** ……………………
7. **Çalıştığınız kurumda herhangi bir idari göreviniz var mı veya daha önce herhangi birine katıldınız mı?**

Müdür (   )

Müdür Yardımcılığı (   )

Program Başkanlığı / Program Koordinatörlüğü (   )

Akademik Birim Başkanlığı (   )

Akademik Birim Üyeliği (   )

Seviye Koordinatörlüğü (2021-2022 Akademik Yılı süresince yapılan görevler) (   )

Hayır (   )

Diğer (lütfen belirtiniz): (   ) …………………

BÖLÜM B

Aşağıdaki bölümde çalıştığınız yüksekokulun etkililiğine ilişkin algılarınıza yönelik ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Her bir ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyup size en uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

Seçeneklerde yer alan numaralar şu şekildedir:

1- Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
2- Katılmıyorum
3- Kararsızım
4- Katılıyorum
5- Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

Madde Numarası		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1	Okulumdaki hemen hemen herkes değişiklikleri kabul eder ve uyum sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Bu okulda çok sayıda ürün ve hizmet üretilip, sunulmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Okulumdaki öğretmenler acil durumlar ve sorunlar ile başa çıkmada iyidir.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Bu okuldaki öğretmenler mevcut kaynakları etkili bir şekilde kullanırlar.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Bu okuldaki öğretmenler problemleri önceden tahmin eder ve önlerler.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Bu okuldaki öğretmenler, kendilerini etkileyen yenilikler hakkında geniş bir bilgiye sahiptirler.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Bu okulda sunulan ürün ve hizmetlerin kalitesi yüksektir.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Bu okulda değişiklikler yapıldığında öğretmenler çabucak kabul eder ve uyum sağlarlar.	1	2	3	4	5

BÖLÜM C

Aşağıdaki bölümde örgütsel vatandaşlık ile ilgili ifadeler bulacaksınız. Her bir ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyup size en uygun seçeneği ile işaretleyiniz.

Seçeneklerde yer alan numaralar şu şekildedir:

1- Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
2- Katılmıyorum
3- Kararsızım
4- Katılıyorum
5- Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

Madde Numarası		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	İş yükü ağır olan öğretmen arkadaşlarıma yardım ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Zamanım uygunsa, dersine herhangi bir sebeple gelemeyen ya da geciken arkadaşımın yerine derse girerim.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Öğretmen arkadaşlarımın sorunu olduğunda onlara yardım etmek için gönüllü olarak zaman ayırırım.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Okulda çalışmaya yeni başlayan öğretmenler yardım istemeseler bile onlara yardımcı olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Okulumla ilgili bir karar almadan önce bu kararın sonucundan etkilenecek arkadaşlarımın fikirlerini alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Öğretmen arkadaşlarımın haklarını korumaya özen gösteririm.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Öğretmen arkadaşlarımla aramda çıkabilecek olası sorunlar için önceden önlemler alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
8	İşimle ilgili önemli bir adım atmadan önce yöneticilerimi mutlaka bilgilendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Etrafımdakilere sürekli öğretmenliği bırakmak istediğimi söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
10	İşime zamanında gelirim.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Teneffüs zamanı dışında işime ara vermem.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Okuldaki değişiklikleri izler, öğretmen arkadaşlarımın bu değişiklikleri kabul etmeleri için aktif rol alırım.	1	2	3	4	5

		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
13	Okulumuzun imajını güçlendiren tüm etkinliklere gönüllü olarak katılırım.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Okulu ilgilendiren tüm toplantılara katılarak tartışmalara aktif olarak katılırım.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Okuldaki değişikliklere ayak uydurmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5

BÖLÜM D

Aşağıdaki bölümde liderlik ekibinin işbirliği ile ilgili ifadeler bulacaksınız. **Aşağıda belirtilen ifadelerde "Liderlik Ekibi" çalıştığınız yüksekokul bünyesindeki idari kadroyu ve akademik birimlerde çalışan kişileri kastetmektedir**. Her bir ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyup size en uygun seçeneği ile işaretleyiniz.

Seçeneklerde yer alan numaralar şu şekildedir:

1- Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
2- Katılmıyorum
3- Kararsızım
4- Katılıyorum
5- Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

Madde Numarası		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Okulumuzda iyi işleyen bir liderlik ekibi vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Liderlik ekibi görevini olabildiğince iyi yerine getirmeye çalışır.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Liderlik ekibi okulumuzda ulaşmak istediğimiz hedefleri destekler.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Liderlik ekibinin tüm üyeleri okulun temel hedefleri üzerinde aynı çabayla çalışır.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Okulumuzda, yetkinlikleri hesaba katılarak doğru kişi doğru yerdedir.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Liderlik ekibinin üyeleri zamanlarını düzgün bir şekilde böler.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Liderlik ekibinin üyelerinin açık hedefleri vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Liderlik ekibinin üyeleri hangi görevleri yerine getirmeleri gerektiğini bilir.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Liderlik ekibi iyi bir fikri uygulamaya isteklidir.	1	2	3	4	5

| 10 | Liderlik ekibinin üyelerinin nerelerde yetkilendirildiği açıktır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

BÖLÜM E

Aşağıdaki bölümde yüksekokul bağlamında (School-Context) öğretmen öz yeterliği ile ilgili ifadeler bulacaksınız. Her bir ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyup size en uygun seçeneği (X) ile işaretleyiniz.

Seçeneklerde yer alan numaralar şu şekildedir:

1- Hiçbir Zaman
2- Çok Nadir
3- Bazen
4- Genelde
5- Çoğu Zaman
6- Her Zaman

Madde Numarası		Hiçbir Zaman	Çok Nadir	Bazen	Genelde	Çoğu zaman	Her Zaman
1	Okul yönetiminden talepte bulunmakta zorlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Okul müdürünün okulun eğitimsel ve sosyal hedeflerine katkıda bulunan planlarımı veya önerilerimi kolayca kabul edeceğini düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Okul yöneticilerimin okulun eğitimsel veya sosyal hedeflerine katkıda bulunacak fikirlerime veya bana olumlu yaklaşmadığını hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Okul yöneticilerimin bana veya görüşlerime yeterince aşina olduğunu düşünmüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Ciddi sorunları çözmede önemli bir rol oynayabileceğimi düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Okuldaki yöneticilerle iyi bir ilişki kurduğuma inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Okulda sorun yaşadığımda kime başvuracağımı bilmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	İş arkadaşlarım veya yönetimle ilişkilerimde çok fazla zorlukla karşılaştığımda geri çekilmeyi veya pes etmeyi tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6

9	Okulumda önemli kararları aslında kimin aldığını bilmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Okuldaki iş arkadaşlarımla dostane ilişkilerim olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6

BÖLÜM F

Aşağıdaki bölümde akademisyenlerin örgütsel iletişim hakkındaki düşünceleri ile ilgili ifadeler bulacaksınız. Her bir ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyup size en uygun seçeneği ile işaretleyiniz.

Seçeneklerde yer alan numaralar şu şekildedir:

1- Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
2- Katılmıyorum
3- Kararsızım
4- Katılıyorum
5- Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

Madde Numarası		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişimde kullanılan mesajlar açık ve anlaşılırdır.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişimde iletişimin gerçekleştiği ortama ve koşullara uygun olmayan bir kanal kullanılmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişimde mesaj gönderen kişi ya da kişiler iletmek istedikleri mesajlarını imalı bir şekilde yani üstü kapalı bir şekilde aktarmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişim gürültülü (iletişimin gerçekleşmesine engel olacak rahatsız edici seslerin bulunduğu) ortamlarda gerçekleşmektedir.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişimde kullanılan dilin yapısı sade ve basittir.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişimde mesaj, kanal, zaman ve mekân uyumu gözetilmektedir.	1	2	3	4	5

7	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişimde gönderici (söyleyen) ve alıcı (dinleyen) farklı kişilik özelliklerine sahiptir.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişimde söylenmek istenen sözler ya da iletilmek istenen mesajlar amacından farklı anlaşılmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişim sürecinde yer alan üyeler bahsedilen konuyla ve karşısında bulunan kişiyle alakalı olumsuz tutum ve düşüncelere sahiptirler.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişimde bireylerin farklı sosyal ve kültürel yapıların değerlerini taşımaları iletişimi etkilemektedir.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişimde düşüncelerini mutlak doğru kabul eden üyeler bulunmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişimde üyeler kendilerini istedikleri gibi ifade edebilmektedirler.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişimde muhatap olunan kişi yani alıcı gönderilen mesajlara yeterince odaklanmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişim sürecine katılan kişilerin yaş durumları iletişimi etkilemektedir.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişime katılan üyelerin cinsiyetleri iletişimi etkilemektedir.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişimde mesajı gönderen kişiyle alıcı (muhatap alınan kişi) arasındaki fiziki mesafe uzaktır.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişimde kurum hiyerarşisinde statü farkı çoktur.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişimde örgüt "katı bir hiyerarşik yapıya" (ast üst ilişkisi) sahiptir.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişimde üyelerin sosyal yaşamıyla iş ortamındaki tutum ve davranışları arasında uyuşmazlık vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişim sürecinde örgüt üyelerine olması gerekenden fazla bilgi yüklemesi yapılmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5
21	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişimde örgüt yöneticileri üyelerin düşüncelerini göz ardı etmektedirler.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişimde kullanılan iletişim türü iletişimi etkilemektedir.	1	2	3	4	5

| 23 | Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişimde örgüt üyelerine yapacakları çalışmalar için yeterli zaman tanınmaktadır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24 | Yüksekokulda örgüt içi iletişimde gönderilen mesajlara zamanında geribildirim yapılmaktadır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

APPENDIX 2 ENGLISH VERSION OF THE SURVEY

THE SURVEY OF ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS, ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOURS, LEADERSHIP, TEACHER SELF-EFFICACY AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

Dear Colleague,

I am Gizem Arslan, a graduate student at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University. I am doing my thesis entitled 'Organizational Effectiveness in terms of Leadership, Organizational Citizenship Behaviours, Teacher Self-Efficacy: The Role of Organizational Communication in a School of Foreign Languages Context'.

I will use the following scales for my research:

1. The School Effectiveness Index (The SE Index) (Yıldırım, 2016)
2. Organizational Citizenship Scale (Polat, 2007)
3. Cooperation of the Leadership Scale (Hulpia et al., 2010)
4. School Context Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (Friedman & Kass, 2002)
5. Organizational Communication Scale (Pektaş, 2019)

The aim of the research is to investigate the organizational effectiveness in your SFL in terms of characteristics such as leadership, organizational citizenship behaviours, teacher self-efficacy and organizational communication. The study also includes examining the communication network of your school and the extent to which organizational communication is related to the organizational effectiveness. Furthermore, the study aims to reveal the pros and cons of the existing communication channels in terms of organizational effectiveness. Since the number of the studies focusing on organizational effectiveness in terms of English language teaching is insufficient, this study aims to fill the gap in the literature. As, to the knowledge of the researcher, no similar study has been carried out in your university before, the study aims to investigate the current state of organizational effectiveness in your college, to offer possible improvements, to set an example for other departments and to contribute to the development of the university.

If you agree to participate in my research, carrying out the survey will take approximately 15 minutes. Apart from you, an estimated 50 people will participate in the study. Participation in this study is completely voluntary. In order for the study to achieve its purpose, you are expected to answer all questions, without any pressure, and to give the most appropriate answers sincerely. Approving this form after reading verifies that you agree to participate in the research. However, you can decline to participate in the study or are free to stop taking part in the study at any time. The information obtained from this study will be used only for research purposes.

For further questions, please do not hesitate to contact me. Thank you for your time and consideration.

Gizem ARSLAN

I agree to participate in the study entitled 'Organizational Effectiveness in terms of Leadership, Organizational Citizenship Behaviours, Teacher Self-Efficacy: The Role of Organizational Communication in a School of Foreign Languages Context' by conducting the survey. (   )

PART A

Demographic Information

   1. Age: ……………………
 2. Gender:

Female (   )

Male (   )

Other (   )

I do not want to indicate (   )

 3. What is your highest qualification?

B.A. (   )

M.A. (   )

Ph.D. (   )

 4. What did you study at university?

English Language Teaching (   )

English Language Literature / American Language Literature (   )

English Translation and Interpretation / Translation and Interpreting Studies (   )

Linguistics (   )

Other (please indicate): (   ) ……………………

 5. Years of experience in teaching in the current School of Foreign Languages (SFL) (Month / Year): …………………
 6. Weekly lesson load at the SFL: …………………
 7. Do you have any administrative duties in your institution or have you participated in any of the below before?

Director (   )

Vice Director (   )

Head of the Programme / Programme Coordinator (   )

Head of an Academic Unit (   )

Member of an Academic Unit (   )

Level Coordinator (In 2021-2022 academic year) (   )

No (   )

Other (please indicate): (   ) ……………………

PART B

In the section below, there are statements regarding your perceptions of the effectiveness of the SFL you work at. Read each statement carefully and choose the option that best fits you.

The numbers in the options are as follows:

1- Strongly Disagree
2- Disagree
3- Undecided
4- Agree
5- Strongly Agree

Item Number		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Most everyone in the school accepts and adjusts to changes.	1	2	3	4	5
2	The quantity of products and services in this school is high.	1	2	3	4	5
3	The instructors in my school do a good job coping with emergencies and disruptions.	1	2	3	4	5
4	The instructors in this school use available resources efficiently.	1	2	3	4	5
5	The instructors in this school anticipate problems and prevent them.	1	2	3	4	5
6	The instructors in this school are well informed about innovations that could affect them.	1	2	3	4	5
7	The quality of products and services produced in this school is outstanding.	1	2	3	4	5
8	When changes are made in the school, instructors accept and adjust quickly	1	2	3	4	5

Source: Hoy, W. K. & Ferguson, J. (1985). A theoretical framework and exploration of organizational effectiveness in schools. Educational Administration Quarterly, 21, 117-134.

PART C

In the section below, there are statements regarding organizational citizenship. Read each statement carefully and choose the option that best fits you.

The numbers in the options are as follows:

1- Strongly Disagree
2- Disagree
3- Undecided
4- Agree
5- Strongly Agree

Item Number		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I help my fellow instructors who have a heavy workload.	1	2	3	4	5
2	If I am available, I attend the classes instead of my colleagues who are late or unable to attend their class for any reason	1	2	3	4	5
3	I voluntarily allocate time to help my colleagues when they have problems.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I help new instructors even if they do not ask for help.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Before making a decision related to my school, I seek the opinions of my colleagues who will be affected by the outcome of this decision.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I prioritize protecting the rights of my colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I take precautions for possible problems that may arise between me and colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I always inform the administration before taking an important step in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I always tell those around me that I want to quit teaching.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I come to work on time.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I do not take a break from my work except the official break times.	1	2	3	4	5
12	I follow the changes in the school and take an active role in helping colleagues to accept these changes.	1	2	3	4	5

13	I voluntarily participate in all activities that strengthen the image of the school.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I attend all meetings related to school and take active part in discussions.	1	2	3	4	5
15	I try to keep up with the changes at school.	1	2	3	4	5

PART D

In the section below, there are statements regarding leadership team. **In the expressions below, "Leadership Team" refers to the administrative staff of the school you work in and the people working in the academic units.** Read each statement carefully and choose the option that best fits you.

The numbers in the options are as follows:

1- Strongly Disagree
2- Disagree
3- Undecided
4- Agree
5- Strongly Agree

Item Number		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	There is a well-functioning leadership team in our school.	1	2	3	4	5
2	The leadership team tries to act as well as possible.	1	2	3	4	5
3	The leadership team supports the goals we like to attain with our school.	1	2	3	4	5
4	All members of the leadership team work in the same strain on the school's core objectives.	1	2	3	4	5
5	In our school, the right person sits on the right place, taken the competencies into account.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Members of the management team divide their time properly.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Members of the leadership team have clear goals.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Members of the leadership team know which tasks they have to perform.	1	2	3	4	5
9	The leadership team is willing to execute a good idea.	1	2	3	4	5

10	It is clear where members of the leadership team are authorized to.	1	2	3	4	5

Source: Hulpia, H., Devos, G., & Van Keer, H. (2009). The influence of distributed leadership on teachers' organizational commitment: A multilevel approach. The Journal of Educational Research, 103(1), 40-52.

PART E

In the section below, there are statements regarding teacher self-efficacy in the school context. Read each statement carefully and choose the option that best fits you.

The numbers in the options are as follows:

1- Never
2- Rarely
3- Sometimes
4- Usually
5- Often
6- Always

Item Number		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Often	Always
1	I have difficulty in making demands of the school administration.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I think that my director would readily accept my plans or suggestions for promoting the school's educational and social goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I feel that my school administrators are not sympathetic to me or my ideas for promoting the schools' educational and social goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I do not think my school administrators are sufficiently familiar with me or my views.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I think I can play an important role in solving serious school problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	I believe I enjoy a good rapport with the administrators at school.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	When I have problems at school, I do not know whom to turn to.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
8	When faced with too moany difficulties in my relations with colleagues and administration staff, I prefer to retreat or give up.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I do not know who really makes the important decisions in my school.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	I think I have friendly relationships with colleagues at school.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Source: Friedman, I. A., & Kass, E. (2002). Teacher self-efficacy: A classroom-organization conceptualization. Teaching and teacher education, 18(6), 675-686.

PART F

In the section below, there are statements regarding the perceptions towards organizational communication. Read each statement carefully and choose the option that best fits you.

The numbers in the options are as follows:

1- Strongly Disagree
2- Disagree
3- Undecided
4- Agree
5- Strongly Agree

Item Number		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	The messages transmitted in organizational communication at the school are clear and comprehensible.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Channels that are not suitable for the school environment and conditions are employed for the communication at the school.	1	2	3	4	5
3	In organizational communication, the person who is the source forms and transmits the message allusively and indirectly.	1	2	3	4	5
4	In the school, communication is facilitated in noisy environments where there are disturbing sounds that will prevent communication from occurring.	1	2	3	4	5
5	The structure of the language used in organizational communication in the school is plain and simple.	1	2	3	4	5

6	The harmony of message, channel, time and place is of utmost importance in the organizational communication at the school.	1	2	3	4	5
7	In organizational communication at the school, the source (interlocutor) and the receiver (the listener) have different personality traits.	1	2	3	4	5
8	The messages transmitted in organizational communication at the school are interpreted differently from the intended meaning.	1	2	3	4	5
9	The parts who are involved in the organizational communication process at the school hold negative attitudes and thoughts about each other and the topic discussed.	1	2	3	4	5
10	The fact that individuals have the values of different social and cultural structures affects organizational communication at the school.	1	2	3	4	5
11	There are members who accept their thoughts as absolute correct during organizational communication at the school.	1	2	3	4	5
12	The members can express themselves as they wish in organizational communication at the school.	1	2	3	4	5
13	In organizational communication at the school, the person addressed, who is the receiver, focuses on the messages sent sufficiently.	1	2	3	4	5
14	The ages of people who take part in the organizational communication process affect the communication at the school.	1	2	3	4	5
15	The gender of people who take part in the organizational communication process affect the communication at the school.	1	2	3	4	5
16	The physical distance between the source of the message (addressor) and the receiver (the addressee) is long in organizational communication at the school.	1	2	3	4	5
17	The difference of hierarchical status at the school is obvious and emphasised in organizational communication.	1	2	3	4	5
18	The organization has a "strict hierarchical structure" (superior-subordinate relationship) in organizational communication at the college.	1	2	3	4	5
19	There is a discrepancy between the social life of the members and their attitudes and behaviours at the school in organizational communication.	1	2	3	4	5
20	During organizational communication processes, the school members are loaded with excessive information.	1	2	3	4	5

21	In organizational communication at the school, the administrators ignore the opinions of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
22	The type of communication employed affects communication at the school.	1	2	3	4	5
23	In organizational communication at the school, the members are given sufficient time for their work.	1	2	3	4	5
24	Feedback for the messages is provided on time in organizational communication at the school.	1	2	3	4	5

Öğretim Elemanı Örgüt İçi İletişim Görüşme Formu

<u>**Ön Bilgiler**</u>

Yaş:

Cinsiyet:

Deneyim:

Akademik Pozisyon:

<u>**Genel Algılar**</u>

1. Günlük hayatınızda kullandığınız iletişim kanalları nelerdir?

    a. Bu kanalları hangi sıklıkla kullanıyorsunuz?

    b. Bu kanalları hangi amaçlarla kullanıyorsunuz?

2. Günlük hayatta kullandığınız iletişim kanallarının avantajları ve dezavantajları nelerdir?

3. Sizce etkili iletişim nedir?

    a. Etkili iletişim kurmak için nelere dikkat ediyorsunuz?

<u>**Örgüt İçi İletişim**</u>

4. Kurumsal iletişim kurmak sizce önemli midir? Neden?

5. Sizce etkili kurumsal iletişim nedir?

    a. Etkili kurumsal iletişim kurmanın gerekliliği konusundaki fikriniz nedir?

    b. Kurum içinde kimlerle etkili iletişim kurmak önemlidir?

6. Kurumunuzda kullandığınız iletişim kanalları nelerdir?

    a. Bu kanalları hangi sıklıkla kullanıyorsunuz?

    b. Bu kanalları hangi kurumsal amaçlarla kullanıyorsunuz?

    c. Saydığınız kullanım amaçlarını kurumsal pozisyona göre eşleştirirseniz, hangi kurumsal pozisyondaki kişi hangi amaçlarla bu kanalları kullanıyor?

7. Bu iletişim kanallarını kullanmak hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?

    a. Olumlu bulduğunuz yönleri var mı?

    b. Olumsuz bulduğunuz yönleri var mı?

    c. Bu kanal(lar)ın örgüt için gerekliliği konusundaki fikriniz nedir?

8. Kullanılan iletişim kanallarının okulun etkili işleyişinde bir rolü var mı?

    a. Engel teşkil ediyor mu? Nasıl?

    b. Kolaylık sağlıyor mu? Nasıl?

9. Katılım sağlamak zorunda olmadığınız halde isteğe bağlı olarak iletişim kanallarını kullanıyor musunuz?

    a. Eğer evetse, hangi kanal(lar)ı kullanıyorsunuz?

    b. Hangi konularda bu kanal(lar)ı kullanıyorsunuz?

10. Kullanılan iletişim kanalları ve aktarılan bilgiler kendi profesyonel fikirlerinizi ve inançlarınızı etkiliyor mu? Nasıl?

11. Kullanılan iletişim kanalları ve aktarılan bilgiler yönetim hakkında size fikir veriyor mu? Nasıl?

12. Kullanılan iletişim kanalları ve aktarılan bilgiler müfredatın planlanması, uygulanması ve değerlendirilmesi hakkında size fikir veriyor mu? Nasıl?

13. Kullanılan iletişim kanallarının ve aktarılan bilgilerin sunulan İngilizce dili öğretiminin kalitesi üzerinde etkisi var mıdır? Nasıl?

14. Örgüt içi iletişimde başka kanal(lar) kullanılabilir mi? Neden?

15. Örgüt içi iletişim hakkında başka söylemek istedikleriniz ve / veya önerileriniz var mı?

APPENDIX 4 ADMINISTRATOR INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (TR)

Yönetici Örgüt İçi İletişim Görüşme Formu

<u>Ön Bilgiler</u>

Yaş:

Cinsiyet:

Deneyim:

Akademik Pozisyon:

<u>Genel Algılar</u>

1. Günlük hayatınızda kullandığınız iletişim kanalları nelerdir?

    a. Bu kanalları hangi sıklıkla kullanıyorsunuz?

    b. Bu kanalları hangi amaçlarla kullanıyorsunuz?

2. Günlük hayatta kullandığınız iletişim kanallarının avantajları ve dezavantajları nelerdir?

3. Sizce etkili iletişim nedir?

    a. Etkili iletişim kurmak için nelere dikkat ediyorsunuz?

<u>Örgüt İçi İletişim</u>

4. Kurumsal iletişim kurmak sizce önemli midir? Neden?

5. Sizce etkili kurumsal iletişim nedir?

    a. Etkili kurumsal iletişim kurmanın gerekliliği konusundaki fikriniz nedir?

    b. Kurum içinde kimlerle etkili iletişim kurmak önemlidir?

6. Kurumunuzda kullandığınız iletişim kanalları nelerdir?

    a. Bu kanalları hangi kurumsal amaçlarla kullanıyorsunuz?

    b. Bu kanalları hangi sıklıkla kullanıyorsunuz?

    c. Kullanılacak kanalların seçimi kurumda kimler tarafından yapılıyor?

7. Bu iletişim kanallarını kullanmak hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?

    a. Olumlu bulduğunuz yönleri var mı? Neler?

    b. Sizce öğretim elemanlarının olumlu bulduğu yönler var mı? Neler?

    c. Olumsuz bulduğunuz yönleri var mı? Neler?

    d. Sizce öğretim elemanlarının olumsuz bulduğu yönler var mı? Neler?

        i. Yönetim olarak olumsuzlukları gidermek için bir şeyler yapıyor musunuz? Neler?

    e. Bu kanal(lar)ın örgüt için gerekliliği konusundaki fikriniz nedir?

8. Kullanılan iletişim kanalları okulun etkili işleyişinde bir rolü var mı?

        a. Engel teşkil ediyor mu? Nasıl?

        b. Kolaylık sağlıyor mu? Nasıl?

9. Kullanılan iletişim kanalları ve aktarılan bilgiler:

        a. kendi profesyonel fikirlerinizi ve inançlarınızı yansıtıyor mu? Nasıl?

        b. kendi profesyonel fikirlerinizi ve inançlarınızı etkiliyor mu? Nasıl?

10. Kullanılan iletişim kanalları ve aktarılan bilgiler öğretim görevlileri hakkında size fikir veriyor mu? Nasıl?

11. Kullanılan iletişim kanalları ve aktarılan bilgiler müfredatın planlanması, uygulanması ve değerlendirilmesi hakkında size fikir veriyor mu? Nasıl?

12. Kullanılan iletişim kanallarının ve aktarılan bilgilerin sunulan İngilizce dili öğretiminin kalitesi üzerinde etkisi var mıdır? Nasıl?

13. Örgüt içi iletişimde başka kanal(lar) kullanılabilir mi? Neden?

14. Örgüt içi iletişim hakkında başka söylemek istedikleriniz ve / veya önerileriniz var mı?

APPENDIX 5 INSTRUCTOR INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (ENG)

Organizational Communication Interview Questions for Instructors

Background Questions

Age:

Gender:

Years of Work Experience:

Position at the SFL:

Transition Questions

1. What are the communication channels you use in your daily life?

    a. How often do you use these channels?

    b. On what purpose(s) do you use these channels?

2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the communication channels you use on your daily life?

3. What is effective communication?

    a. What do you pay attention to in order to communicate effectively?

Organizational Communication

4. Do you think it is important to facilitate organizational communication? Why (not)?

5. What is effective organizational communication?

    a. What is your opinion on the necessity of facilitating effective organizational communication?

    b. Who within the organization is it important to facilitate effective communication?

6. What communication channels do you employ in your organization?

    a. How often do you employ these channels?

    b. For what organizational purposes do you employ these channels?

    c. When you match the employment purposes you have mentioned according to the organizational position, which organizational position uses these channels for what purposes?

7. What is your opinion on employing these channels?

    a. Are there any aspects that you find positive? What?

    b. Are there any aspects that you find negative? What?

      c. What is your opinion on the necessity of the channel(s) for the organization?

8. Do the communication channels used have a role in the effective functioning of the school?

      d. Do they cause any obstacles? How?

      e. Do they provide any conveniences? How?

9. Do you optionally communicate through these channels although you do not have to participate?

      f. If yes, which channel(s) do you employ?

      g. What topics do you use the channel(s) for?

10. Do the communication channels employed and the conveyed information affect your own professional ideas and beliefs? How?

11. Do the communication channels used and the information conveyed give you any ideas about the administration? How?

12. Do the communication channels used and the information conveyed give you any ideas about the planning, implementation and the evaluation phases of the curriculum? How?

13. Do the communication channels used and the information conveyed give you an idea about the quality of English language teaching implementations? How?

14. Can other channel(s) be employed for organizational communication? Why (not)?

15. Do you have any other comments and/or suggestions about the organizational communication in the school?

APPENDIX 6 ADMINISTRATOR INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (ENG)

Organizational Communication Interview Questions for Administrators

<u>**Background Questions**</u>

Age:

Gender:

Years of Work Experience:

Position at the SFL:

<u>**Transition Questions**</u>

1. What are the communication channels you use in your daily life?

    a. How often do you use these channels?

    b. On what purpose(s) do you use these channels?

2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the communication channels you use on your daily life?

3. What is effective communication?

    a. What do you pay attention to in order to communicate effectively?

<u>**Organizational Communication**</u>

4. Do you think it is important to facilitate organizational communication? Why (not)?

5. What is effective organizational communication?

    a. What is your opinion on the necessity of facilitating effective organizational communication?

    b. Who within the organization is it important to facilitate effective communication?

6. What communication channels do you employ in your organization?

    a. For what organizational purposes do you employ these channels?

    b. How often do you employ these channels?

    c. Who within the organization decides on the communication channels to be employed?

7. What is your opinion on employing these channels?

    a. Are there any aspects that you find positive? What?

    b. Are there any aspects that the instructors find positive? What?

    c. Are there any aspects that you find negative? What?

    d. Are there any aspects that the instructors find negative? What?

        i. Do you do something as management to fix the negativities? What?

    e. What is your opinion on the necessity of the channel(s) for the organization?

8. Do the communication channels used have a role in the effective functioning of the school?

    a. Do they cause any obstacles? How?

    b. Do they provide any conveniences? How?

9. Do the communication channels employed and the conveyed information:

    a. reflect your own professional ideas and beliefs? How?

    b. affect your own professional ideas and beliefs? How?

10. Do the communication channels used and the information conveyed give you an idea about the instructors? How?

11. Do the communication channels used and the information conveyed give you an idea about the planning, implementation and the evaluation phases of the curriculum? How?

12. Do the communication channels used and the information conveyed give you an idea about the quality of English language teaching implementations? How?

13. Can other channel(s) be employed for organizational communication? Why (not)?

14. Do you have any other comments and/or suggestions about the organizational communication in the school?

APPENDIX 7 OFFICIAL PERMISSION LETTER TO CONDUCT RESEARCH (ÇOMÜ)

T.C.
ÇANAKKALE ONSEKİZ MART ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü
Bilimsel Araştırma Etik Kurulu

Sayı : E-84026528-050.01.04-2100230149   30.11.2021
Konu : Başvuru İncelenmesi

Sayın Gizem ARSLAN

Yürütücülüğünüzü yapmış olduğunuz 2021-YÖNP-0857 nolu projeniz ile ilgili Bilimsel Araştırmalar Etik Kurulu'nun almış olduğu 25.11.2021 tarih ve 20/45 sayılı kararı aşağıdadır.

Bilgilerinize rica ederim.

KARAR:45- Gizem ARSLAN'ın sorumlu yürütücülüğünü yaptığı "Organizational Effectiveness in relation to Leadership, Organizational Citizenship Behaviours, Teacher Self-Efficacy: The Role of Organizational Communication in a School of Foreign Languages Context (Liderlik, Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışları, Öğretmen Öz yeterliliği açısından Örgütsel Etkililik: Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu Bağlamında Örgütsel İletişimin Rolü)" başlıklı araştırmasının, Bilimsel Araştırmalar Etik Kurul ilkelerine **uygun olduğuna** oy birliği ile karar verilmiştir.

Prof. Dr. Salih Zeki GENÇ
Kurul Başkanı

Bu belge, güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

Belge Doğrulama Kodu: AF9MTM4   Belge Takip Adresi: dogrulama.comu.edu.tr

Adres: Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi Terzioğlu Yerleşkesi Çanakkale   Bilgi için :   Nimet İnal
Telefon No: (0 286) 2180018   Faks No: Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü Etik
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Kep Adresi: comu@hs01.kep.tr

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APPENDIX 8 OFFICIAL PERMISSION LETTER TO CONDUCT RESEARCH
(BEYKENT UNIVERSITY)

BEYKENT ÜNİVERSİTESİ

REKTÖRLÜĞÜ

21.02.2022

Beykent Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu Öğr. Gör. Gizem Arslan'ın **"Organizational Effectiveness in terms of Leadership, Organizational Citizenship Behaviours, Teacher Self-Efficacy: The Role of Organizational Communication in a School of Foreign Languages Context (Liderlik, Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışları, Öğretmen Öz yeterliliği açısından Örgütsel Etkililik: Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu Bağlamında Örgütsel İletişimin Rolü)"** başlıklı akademik çalışmasının uygunluğu, Beykent Üniversitesi Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler için Bilimsel Araştırma ve Yayın Etiği Kurulu tarafından değerlendirilmiş ve onaylanmıştır.

Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler için Bilimsel Araştırma ve Yayın Etiği Kurul Üyeleri

BAŞKAN
Prof.Dr. Akile Reşide GÜRSOY

BAŞKAN YARDIMCISI
Prof. Dr. Cevat GERNİ

ÜYE
Prof. Dr. Evren Ayrancı
(Mazeretli)

ÜYE
Prof. Esin SARIOĞLU

ÜYE
Prof. Dr. Tekin MEMİŞ

ÜYE
Prof. Dr. Ali Vahit TURHAN
(Mazeretli)

ÜYE
Prof. Dr. Oğuz MAKAL

ÜYE
Prof. Dr. Nihat KÜÇÜKSAVAŞ

ÜYE
Prof. Dr. Özgür Ömer ERSİN

APPENDIX 9 INTERVIEW CONSENT FORM (TR)
Çevrim içi Görüşme Onam Formu

Sayın katılımcı,

Yapacağımız çevirim içi mülakat, 'Liderlik, Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışları, Öğretmen Öz yeterliliği açısından Örgütsel Etkililik: Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu Bağlamında Örgütsel İletişimin Rolü' başlıklı yüksek lisans tez çalışmasının bir bölümü için veri elde etmeyi amaçlıyor.

Veri toplamak adına:

1. Bu görüşme görüntülü olarak kaydedilecek ve yazıya dökülecektir.
2. Transkripsiyon bu çalışmanın amaçları çerçevesinde analiz edilecek ve bulgular tezde sunulacaktır.
3. Alıntılar, anonimleştirilmek şartıyla kelimesi kelimesine sunulabilir.

Çalışma kapsamında tüm yanıtlarınız gizli tutulacak ve yalnızca araştırma amacıyla kullanılacaktır. Ayrıca kişisel bilgileriniz kesinlikle üçüncü şahıslarla paylaşılmayacaktır. Mülakata katılmayı ve/veya herhangi bir soruyu yanıtlamayı reddedebilir ve istediğiniz zaman mülakata katılmaktan vazgeçebilirsiniz.

Bu belgeyi imzalayarak görüşmeye gönüllü olarak katıldığınızı ve yukarıdaki koşulları kabul ettiğinizi doğrulamaktasınız.

Vakit ayırdığınız ve değerlendirdiğiniz için teşekkürler.

Gizem ARSLAN

Katılımcı Ad - Soyad: _____

İmza **:** _____

APPENDIX 10 INTERVIEW CONSENT FORM (EN)

Online Interview Consent Form

Dear Participant,

The online interview that we are about to carry out aims to obtain data for a part of the master's thesis study entitled 'Organizational Effectiveness in terms of Leadership, Organizational Citizenship Behaviours, Teacher Self-Efficacy: The Role of Organizational Communication in a School of Foreign Languages Context'.

For the data:

1. This interview will be video-recorded and transcribed.
2. The transcription will be analysed within the purposes of this study and the findings will be presented in the dissertation
3. Quotations may be presented verbatim on the condition that they are anonymized.

All your responses will be kept confidential, and will only be used for research purposes. Also, your personal information will never be shared with third parties. You can decline to take part in the interview and/or answer any questions and are free to stop taking part in the interview at any time.

Signing the paper verifies that you voluntarily participate in the interview and agree with the above conditions.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Gizem ARSLAN

Participant's Name   : _____

Participant's Signature   : _____