

PREDICTORS OF ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION  
OF ENGLISH INSTRUCTORS AT PREPARATORY SCHOOLS

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## **ABSTRACT**

### **PREDICTORS OF ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION OF ENGLISH INSTRUCTORS AT PREPARATORY SCHOOLS**

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The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the socialization of English instructors at preparatory schools of Turkish universities at organization, department and task levels, and various individual (academic degree, teaching experience, length of employment at current work place, job satisfaction, commitment, and self-efficacy) and organizational (type of university, training, work conditions, knowledge sharing) variables.

A pilot study with 225 instructors from four universities was conducted to confirm the validity of Haueter, Macan, and Winter's (2003) Newcomer Socialization Questionnaire (NSQ) adapted into Turkish. Although the results of exploratory factor analysis in the pilot study did not reveal supportive results for the structures in NSQ, results of the confirmatory factor analysis indicated moderate fit for the structures in the scale.

The main study was designed as a correlational study and the participants comprised of 737 English instructors working at 16 public and private universities selected from four cities in Turkey and Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus via cluster sampling. In order to collect the data, an inventory consisting of three parts made up of self-developed and pre-developed scales was utilized. The first part consisted personal questions about education, age, gender and length of employment of the participants.

The second part included questions about training and work conditions of the participants. The items related to training and work conditions were developed by the researchers. The third and final part of the inventory consisted of five separate scales for measuring both the predicted and predictor variables. Turkish adaptation of three-dimensional Organizational Socialization Scale, which was self-developed, and the Turkish version of three-dimensional Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale developed and validated by Çapa, Çakıroğlu, and Sarıkaya,(2005), three-dimensional Organizational Commitment Scale developed and validated by Wasti (1997), Job Satisfaction and Knowledge Sharing scales developed by Kondakçı and Haser (2011), all of which were pre-developed were utilized to measure the predictors of organizational socialization.

Both descriptive and inferential statistics techniques were used for the data analysis. Exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis for the self-developed Organizational Socialization Scale, and confirmatory factor analyses for the pre-developed Teachers' Efficacy Scale, Organizational Commitment Scale, Job Satisfaction Scale and Knowledge Sharing Scale were conducted within the scope of this study. Hierarchical multiple regression analyses was carried out in order to investigate the relationship between organizational socialization and its predictors. Descriptive, inferential and multiple regression statistical analyses were performed by the software PASW Statistics 18 and the confirmatory factor analysis was performed by the software AMOS 18.

The results of the main study revealed that socialization of English instructors to the organization, department, and task are significantly predicted by several organizational and individual variables. Among organizational variables knowledge sharing and training are the most significant ones; and among individual variables, job satisfaction, self-efficacy for instructional strategies, and affective commitment are the most significant ones. In this respect, the practitioners in the field should provide necessary conditions so as to promote and improve knowledge sharing, job satisfaction, appropriate training in the work place, as well as offering opportunities for instructors to improve their self-efficacy as a teacher and satisfaction with the job, which can lead to increase in affective commitment.

**Keywords:** Organizational Socialization, Dimensions of Socialization, Predictors of Socialization, English instructors, Preparatory Schools

## ÖZ

### HAZIRLIK OKULLARINDA GÖREV YAPAN İNGİLİZCE OKUTMANLARININ KURUMSAL SOSYALLEŞMELERİNİN YORDAYICILARI

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Bu çalışmanın amacı Türk üniversitelerinin Hazırlık Okullarında görev yapan okutmanların kuruma, bölüme ve işlerine sosyalleşmeleri ile çeşitli bireysel (akademik derece, öğretmenlik deneyimi, kurumda çalışma süresi, iş tatmini, kurumsal bağlılık, özyeterlik) ve kurumsal (üniversite tipi, eğitim, iş koşulları, bilgi paylaşımı) düzeydeki değişkenler arasındaki ilişkileri incelemek idi.

Haueter, Macan ve Winter (2003) tarafından geliştirilmiş olan ‘Yenigelen Sosyalleşme Ölçeği’nin Türkçe uyarlamasının geçerliği amacı ile dört üniversiteden toplam 224 okutmanın katıldığı bir pilot çalışma yapılmıştır. Pilot çalışmada, açıklayıcı faktör analizinin söz konusu ölçeğe uyumlu sonuç vermemesine rağmen, esas çalışmada doğrulayıcı faktör analizi ölçekdeki yapıya orta derece uyumlu çıkmıştır.

İlişkisel olarak tasarlanan bu çalışmaya Türkiye de dört şehirden ve Kuzey Kıbrıs Türk Cumhuriyeti’nden bir şehirden olmak üzere, 16 devlet ve vakıf üniversitesinden kümeleme yöntemiyle seçilmiş toplam 737 okutman katılmıştır. Veri toplamak amacı ile, araştırmacılar tarafından geliştirilen ve önceden geliştirilmiş ölçeklerden oluşan bir envanter kullanılmıştır. Envanterin birinci kısmında, eğitim, yaş, cinsiyet, iş deneyimi gibi demografik bilgiler içeren sorular bulunmaktadır. İkinci kısımdaki, iş ile ilgili eğitim ve iş koşullarına ilişkin sorular araştırmacılar tarafından geliştirilmiştir. Envanterin üçüncü kısmında yordanan ve yordayıcı değişkenleri ölçen beş ayrı ölçek bulunmaktadır: Araştırmacılar tarafından Türkçe adaptasyonu yapılan üç boyutlu Kurumsal Toplusallaşma Ölçeği, Çapa, Çakıroğlu ve Sarıkaya (2005) tarafından Türkçe

adaptasyonu ve geçerlik çalışması yapılan üç boyutlu Öğretmen Özyeterlik Ölçeği, Wasti (1997) tarafından Türkçe adaptasyonu ve geçerlik çalışması yapılan üç boyutlu Kurumsal Bağlılık Ölçeği, Haser ve Kondakçı (2011) tarafından geliştirilen İş Tatmini ve Bilgi Paylaşımı Ölçekleri, kurumsal örgütlemenin yordayıcılarını belirlemek amacı ile kullanılmıştır.

Çalışmada veri analizi için betimsel ve yordamsal istatistik yöntemleri kullanılmıştır. Çalışma kapsamında, Türkçe adaptasyonu ilk kez yapılan Kurumsal Örgütselleşme Ölçeği için açıklayıcı faktör analizi ve doğrulayıcı faktör analizi yapılmıştır. Türkçe adaptasyonu ve geçerlik çalışmaları daha önceden yapılmış olan Öğretmen Özyeterlik, Kurumsal Bağlılık, İş tatmini ve Bilgi Paylaşımı ölçekleri için doğrulayıcı faktör analizi yapılmıştır. Kurumsal Örgütselleşme ve yordayıcıları arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemek amacı ile hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Betimsel, yordamsal ve regresyon analizleri için PASW 18 programı ve doğrulayıcı faktör analizleri için AMOS 18 programı kullanılmıştır.

Çalışmanın sonuçları, İngilizce okutmanların kuruma, bölüme ve görevlerine örgütselleşmeleri yordayan pek çok kurumsal ve bireysel düzeyde değişken olduğunu göstermiştir. Kurumsal değişkenler arasında bilgi paylaşımı ve mesleki eğitim en belirleyici olanlardır. Bireysel değişkenler arasında ise, iş tatmini, öğretim stratejilerine yönelik özyeterlik ve duygu bağlılığı en belirleyici olanlardır. Bu bağlamda, alandaki ilgili ve yetkililer, iş yerinde bilgi paylaşımı, iş tatmini ve mesleki eğitimi geliştirmek için gerekli koşulları sağlamalı, ve okutmanların öğretmen olarak özyeterliklerini, iş tatminini arttırmaları için olanak sunmalıdır ki, bunları takiben işe duygusal bağlılıkta artış gerçekleşecektir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kurumsal Örgütselleşme, Örgütselleşmenin Boyutları, Örgütselleşmenin Yordayıcıları, İngilizce Okutmanlar, Hazırlık Okulu

*To my inspirational daughter Yasemin  
who has made life so beautiful...*



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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

NSQ: Newcomer Socialization Questionnaire

OSS: Organizational Socialization Scale/Turkish Version

TSES: Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale

SE: Student Engagement

IS: Instructional Strategies

CM: Classroom Management

OCS: Organizational Commitment Scale

JSS: Job Satisfaction Scale

KSS: Knowledge Sharing Scale

EFA: Exploratory Factor Analysis

CFA: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

CFI: Comparative Fit Index

NNFI: Non-Normed Fit Index

PASW: Predictive Analytics Software

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1. Background to the Study

Many scholars in the field of organization science argue that successful socialization of a new employee can determine how less likely an employee is to leave his job voluntarily and how high likely to experience higher job satisfaction and exhibit greater productivity (e.g., Bauer & Green, 1994; Feldman & Arnold, 1983; Kramer, 2010; Schein, 1985). The speed and ease with which individuals “learn the ropes” in organizations they have recently joined are crucial from both the individuals’ and organization’s point of view (Greenberg & Baron, 1993). For new employees, organizational socialization is important since a new member learns the value system, the norms and the required behavior patterns of the organization he is entering. For employers, organizational socialization is important since they can affect the behavior of the people they hire (Champoux, 2011).

Previous research in literature has shown that managers can foster better employee understanding of organizational values, norms and objectives through socialization processes (Kanter, 1988; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Prakash (1995) proposed that an optimum level of fit between individual and organizational values was possible through socialization when the values of the members were integrated with the values of the organization. Similarly, Reichers (1987) stated that organizations generally encourage their members to think and behave in accordance with its goals and values.

For a long period of time, scholarship viewed organizational socialization as a learning process that is primarily the responsibility of the newcomer (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007; Chao, O’Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Holton, 1996, 2001; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979; Wanous, 1992). This view has the prime focus on the newcomers’ adaptation to existing norms; thus, learning becomes a one way transmission of knowledge from organization to individual (Sprogøe &



Rohde, 2009). As a result, studies on newcomer socialization have tried to identify various domains that the newcomer should master to become a full member of the organization. These domains are identified as: (a) performance of tasks, (b) development of working relationships, (c) adoption to the organization's culture, (d) mastering the special language, (e) operating within the formal and informal power structure, (f) appreciating the organization's history (Chao et al., 1994; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992), which will be discussed in the Literature Review. Many researchers based their socialization studies on newcomers' learning these domains.

Acknowledging the importance of learning in socialization process, a more recent view emphasizes two significant factors which are influential in the learning process. One is the interaction between the newcomer and others in the organization (Billett, 2002). Newcomer learning is an effective developmental interaction including personal, relational and communication factors (Eddy, D'Abate, Tannenbaum, Givens-Seaton, & Robinson, 2006). Korte (2009) conceptualized the interaction between people for the purpose of learning a new job as a form of social exchange, through which newcomers try to gain information about various aspects of the workplace from more experienced members in the organization. Wanous (1992) suggested that the success of organization increases as the level of interactions between the newcomers and their environment increases. As the importance of the social interactions in the learning process has become clear, the influence of insiders in the organization affecting the socialization of newcomers has gained attention in organization studies (Korte, 2009). Thus, rather than considering newcomer socialization as the individual responsibility of the newcomer, coworkers and experienced members of the organization are also held responsible for the socialization of newcomers since they may either enable or restrict the integration of newcomers (Korte, 2009). In addition to creation of knowledge, long lasting satisfaction and performance of newcomers in the organization are significantly shaped by the quality of relationships between newcomers and coworkers, who form the work group (Schwandt, Ayvaz, & Gorman, 2006).

The second factor deemed influential in the learning process is the role of the individual. Trowler and Knight (1999, p. 185) proposed that "newcomers need to be seen as active agents in the process of socialization." They bring their own personality (Feldman, 1981), past experience and values to the job. It is important to

note that newcomers develop their own strategies for coping with uncertainty (Teboul, 1984) and struggle to construct a workable identity (Trowler & Knight, 1999) while trying to learn how to perform the task, to establish relationships in the work group and to adopt to the new culture. Previous experience in the job and prior knowledge about the new work place positively influence the learning in the new work place (Wanous, 1992). Also, extroverted personality is a cause of success in the learning process in the new environment (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Thus, the role of the individual as an active agent in the learning process during socialization has received interest in literature.

Considering the factors which are influential in the learning process, a postmodern view of socialization argues that socialization should not be thought of a series of learning “that occur in unchanging context irrespective of individual and group identity” (Tierney, 1997, p. 7). Individuals do not simply acquire static knowledge about the task, workgroups, culture, special language, power structure and history of the organization they have recently joined. As Tierney (1997, p. 7) suggested “organizational socialization is not simply a planned sequence of learning activities where recruits learn one fact and then another.” Instead, socialization of newcomers and developing a professional identity is a dynamic process affected by individual and organizational level factors (Kondakçı & Ataman, 2012). However, literature review reveals that various studies in the field investigate various aspects of socialization. Some of the studies are based on the content of socialization process (Feldman, 1981; Fisher, 1986; Schein, 1968), while some others are based on internal and external environment affecting the process (e.g., De Vos, 2002). Still, some others are based on the process itself (e.g., Ibarra, 1999). As socialization is a dynamic and complex process, it would be insufficient to investigate content, context and process dimensions of socialization through a homogenous theoretical perspective. In this sense, various scholars used various theoretical perspectives complementing each other in their studies, which have been built upon some solid theoretical perspectives.

### **Theoretical Perspectives about Socialization**

Saks and Ashforth (1997) claimed that despite a great deal of research in organizational socialization in recent years, a ‘theory’ of organizational socialization

does not exist; instead, various theoretical perspectives, such as *Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) model of socialization tactics, uncertainty reduction theory, social cognitive theory and cognitive sense making* have guided research in organizational socialization. In addition, *Feldman's stages of socialization* supplies another fundamental theoretical perspective about the topic.

Van Maanen and Schein (1979) proposed a theoretical explanation of how methods of socialization influence role orientation, which is a particular outcome of socialization. Their theoretical explanation is made up of six bipolar tactics used by organizations to help newcomers adjust to their new jobs. Defined as group versus individual, formal versus informal, sequential versus non-sequential, serial versus disjunctive, investiture versus divestiture, fixed versus variable, these tactics shape the role orientation of newcomers and their adjustment to the organization (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Jones (1986) suggested that these six bipolar tactics could be reduced to a single dimension as *institutionalized* versus *individualized* socialization tactics, and that group, formal, sequential, serial, investiture and fixed tactics help newcomers reduce the uncertainty and encourage them to accept their roles, promoting a custodial role orientation among newcomers. On the other hand, individual, informal, non-sequential, disjunctive, divestiture and variable tactics enable newcomers to develop their own approaches to their roles, promoting an innovative role orientation. Institutionalized socialization tactics lead to higher levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction among newcomers whereas individualized socialization tactics lead to lower levels of commitment (Greenberg & Baron, 1993). Saks and Ashforth (1997, p. 236) regards "Van Maanen and Schein's typology of socialization tactics to be probably the closest thing in the literature to a testable theory of organizational socialization since it delineates a set of interrelated theoretical propositions about the structure and outcome of organizational socialization processes."

Another theoretical perspective guiding research in socialization studies is uncertainty reduction theory developed by Berger and Calabrese (1975). This theory assumes that when individuals feel lack of predictability, they seek information since feeling of uncertainty is uncomfortable (Kramer, 2010). Newcomer experience is believed to be high in uncertainty since they lack enough knowledge about their roles and jobs, in addition to the organization's norms and culture, and how to relate to

other organizational members (Morrison, 1995). Both Van Maanen and Schein (1979), and Louis (1980) suggested that reducing uncertainty is the major goal of newcomers. Berger (1979) further developed uncertainty management theory by identifying two different types of uncertainty: cognitive uncertainty, which refers to inability to predict motives, and behavioral uncertainty, which refers to inability to predict actions. Later, Berger and Bradac (1982) identified three different types of uncertainty; two of which are similar to the previous classification although the terms used appear to be different, but descriptive uncertainty was added, which is inability to describe an individual. Berger (1979) found that uncertainty can be reduced by means of an interactive strategy, which is directly communicating with superiors and peers who are considered to be the source of uncertainty.

Bandura's (1986; 1997) social cognitive theory and self-efficacy theory form another theoretical basis in socialization research. Social cognitive theory explains psychosocial functioning in terms of triadic reciprocal causation, in which behavior, cognitive and other personal factors, and environmental events interact and influence each other bidirectionally (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Vicarious learning and mastery modeling, goal systems and self-regulatory mechanisms are three aspects of social cognitive theory relevant for organizational functioning (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Self-efficacy theory, which is viewed as an important component of self-regulatory mechanism, identifies four sources of information influencing one's beliefs to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources and courses of action required to comply with the expectations of situational demands. Four sources of information are enactive mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological and affective states (Bandura, 1986; 1997).

Bandura's social cognitive theory has been widely referred to with the purpose of analyzing the socialization process. Self-efficacy has been found as a direct, moderating and mediating variable in various studies (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Self-efficacy has also been found to be positively related to newcomers' ability to cope, job satisfaction, organizational and career commitment, and job performance (Bauer & Green, 1994; Saks, 1994; 1995). Further to his study to examine the role of self-efficacy in training and newcomer adjustment, Saks (1995) stated that increased amount of training was most beneficial for newcomers with low

self-efficacy at job onset whereas early job training did not have a strong impact on the work adjustment of newcomers with high self-efficacy.

Another theoretical perspective guiding research in socialization, sense making, is a thinking process occurring when newcomers attempt to interpret and ascribe meanings to surprises as they interact with insiders, attributional processes, and the alteration of cognitive scripts (Louis, 1980; Reichers, 1987). Sense making process is critical while newcomers develop attitudes and behaviors to function effectively in the new work environment since this process enables them to find a harmony between their expectation and reality (Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998; Morrison, 1993; Saks & Ashforth, 1997).

Sense making is similar to uncertainty reduction attempts as both are concerned with how individuals understand and assign meaning to experiences; however, they are different “in terms of how they view the process of assigning meaning” (Kramer, 2010, p. 13). As Weick (1995) stated, sense making involves retrospectively creating meaning to understand experiences. Weick (1995) stated that sense making is an interactive, intersubjective process and “individuals create agreed-upon meanings for experiences through communication” (Kramer, 2010, p. 14). Yet, when individuals fail to seek further information, they may assign inaccurate meanings to explain actions of others (Kramer, 2010). Finally, sense making involves creating an identity as individuals assign meaning to their past experiences (Weick, 2001). Sense making is a significant theoretical perspective to analyze how individuals assign meaning to their experiences during organizational socialization process (Kramer, 2010).

Feldman’s stages of socialization is another fundamental theoretical perspective guiding research in socialization studies. Feldman (1976) proposed three stages in the socialization process, and identified the types of activities individuals go through in each stage. The types of activities in each stage as identified by Feldman (1976) are process variables which indicate how successful socialization is. The first stage, Anticipatory Socialization, includes what individuals learn before they join the organization (Van Maanen, 1975). The information they gather determines the basis for their expectations about the organization and the specific jobs. Information gathered in this stage can be obtained from various sources, ranging from family and friends to the hiring procedure (Greenberg & Baron, 1993). ‘Realism’ and

'congruence' are the process variables in this stage. If individuals have formed a clear picture about the organization, and if there is a mutual fit between individuals and the organization, socialization in this stage is considered successful. Accommodation is the second stage of socialization in Feldman's model (1976), referring to the period when individuals get a clear idea about what the organization is like and when they assume their new duties. According to Feldman (1976), there are four process variables to indicate the success of socialization at this stage, which are initiation to the task, initiation to the group, role definition, and congruence of evaluation. The success of socialization in this stage is decided by measuring whether newcomers feel confident and welcomed. Additionally, whether newcomers are clear about the requirements of the task, and have mutually similar beliefs in this respect between themselves and the management are also indicators of successful socialization. The third stage of socialization is Role Management in Feldman's (1976) model. At this stage, individuals are expected to be able manage conflicts both between their work and family commitment, and between their own work group and groups in the organization, which form the process variables to measure the success of socialization (Feldman, 1976). Although this model of Feldman may tend to represent socialization process as a linear progression (Kramer, 2010), as stated by Feldman (1981), there is continuity between these stages and they overlap.

Being a complex and continuous process, organizational socialization of a newcomer can be studied by referring to various theoretical perspectives complementing each other, and thus, through a heterogeneous theoretical perspective to focus on the content, context and process dimensions of socialization. Accordingly, the major focus of this study was to investigate the relationship between organizational socialization and various organizational (type of university, training, work conditions, knowledge sharing) and individual (academic degree, teaching experience, length of employment at current work place, job satisfaction, commitment, self-efficacy) level factors, both factors taken together focusing on the content, context and process dimensions of socialization.

## **1.2. Purpose of the Study**

Organizational socialization and induction practices in higher education are significant to be investigated as a separate entity as higher education institutions are different from business organizations. Birnbaum (1988) proposed that higher education institutions are managed much differently from most organizations, and thus, they have a distinctive culture. What creates this difference unique to higher education institutions is that there is a dual leadership which exists between faculty and administration, causing uncertainty over the types of leadership sources (Birnbaum, 1988). The other cause for the difference is the multiple missions of teaching, research and service (Birnbaum, 1988). However, newcomer socialization has been mainly the focus of concern in the fields of psychology and management. Despite its unique fashion, faculty socialization has not been adequately investigated in the field of higher education management.

Additionally, new responsibilities, multiple career identities, and the complexity of the new environment faced by the academic staff make socialization in higher education worth being studied as a separate entity. As they start their new careers, new academic staff generally benefit from anticipatory socialization (Van Maanen, 1976), but mostly as a researcher, not as a teacher (Trowler & Knight, 1999). However, teaching is an equally important concern, and not being satisfactorily equipped for it creates tension for the new faculty members who are already dealing with various adjustment problems. In addition to research and teaching, new academic staff is also expected to take managerial responsibilities and community service (Colbeck, 2008). While new academic staff tries to perform their roles in research, teaching and service, they need to establish a balance among them (Kondakçı & Ataman, 2012).

During the socialization process, teachers change by gaining experience. Teacher socialization showed that they experience a change in being a member of teaching staff and their progress in teaching career (Özkan, 2005). Teacher socialization does not end when teachers start their job since they need to experience change continuously, undertake responsibilities and strive to progress. Thus, socialization is a continuous process in teaching career (Lacey, 1998). Similarly, Feldman (1989), and Morrison and Hock (1986) stated that socialization is a lifelong

process existing throughout one's entire career. In this respect, the sampling in this study includes both newcomer and experienced instructors. The participants in the scope of this study are English instructors who do not feel the tension of research and tenure as strongly as other faculty members. However, the competitive university environment, long teaching hours, and demanding students make it equally stressful for them, too. Increasing number of English-medium universities being founded in Turkey creates an increasing demand for English instructors to teach in preparatory schools of universities. The success rate of students throughout their university education is significantly related to their English language competency gained during their preparatory school education since English is either the medium for teaching or has a significant role in these universities. Most English instructors hired to meet the increasing demand are new graduates, who may soon become competent teachers through successful organizational socialization practices.

Teachers need to experience a successful organizational socialization process so as to have increased organizational commitment and job satisfaction, which in turn, shall increase their performance in teaching and student success. However, reducing turnover rate and retaining teachers is difficult if their socialization process is not satisfactory enough (Wharton, Potter, & Parry, 2004). Studies show that faculty believes their quality of work life has declined (Johnsrud & Heck, 1998) and that they reveal dissatisfaction and disappointment with their institution (Boyer, Altbach, & Whitelaw, 1994), so higher education institutions face an increasing pressure to retain faculty. Organizational socialization serves several functions in this respect. It enhances organizational commitment, teaches members the culture, rules and procedures of the institution. It gives individuals the chance to know each other and build relationships (Wharton et al., 2004). Owing to the concerns above and due to the fact that there is a gap in literature with respect to socialization of academic staff considering its content, context and process dimensions, a study in the socialization of academic staff focusing on its three dimensions is important since successful socialization of instructors has positive impacts both on the efficiency of the higher education institution and psychological well-being of the newcomer (Kondakçı & Ataman, 2012). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate organizational and individual level predictors of organization, department and task socialization of English instructors at Turkish universities.



Specifically, this study attempted to analyze the following research questions:

- How well do individual (academic degree, teaching experience, length of employment at current work place, job satisfaction, commitment, and self-efficacy) and organizational (type of university, training, work conditions, knowledge sharing) level factors predict organization socialization of English instructors at Turkish universities?
- How well do individual (academic degree, teaching experience, length of employment at current work place, job satisfaction, commitment, and self-efficacy) and organizational (type of university, training, work conditions, knowledge sharing) level factors predict department socialization of English instructors at Turkish universities?
- How well do individual (academic degree, teaching experience, length of employment at current work place, job satisfaction, commitment, and self-efficacy) and organizational (type of university, training, work conditions, knowledge sharing) level factors predict task socialization of English instructors at Turkish universities?

### **1.3. Significance of the Study**

It is evident that organizational socialization has received a lot of interest by scholars and numerous research studies have been carried out, focusing on various dimensions of socialization process; some with focus on the content of socialization process (e.g., Feldman, 1981; Fisher, 1986; Schein, 1968), some others with focus on the internal and external environment that affect the socialization process (e.g., De Vos, 2002), and yet some others being focused on the socialization process (e.g., Ibarra, 1999). All these studies contributed significantly to the related literature from their perspective of approach; however, each seems to have investigated a certain aspect of the same phenomenon without considering the other aspects. Thus, the theoretical perspectives discussed above have not been integrated. Therefore, the obtained knowledge is hardly holistic (Kondakçı & Ataman, 2012). As Kramer (2010, p. 10) stated “much of the research is descriptive, consisting of typologies and explanations, but lacking any coherent theoretical perspective to explain the overall process.”

Organizational socialization of newcomers is shaped by individual and organizational level factors in three dimensions of socialization; namely, content, process and environment, which makes organizational socialization of newcomers a complex and dynamic process (Kondakçı & Ataman, 2012). Complex and dynamic nature of socialization process has been partially studied by some scholars. For example, Ibarra (1999) focused on process dimension of newcomer socialization in his quantitative study, and concluded that socialization process develops by going through a continuous change. De Vos (2002) investigated the content dimension of newcomer socialization in her longitudinal qualitative study. However, no studies have been carried out, investigating both the socialization process itself and the factors that affect the process (Kondakçı & Ataman, 2012). In this respect, this study aimed at contributing to literature.

Organizational socialization of faculty has also received considerable interest for research (e.g., Bogler & Kremer-Hayon, 1999; Murray, 2008; Tierney, 1997; Trowler & Knight, 2000; Wharton et al., 2004). In literature, there are studies to investigate the relationship between various socialization tactics employed by the organizations and the personal outcomes. There are also studies about information provided by organizations through their socialization practices that may influence the way newcomers adjust to the organizations. Additionally, there are studies indicating that newcomers' levels of self-efficacy may moderate the effects of these socialization practices on their subsequent role orientations. As well as newcomer socialization in corporations, quite a few of these studies are concerned with newcomer socialization in elementary schools, high schools and universities. However, preparatory schools of universities in Turkey have a distinctive role, functioning like a bridge between high school and university. Thus, English instructors at preparatory schools regard themselves neither as high school teachers because they work in a considerably more autonomous environment, nor as a member of faculty as they do not have an opportunity for academic degree advancement. Yet, when literature is reviewed, it is noted that rather limited research studies have been carried out to investigate the organizational socialization of English instructors at universities. This study was expected to contribute organizational socialization literature by identifying the relationship between the socialization of English instructors in Turkish universities at organization,

department and task dimensions, and various organizational and individual level factors.

In terms of research, for this study Newcomer Socialization Scale (NSQ) of Haueter, Macan, and Winter (2003) was adapted into Turkish for the first time and a pilot study was carried out for reliability and validity analysis, which is expected to contribute to literature as further research studies may consider using it. Haueter et al. (2003) aimed at better understanding the socialization process as they claim to consider the relationships among the direct outcomes of being socialized, in addition to different socialization tactics, individual differences and organizational factors. To justify the need for adapting NSQ, the authors stated that earlier scales measured mainly the secondary outcomes of socialization like job satisfaction and commitment instead of its direct outcomes like learning, inclusion and assimilation (Haueter, Macan, & Winter, 2003).

Finally, in practice, this study raises the issue of considering all three dimensions of organizational socialization process of English instructors in Turkish universities so that effective induction programs are prepared by institutions. Boice (1992, p. 3) found that new faculty members describe their initiation period as a time of "avoidance, distress, and unproductive beginning." Organizations can do at least two things to ensure that initiation period runs smoothly and effectively both for the newcomer and the organization. First, organizations can make a genuine effort to become aware of and understand their own organizational socialization practices. Greater awareness and understanding of these practices should lead to more rational choices as to which practices to encourage and which to de-emphasize (Trowler & Knight, 1999). Second, organizations need to appreciate the delicate problems which exist both for the newcomers and for their managers in the early years of the career when socialization pressures are at the maximum (Trowler & Knight, 1999). This study extends these suggestions by defining the role of several individual and organizational level variables in the process of socialization.

Combined with other findings in the literature, the outcomes of the study contribute to development of socialization programs for new faculty members by helping institutions define major and minor policies for selection, recruitment and retention of faculty members in higher education organizations. Besides, this study invites organizations to revise their induction programs with a more sophisticated

approach than corporate structural-functional perspective, including postmodernism and other perspectives which emphasize ‘social agency’ as newcomers need to be seen as active agents in the process of socialization.

#### **1.4. Definition of Terms**

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

*Organizational socialization* refers to the process through which a new employee adapts from outsider to integrated and effective insider (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006). In this study, three dimensions of organizational socialization, namely, organization socialization, department socialization and task socialization, are measured through Organizational Socialization Scale (OSS), which was adapted from Newcomers Socialization Scale (NSQ) of Haueter et al. (1999) .

*Newcomer* refers to faculty members who have been working in their institution for three-four years needed to feel themselves part of the institution (Boice, 1991). İshakoğlu (1998, p. 69) describes newcomers as those who have been working in their institutions for five years. In this study, newcomers refer to instructors who have been employed in their current institution for a maximum length of five years.

*Knowledge sharing* involves the transfer or dissemination of knowledge from one person or group to another” (Chieu Hsu, 2008), which can improve an organization’s competitiveness. In this study, it was measured through Knowledge Sharing Scale (KSS).

*Job satisfaction* refers to an affective reaction to one’s job (Locke, 1976) that results from situational factors and organizational environment (Gerhart, 1987). In this study, it was measured through Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS).

*Organizational commitment* is a psychological state explaining the attachment between the employee and the organization, which is influential on employees’ stay or leave decisions from their employed organizations (Meyer & Allen, 1997). In this study, three dimensions of organizational commitment, which are affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment are measured through Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS).

*Self-efficacy* refers to “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations” (Bandura, 1986, p.3).

*Teacher efficacy* refers to “the teacher’s beliefs in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context” (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998, p.22). In this study, three dimensions of teachers’ efficacy; namely, efficacy for student engagement, efficacy for instructional strategies, and efficacy for classroom management are measured through Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES).

*Work Conditions* refer to the additional financial benefits, and social, medical and recreation facilities that instructors benefit from in their organization, in addition to their regular salary.

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

This chapter presents a comprehensive review of the literature on organizational socialization, organizational commitment, self-efficacy, knowledge sharing, job satisfaction, and newcomer training and mentoring. This chapter is organized under seven main parts. In the first part, definition of organizational socialization is made, and its historical development, dimensions, and traditional view of organizational socialization in higher education are presented in details. In the second part, definition of organizational commitment, organizational commitment as a uni-dimensional and multi dimensional construct, and research carried out in organizational commitment are depicted broadly. In the third part, definition of self-efficacy, its impact on teachers, and the related research are presented. In the fourth part, definition of knowledge sharing, types of knowledge, its impact on organization and socialization, and previous research on knowledge sharing are discussed in details. In the fifth part, definition and antecedents of job satisfaction, the relation between socialization and job satisfaction, and the related research are presented extensively. In the sixth part, the relation between training and socialization, the relation between self-efficacy and training, the relation between mentoring and socialization, and the related research studies are discussed in details. In the final part of the chapter, individual and organizational level factors affecting the organizational socialization of English instructors at Turkish universities are discussed within the summary of literature.

#### **2.1. Organizational Socialization**

The initial period of newcomers in the organization is considered as the most crucial period (De Vos, 2002; Ibarra, 1999). During this period, newcomers try to understand the new work environment and to evaluate whether they can adjust to this environment (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). While learning technical knowledge to enable them to perform efficiently through formal and informal means,

they also try to acquire the culture in the new organization that incorporates values, customs, language and philosophy of the organization so that their transition can be smooth (Haser & Kondakçı, 2011). The importance of the initial period in the organization is further emphasized with the fact that the experience in this period shapes the future career of the newcomer. In case of negative experience during this period, newcomers may tend to quit their job, which is rather costly for the organization in terms of finance and human resource (Haser & Kondakçı, 2011). On the other hand, successful organizational socialization has an impact on the professional identity to be developed by the newcomers and the extent that this professional identity matches with the organization (Kondakçı & Ataman, 2012). In this respect, the success of newcomer socialization process benefits both the individual and the organization (Ibarra, 1999; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Newcomer socialization is not simply applying the knowledge and experience obtained during university education to get prepared for work environment. It also involves adopting the rules, norms, customs, attitudes and values in the new environment, as well as contributing to them (Fisher, 1986). Technical dimension of newcomer socialization involves making efficient use of qualifications and competencies, and social dimension of socialization involves adjusting to norms and rules in the new environment (Kondakçı & Ataman, 2012), which guide the newcomer about how to act (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Newcomer socialization can also be defined as learning and adopting the culture of the organization since it involves internalizing the customs, values, attitudes, norms and social rules in the organization, which form the base of the organizational culture (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Socialization is significant for the individual as it helps reduce uncertainty, considerably reducing the fear of failure and intention to quit. It is significant for the organization as it reduces the cost of newcomer's learning the job and creates a positive work environment.

### **2.1.1. Definition of Organizational Socialization**

Organizational socialization is a powerful and critical process during which newcomers are transformed from total outsiders to effective and participating members of the organization by adjusting to a new organization, new job and new

groups of people. New skills, knowledge, abilities, attitudes, values, relationships and appropriate sense-making frameworks are developed in organizational socialization process (Chao et al., 1994; De Vos, Buyens, & Schalk, 2003; Louis, 1980; Thomas & Anderson, 1998). Several organizational behaviorists have studied and explored various aspects of organizational socialization focusing on its differing dimensions. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) defined organizational socialization as the process by which an individual learns the norms, beliefs, values, attitudes and language characteristics of an organization. This definition presents two ideas about organizational socialization. One is related to the individual aspect attributing primary responsibility to the newcomer to learn to fit in as a successful member of the organization. The other is related to the organization aspect expecting the newcomer to learn and successfully perform the norms, beliefs, values, attitudes and language characteristics of the organization. Thus, an interactionist perspective of both the individual and the organization has influence on the socialization process (Reichers, 1987).

Jablin (1982, p. 276) defined organizational socialization as “the process by which organizational members become a part of, or absorbed into, the culture of an organization.” This definition regards newcomers’ organizational socialization like assimilation, which is the extent to which an organization is able to change an individual to meet their expectations. Organization regarded dominant and newcomer seen passive, Tierney (1997, pp. 4-5) criticized this process stating “if the purpose of socialization is assimilation, then those who do not learn the correct way to assimilate will have failed.”

Schein (1968, p. 2) defined organizational socialization as “the process of *learning the ropes*, being indoctrinated and trained, and being taught what is important in the organization.” Similar to Jablin’s definition, Schein’s definition also regards organizational socialization as shaping the newcomer to fit into the new environment. Several other researchers’ definition of organizational socialization is similar in the sense that they mainly focus on shaping the newcomer. For example, Black and Ashford (1995) defined it as fitting-in of the newcomer, and Hall and Schneider (1972) defined it as adaptation and accommodation of the newcomer. Reichers (1987) noted that organizations encourage their members to think and behave in accordance with the goals and values of the organization. Similarly,



Chatman (1991) observed that during the first year of the newcomer in the organization, socialization experiences contributed to the person-organization fit. Additionally, Mortimer and Lorence (1979); and Kohn and Schooler (1978) remarked that occupational socialization affected individual characteristics and individual values. Thus, organizations socialize their new members by creating a series of events which serve the function of undoing old values so that the person will be prepared to learn the new values. This process is often unpleasant and requires either strong motivation to endure it or strong organizational forces to make the person endure it (Kolb, Rubin, & Mc Intyre, 1974). As seen in these definitions and perspectives, organizational socialization has been viewed as a learning process which is mainly the responsibility of the newcomer (Korte, 2009).

While reconsidering organizational socialization, Tierney (1997, p. 6) claimed that “socialization involves a give-and-take where individuals make sense of an organization through their own unique backgrounds and the current contexts in which the organization resides.” As they join a new work environment, individuals bring their unique background and insight to the organization, and their attributes need to be taken into consideration for effective socialization instead of having individuals fit into predetermined norms (Tierney, 1993). Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, and Tucker (2007), and Saks, Uggerslev, and Fassina (2007) analyzed the relationships among the variables of organizational socialization in two separate meta-analyses, and found that the ‘way’ newcomers learn during the organizational socialization process significantly affects their job satisfaction, role clarity, organizational commitment, and intention to quit. Additionally, it was found in both analyses that training and mentoring, along with recognizing and accepting the newcomer’s identity were the strongest predictors of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and retention (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007); and Saks, Uggerslev, & Fassina (2007).

As seen in the definitions above, much of the organizational socialization literature “adopts a perspective which aligned with institutional interests, concerns and values rather than those of the individual” (Trowler & Knight, 1999, p. 181). Therefore, it is vital for organizations to be aware of the importance of individual aspect of socialization and how individuals learn.

### 2.1.2. Historical Development of Organizational Socialization Research

Five theoretical perspectives mentioned in the introduction part that have guided research in organizational socialization stem from the theories developed by Schein and Feldman, as presented in Figure 2.1. Schein (1971) theorized that socialization was the effect of organization on the individual, following which socialization was investigated from the organization's perspective. The related research aimed at identifying and describing the organizational characteristics, which are believed to have an impact on newcomer socialization (Van Maanen, 1978; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979), and consequently, Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) widely referred theoretical explanation made up of six bipolar tactics for successful adjustment of newcomers to their jobs was developed. Later, Jones (1986) categorized these tactics into two separate poles, which were identified as formal-institutional on one pole, and informal-collective on the other pole. Following Jones' (1986) categorization of organization tactics, researchers attempted to investigate the impact of these tactics on various indicators of socialization. Allen and Meyer (1990) found that formal-institutional tactics predicted organizational commitment. Likewise, Ashforth and Saks (1996) concluded that these tactics also predicted job satisfaction, and intent to remain. In the same study, they also found that informal-individual tactics predicted performance.

Schein (1971) also theorized that the organization shapes the individual's response to an organizationally defined role, based on which subsequent research on socialization content investigated the concepts of *organization* and *role* in socialization studies. Schein (1968) defined role as the responsibilities given to the newcomer, based on which Morrison (1993) concluded that the role of newcomers require them to learn about others' expectations.

On the other hand, Feldman (1981) proposed an integrated process model of newcomer socialization, by identifying specific contextual characteristics of three socialization phases, which are anticipatory socialization, encounter, and change and acquisition. This theory of Feldman (1981) influenced contextual socialization research. Following Feldman's (1981) theory, various organizational socialization models have been proposed in the related literature; however, the commonality in each model is that there are three phases: pre-entry, entry and change (Kramer,

2010). During the pre-entry phase, i.e. organizational anticipatory socialization, individuals anticipate taking a post in the organization, and establish their expectations about the organization and the potential specific job by obtaining information from a variety of sources. The second phase starts when an individual becomes a member in the organization assuming his organizational role. During this phase, newcomers learn how to perform their jobs and how to connect to co-workers as they learn the organization's norms and culture (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). At this stage, individuals unlearn their old habits and behaviors, and acquire those which are considered mainstream in the new workplace (Greenberg & Baron, 1993). In the final phase, individuals change from being a newcomer to an established organizational member. In this settling-in phase, individuals make complete and perpetual adjustments to their jobs, and resolve conflicts both at work and family environments (Greenberg & Baron, 1993). It is difficult to determine when an individual moves from the second phase to the third one as this change is a psychological one which occurs when one no longer considers himself newcomer in the organization (Kramer, 2010).

In addition to his integrated process model of newcomer socialization, Feldman (1981) also created awareness about the importance of one's work group during socialization. In his work, Feldman (1981) stated that learning about one's work group has a significant influence in the socialization process, which he explained in terms of acquiring knowledge. Similar to Schein, Feldman also used the term 'role', but different from Schein, he defined it as 'work group role,' which entails clarification of the individuals' role in the work group, and being in accordance with the group members about the efficient completion of tasks (Feldman, 1981). Based on these theories of Schein and Feldman, several researchers have defined and measured socialization using one or more of the dimensions of *organization*, *role*, *group* and *task*. To illustrate, Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992), and Morrison (1993) used all four dimensions to measure newcomer socialization. However, Fisher (1986) and Chao et al. (1994) referred to organization, group, and task domains of socialization in their studies. Due to this inconsistent use of dimensions to define socialization, there have been various approaches in the measurement of this construct, to be discussed under the following heading.

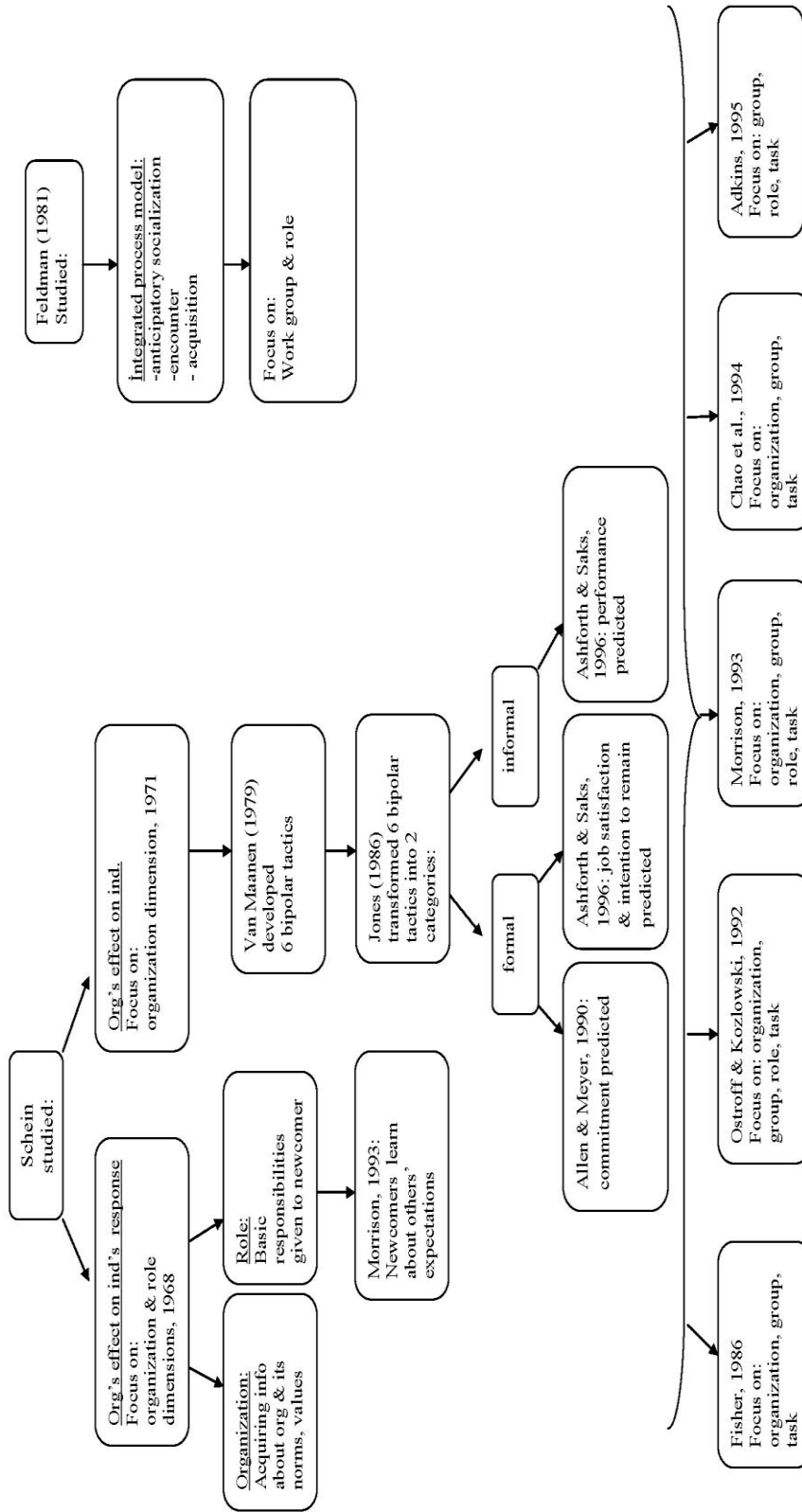


Figure 2.1 Theories developed by Schein and Feldman, forming the base for socialization studies

### 2.1.3. Dimensions of Newcomer Socialization

Literature review suggests that there is agreement among researchers about the content of socialization; however, there is evidence of disagreement among researchers about the dimensions of socialization (Haueter, 1999), which has led to various approaches to measure organizational socialization. One widespread approach is the one adopted by the authors of NSQ who claimed that previous studies measured mainly secondary outcomes of socialization such as job satisfaction and commitment (Haueter et al., 2003). With the aim of addressing the previously noted shortcomings in organizational socialization research, while developing NSQ, Haueter et al. (2003) focused on mainly three specific concerns: consistent inclusion of different levels of analysis (job, work group, organization) within specific dimensions, the assessment of prevailing knowledge with sufficient coverage of the role, and differentiation between task socialization and job performance. While developing three-dimensional measurement scale of newcomer socialization, which is based on the socialization theories of Schein (1968) and Feldman (1981), Haueter et al. (1999) considered that socialization does not only include obtaining knowledge about the organization, work group, and task, but it also requires knowledge about how to behave in these dimensions. Thus, *role* dimension was measured within each of these domains, not as a separate one (Haueter et al., 1999). Haueter (1999) did construct validation of this three-dimensional measurement scale of newcomer socialization with her advisor Macan in her Ph.D. thesis and provided initial evidence of construct validity for the Newcomer Socialization Scale, the Turkish adaptation of which is used in this study. Haueter (1999) states that three dimensions, namely organization, group and task, are relevant dimensions of socialization. The indicators of socialization in each dimension can be identified as following:

Newcomers are socialized to the organization when they learn the values, goals, rules, politics, customs, leadership style, and language of the organization (Chao et al., 1994; Fisher, 1986; Morrison, 1993; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992; Schein, 1968). Additionally, they are supposed to obtain a clear understanding about the types of behaviors consistent with the goals and values of the organization (Haueter, 1999).

Newcomers are socialized to the group when they learn to function adequately as a group member. Group socialization is defined as newcomers' learning particulars about their work group as well as learning the behaviors associated with the group's rules, goals, and values (Feldman, 1981; Fisher, 1986; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). In order to socialize to the group, newcomers need to learn how each group member contributes to the objectives of the group, and what is expected from them as a group member and how they can contribute to group goals in accordance with the group procedures (Feldman, 1981).

Task socialization involves acquiring task knowledge, learning how to perform expected task behaviors while also learning how to interact with others as specific tasks are performed (Adkins, 1995; Chao et al., 1994; Feldman, 1981; Fisher, 1986; Morrison, 1993; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). Newcomers need to learn which tasks are their responsibilities, how they can perform them, which task is to be given priority, and where they can obtain necessary supplies to perform the task (Breugh & Colihan, 1994; Morrison, 1993; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). While developing NSQ, Haueter et al. (2003) considered these indicators of socialization.

On the other hand, another widely used measurement of socialization is the one developed by Chao et al. (1994). In their study, Chao et al. (1994) developed a questionnaire to measure six dimensions of socialization: performance proficiency, politics, language, people, organizational goals/values, and history. These six dimensions of organizational socialization were conceptualized and developed following a review of the socialization literature with a focus on elaborating the content dimension, and the conceptual framework for their study was based on the content areas which are considered to be within the control of the organization. The indicators of socialization in each dimension can be identified as following:

*Performance Proficiency:* The extent of knowledge individuals learn to perform the task involved in the job indicates individual's socialization in this dimension (Feldman, 1981; Fisher, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). As stated by Feldman (1981), high motivation of the individual is of no use for success unless he has enough job skills. Although education and previous job experience of the individual are indirectly related to organizational socialization, identifying what needs to be learned and the extent an individual learns the required knowledge and skills are directly affected by the socialization process.

*People:* The extent of acceptance of an individual's social skills and behaviors by other organizational members represents socialization in this dimension. The extent of acceptance is influenced by the personality traits, group dynamics, sharing similar interests, which may be either work-related or non work-related, and clearly defined organizational relationships (Chao et al., 1994). Thus, finding the right people to learn about the organization, work groups, and task is crucial (Fisher, 1986).

*Politics:* Gaining information about formal and informal work relationships and power structures in the organization indicates the individual's success in being socialized in terms of organizational politics (Chao et al., 1994) Also, learning to deal with political behavior (Fisher, 1986), and learning effective behavior patterns for the new role represent political dimension of organizational socialization (Schein, 1986).

*Language:* Knowledge of technical language related to the job, and specific jargon and acronyms which are related to the job or organization indicates individual's socialization in this dimension (Chao et al., 1994).

*Organizational Goals and Values:* Knowledge of formal-written rules and principles in the organization along with knowledge of informal-tacit goals and values which are shared within the higher level members in the organization represent socialization in the dimension of organizational goals and values.

*History:* Knowledge of traditions, customs, myths, and rituals in the organization along with knowledge about the personal background of key people in the organization indicates the individual's socialization in this dimension (Chao et al., 1994). Similarly, Fisher (1986) also emphasized the significance of knowledge about history of the organization to learn about key organizational principles.

Different measures of organizational socialization were developed in relation to various approaches in terms of dimensions of socialization. Three-dimensional socialization measurement by Haueter et al. (1999) has been adapted to Turkish for the first time within the scope of this study.

#### **2.1.4. Traditional View of Socialization in Higher Education**

Traditional form of socialization of newcomers is designed to facilitate the entry of new recruits to an organization and to equip them to operate effectively within it (Trowler & Knight, 1999). It involves formal induction programs that begin at the recruitment stage and continue into employment. Such programs can be in the form of one-to-one discussions and formal group presentations in order to ensure effective integration of newcomers into the organization. Mentoring arrangements, supplying handbooks and social events are also frequently made use of within traditional form of socialization, but they are expected to be appropriate for all different types of staff, trying to mould the newcomers into the desired shape (Trowler & Knight, 1999). Thus, background and previous job experience of the newcomer is overlooked in this corporate structural-functional perspective.

Until recently, induction of newcomers has been influenced by a limited organizational perspective in higher education. Trowler and Knight (1999) stated that the traditional form of socialization in higher education is based on Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) analysis of the dimensions of six key variables that define the corporate structural-functional perspective, in which the values, background and individuality the newcomer brings to the organization are neglected. Firstly, corporate structural-functional perspective prefers collective approaches against the individual. Hence, newcomers are treated as a group rather than individually due to the essentially similar nature of assimilative process and the relative unimportance of individual differences (Trowler & Knight, 1999). The second key issue is that formal approaches are favored rather than informal ones. With the purpose of ensuring consistency and efficacy in the transmission process, planned, structured programs are preferred over informal ones (Wanous, 1991). Another key issue is that sequential events are applied instead of random ones. Again with the purpose of ensuring consistency and efficacy in transmission, cumulative encounters which are carefully staged are preferred to informal ones, which may happen by chance (Trowler & Knight, 1999). Next, fixed and timetabled induction programs whose length is pre-determined are used with the purpose of ensuring clear limits on the process and the point at which the newcomer is expected to perform. Another key variable defining the corporate structural-functional perspective is that serial



socialization processes are preferred over disjunctive ones so that the culture is transmitted from the old to the next generation, generally involving a senior mentor so that the possibility of ‘noise’ interfering with the cultural transmission is avoided (Trowler & Knight, 1999). Finally, divestiture is favored over investiture in case the former socialization experience of the newcomer does not match with the organizational culture. Previous socialization experience is regarded as a threat to organizational culture if it is different so it is not welcomed (Wanous, 1991). This traditional approach in organizational socialization of newcomers in higher education seems to focus primarily on the passive learning by the newcomer of the expectations of the organization (Korte, 2007), and thus, it seems to ignore the needs and priorities of newcomers as individuals (Weimer & Lenze, 1991).

On the other hand, faculty members describe the first few years in their career as the most stressful period (Baldwin & Blackburn, 1981). During this period, their main concern is efficiency and competency. They need to establish a balance among the new roles created by their job, determine the priorities, learn to have access to resources in the organization, and additionally, learn the organizational policy (Kondakçı & Ataman, 2012). In the complex job environment, with such new responsibilities and identities, it may take them three-four years to consider themselves as part of the university (Boice, 1991a), and they may face several difficulties that were unprecedented beforehand.

Along with the challenges of transition to the new work environment, the most pronounced feature of socialization process during the first few years at university is loneliness and isolation (Bogler & Kremer-Hayon, 1999; Boice, 1991b; Murray, 2000; Whitt, 1991). Despite their need for support and suggestion from experienced colleagues, young teaching staff hesitate to ask for help (Boice, 1991b), thinking that the feeling of loneliness is unique to themselves (Murray, 2000). Another difficulty faced by young teaching staff at university during their socialization process is lack of communication with the department head and lack of guidance in time management skills (Baldwin & Blackburn, 1981; Murray, 2000). Heavy work load is another unprecedented difficulty for young teaching staff (Baldwin & Blackburn, 1981; Reybold, 2005; Whitt, 1991). These difficulties are also widely experienced by young teaching staff at Turkish universities. While trying

to become a successful organizational member, young teachers need to accomplish the challenge of heavy teaching load.

## **2.2. Organizational Commitment**

Organizational researchers have been studying organizational commitment in its relationships with various situational characteristics, attitudes, behaviors of employees for a long time (Bateman & Strasser, 1984), and the concept of organizational commitment has gained considerable attention in the literature of organizational psychology and organizational behavior. In line with the increasing research on organizational commitment, scholars tried to define commitment accurately (Stazyk, Pandey, & Wright, 2011). However, it was observed that organizational commitment involves various meanings and dimensions (Cohen, 2003; Fischer & Mansell, 2009), as discussed under the following headings. Thus, organizational commitment construct and its dimensions are still under debate. Additionally, as suggested by Fischer and Mansell (2009), the concept of organizational commitment may change in different cultures and societies. Despite variations in the concept organizational commitment, Meyer and Allen's three-component model of organizational commitment is regarded as the dominant one in the related research (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Cohen, 2003).

### **2.2.1. Definition of Organizational Commitment**

Organizational commitment refers to the attachment that individuals develop to the organizations they work for (Ketchand & Strawser, 2001). Angle and Perry (1981), Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) regarded organizational commitment as multidimensional in nature involving an employee's loyalty to the organization, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization, degree of goal and value accordance with the organization, and desire to maintain membership (Porter, Crampon, & Smith, 1976; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Bouilian, 1974).

Interest in organizational commitment has been continuing since it helps make sense out of employee behaviors, attitude of employees towards work, characteristics of the employee's job and role, and personal characteristics of the

employee (Bateman & Strasser, 1984). When employers make sense out of them, organizations benefit from their employees' commitment in terms of lower rates of job movement, higher productivity or work quality, or both (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Although there are various approaches in the literature in defining and measuring organizational commitment based on different explanations about what commitment is, the common point in these various definitions and measures is that organizational commitment is a bond or link of the individual to the organization (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

### **2.2.2. Organizational Commitment as a Uni-dimensional Construct**

Exploring the behavioral conceptualization of organizational commitment, Becker (1960) defined organizational commitment as consistent lines of activity continuing over time and leading to the rejection of alternative activities. Becker (1960) developed side bet theory, claiming that organizational commitment is a result of hidden investments of the employee by choosing to remain in a given organization. This definition of Becker (1960) is closer to the definition of *continuance commitment* of Allen and Meyer's (1990) three component model of commitment.

As described by Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972), organizational commitment is a structural phenomenon which occurs as a result of individual-organizational transactions over time. Employees are committed to their organization when they invest their time, effort, and money to the organization. If they are to leave their employed organization, their investment would be considered loss. This definition of organizational commitment is closer to the definition of *calculative commitment* of Allen and Meyer's (1990) three component model of commitment.

A different type of commitment was proposed by Wiener (1982, p. 421) who defined commitment as "the totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way to meet organizational goals and interests." This definition of organizational commitment is closer to the definition of *normative commitment* of Allen and Meyer's (1990) three component model, based on the idea that an employee has moral obligation to reciprocate for benefits received from the organization. This approach regards commitment as a moral construct proposing that staying in the

company is morally right from the point of view of the employee regardless of positive outcomes gained during his tenure.

Based on attitudinal approach, Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982, p. 27) defined commitment as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization.” This type of commitment refers to the state in which an individual identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in order to facilitate these goals (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). In addition to the above mentioned uni-dimensional constructs of commitment, various scholars viewed organizational commitment as a multi-dimensional construct.

### **2.2.3. Organizational Commitment as a Multi-dimensional Construct**

It is noted in the above literature that, all the earlier views emphasized only one particular component of commitment, so they viewed commitment as a uni-dimensional construct. On the other hand, O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) viewed commitment as a multi-dimensional construct by differentiating among identification, internalization and compliance. According to O’Reilly and Chatman (1986), commitment is the psychological attachment the person feels for the organization and it reflects the degree to which the person adopts characteristics and viewpoint of the organization. However, describing organizational commitment as a psychological state explaining the attachment between the employee and the organization, which is influential on employees’ decision to stay or leave from their employed organization, Meyer and Allen (1997) argued that identification and internalization form the bases of affective commitment, and that they are not to be viewed as dimensions of commitment. Thus, defining commitment as a force binding an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001), Allen and Meyer (1990) worked on another multi-dimensional view of commitment. They proposed three components of organizational commitment: desire (affective component), need (continuance component), and obligation (normative commitment) (Ünüvar, 2006).

According to Allen and Meyer's model, affective commitment refers to the employee's attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization, which mostly stems from work experiences. When affective commitment of an employee is strong, he continues employment with the organization because he wants to do so. Continuance commitment refers to awareness of the costs that employees associate with leaving the organization. Employees who are linked to the organization with continuance commitment stay in the organization because they need to in order not to lose attractive benefits or privileges. Normative commitment refers to feelings of obligation to remain with the organization. When employees' normative commitment is high, they feel that they ought to remain with the organization.

Ok (2007) concluded that Meyer and Allen's three-component model is an integrative model including Mowday et al.'s (1982) commitment view, and O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) identification component in the affective component; Becker (1960), and Hrebiniak and Alutto's (1972) view, and O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) compliance component in the continuance component; and Weiner's (1982) commitment view, and O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) internalization component in the normative component.

#### **2.2.4. Research in Organizational Commitment**

Organizational commitment represents the attachment that individuals form to their organizations (Ketchand & Strawser, 2001). Ketchand and Strawser (2001) suggested that personal and situational factors form the antecedents of organizational commitment. Additionally, a meta-analysis carried out by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) concluded that the antecedents of organizational commitment are personal characteristic, job characteristics, group leader relations, organizational characteristics and role states. Another meta-analysis by Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, and Johnson (2005) concluded that organizational commitment was influenced by person-job fit, and performance was strongly associated with person-job fit. In addition, the findings of a study about affective organizational commitment by Stazyk, Pandey, and Wright (2011) indicated that role ambiguity decreases affective organizational commitment. In fact, role ambiguity can be considered to

result from lack of or limited knowledge share and limited training. When employees are confronted with role ambiguity, they may experience stress and feel that they are not supported or treated fairly by the organization (Stazyk et al., 2011).

On the other hand, in a longitudinal analysis of the antecedents of organizational commitment, Bateman and Strasser (1984) concluded that organizational commitment is not simultaneous with job satisfaction, adding that it is not a consequence of job satisfaction, either. Their study revealed that organizational commitment is a cause of job satisfaction. In their study about the consequences of organizational commitment, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) concluded that organizational commitment predicts performance and absenteeism. Weiner (1988) theorized that commitment is an outcome of socialization and the research of Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Davis-LaMastro (1990) supported Wiener's theory. Research also showed that when employees are offered intensive socialization practices, they are committed to organizational values (Caldwell, Chatman, & O'Reilly, 1990).

Several studies showed that teacher commitment is a significant predictor of teachers' work performance and the quality of education (Dee, Henkin, & Singleton, 2006; Tsui & Cheng, 1999). The research conducted by Hupia, DeVos, and Van Keer (2010) concluded that organizational commitment of teachers is significantly affected by their job experience in a negative way. This finding confirms the previous research by Reyes (1992), who stated that compared to less experienced teachers, more experienced teachers are less committed to the organization.

Quite a few studies have also been carried out in Turkey investigating the relationship between organizational commitment and various socialization practices both in the field of psychology (e.g., Ekrem-Duman, 2010; Ok, 2007; Ünüvar, 2006) and education (e.g., Gür, 2008). A major purpose of this study is investigating the relationship between organizational commitment and organization, department, and task socialization of English instructors at Turkish universities.

### **2.3. Self-efficacy**

Self-efficacy of teachers has aroused as an important factor underlying teaching and learning with Social Cognitive Theory of Albert Bandura, who

maintained that cognitive variables intercede the relationships between environmental events and behavioral consequences (Bandura, 2001).

### **2.3.1. Definition of Self-efficacy**

The construct of self-efficacy is a central component in Bandura's model, initially defined as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). One's confidence to complete the task is emphasized in this definition. However, from a different perspective, self-efficacy beliefs determine how an individual resists to difficulties by displaying the necessary effort and stress management (Bandura, 1997).

Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) elaborated on Bandura's definition by including other factors such as behavior initiation, effort, persistence and success to be affected by self-efficacy. Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001) define teacher efficacy as "teacher's judgment of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even when the students are difficult or unmotivated" (p. 783). Latham and Pinder (2005) remarked that the construct of self-efficacy is domain-specific, and it should be assessed with reference to performance on a specific task. Similarly, Bandura (1997, p. 243) proposed "teacher efficacy scales should be linked to the various knowledge domains" since teachers' sense of efficacy may vary across different subjects. Furthermore, Bandura (1997) remarks teachers' level of efficacy should be based not only on their instructional efficacy, but how they maintain order in classroom, and how they get parent involvement should be also taken into consideration. Thus, Bandura suggests multi-item measures rather than single-item ones to measure teachers' self-efficacy.

### **2.3.2. Impact of Self-efficacy on Teachers**

Self-efficacy influences the performance of individuals directly or indirectly through their goal setting and decision making process. Individuals set goals and motivate themselves to attain their goals. During this process, they evaluate their performance in order to make a judgment about their capabilities. At this point, self-

efficacy comes into effect to determine how well individuals cope with challenges that they face (Gür, 2008). Those who have a high sense of self-efficacy resist longer when faced with challenges compared to those who have a lower sense of self-efficacy (Gür, 2008).

Related to teachers' self-efficacy, Bandura (1997) stated that when teachers are high in their instructional efficacy, they are capable of structuring their academic activities in the classroom as well as shaping students' evaluations regarding their intellectual capabilities. Gibson and Dembo (1984) considered the ability of teachers in motivating and educating difficult students to measure teachers' beliefs in their self-efficacy. They carried out a micro analytic observational study to find out how teachers of high and low self-efficacy conducted their classroom activities. It was observed that teachers with a high sense of self-efficacy spend more time on academic activities. However, those with a low sense of self-efficacy spend more time on nonacademic activities. Difficult students get guidance and appraisal leading to their success from teachers with high self-efficacy. On the other hand, such students are charged off and criticized by teachers with low self-efficacy (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

Various studies have been made to find out the relation between teacher efficacy and commitment, and dropout rate. Coladarci (1992) found that teachers with a high sense of self-efficacy are highly committed to their profession. It was also concluded in the same study that teachers' sense of instructional efficacy was the best predictor of commitment to the teaching profession. Glickman and Tamashiro (1982) found that teachers with a low sense of self-efficacy tend to drop out of the teaching profession.

### **2.3.3. Research on Teachers' Self-efficacy**

Referring to Bandura's (1986) above mentioned definition of self-efficacy as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (p. 391), a teacher's sense of self-efficacy is a judgment about the capabilities to influence engagement and learning on the part of students, even the ones who are difficult or unmotivated (Woolfolk-Hoy, 2004). In their study about the nature of the relationship between



teaching concerns and sense of self-efficacy, Boz and Boz (2010) found that the teachers who believe their efficacy is weaker tend to have more concerns about teaching. In her study about self-efficacy levels of pre-service teachers and its predictors, Er (2009) found that pre-service teachers of English believe that they are more efficacious in applying instructional strategies compared to their efficacy in student engagement, while their efficacy is lowest considering classroom management.

In a study by Jones (1986) about socialization tactics, self-efficacy, and newcomers' adjustment to organizations, it was concluded that self-efficacy moderates the learning process of a newcomer and that socialization tactics produce a stronger custodial role orientation when newcomers possess a low level of self-efficacy. The results of the same study also suggest that newcomers with high sense of self-efficacy tend to define situations themselves even when their roles or progressions in organizations are prescribed.

Previous studies in literature found that demographic variables, gender and teaching field did not predict overall teacher efficacy, efficacy in instructional strategies, efficacy in classroom management, and efficacy in student engagement (Gür, 2008; Çakıroğlu, Çakıroğlu, & Boone, 2005; Savran-Gencer & Çakıroğlu, 2005; Tarmalu & Öim, 2005; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2007).

In this study, the theoretical construct of self-efficacy focuses on teachers' beliefs in their capabilities and how these beliefs affect their teaching and student achievement. This study aims at analyzing the relation between self-efficacy and organization, department, and task socialization of English instructors at Turkish universities.

#### **2.4. Knowledge Sharing**

Knowledge sharing enables newcomers to fit into the new job and organization effectively. Knowledge needs to be transferred or disseminated from one side to another so as to be shared.

### **2.4.1. Definition of Knowledge Sharing**

Leistner (2010, p. 109) defined knowledge sharing as “the process by which information is exchanged and based on that information, new knowledge is created by the receiver of that information. In the end, portions of the knowledge are shared between the sender and receiver” .

### **2.4.2. Types of Knowledge**

Polanyi (1966) identified two types of knowledge, namely explicit and tacit knowledge. Explicit knowledge is concrete as it can be transmitted among various organizational units either in written or verbal form (Ramasamy & Thamaraiselva, 2011). However, tacit knowledge is transmitted in the form of learning, and learning by watching (Ramasamy & Thamaraiselva, 2011). Explicit knowledge is generally easily available, but the approval and willingness of the knowledge owner is necessary for tacit knowledge to be shared. Choi and Lee (2003) claimed that explicit knowledge and tacit knowledge which complement each other should be in line with technology and human resource processes for effective knowledge management.

Similarly, McElroy (2003) stated that knowledge appears in two forms in an organization: mentally held knowledge and objectively held knowledge. The former is in the minds of individuals, but the latter is in the form of spoken or written claims. Whether explicit and objectively held, or tacit and mentally held, having access to knowledge has a critical role in a newcomer’s transition to and sense making of the work environment. Empirical studies by Bauer et al. (2007) and Chao et al. (1994) have shown that knowledge-related content is of significant importance for the individual’s adjustment and subsequent reactions in the work environment.

### **2.4.3. Impact of Knowledge Sharing on Organizations**

Knowledge is the most important strategic resource of an organization. The continuous flow of knowledge among various organizational units increases performance and intellectuality of employees. Nonaka (1998) uses the term of ‘spiral of knowledge’ to define making knowledge available to others while capturing new

knowledge, which is simply known as knowledge sharing (Ramasamy & Thamaraiselva, 2011). The importance of knowledge sharing as a source of sustainable competitive advantage is known (Widen-Wulff, 2007). According to Leistner (2010), “organizational leaders state and assert that the knowledge of their people is their biggest asset for being competitive and innovative” (p. 47).

Research shows that knowledge sharing leads to increasing performance and competitiveness in organizations. Organizational newcomers seek information to reduce uncertainty (Ashford & Cummings, 1985), and also when there is a gap between the amount of knowledge they have and the amount of knowledge they need to perform their job. Knowledge sharing can help newcomers adjust to their job and the new environment; in other words, socialization of newcomers becomes effective as they have access to knowledge. However, there may be potential traps while sharing knowledge (Huysman, 2002), which could hinder effective socialization of individuals. Thus, the management trap, the individual learning trap, and the information and communication technology trap need to be carefully considered in the process of knowledge sharing so that socialization of newcomers can be made effective.

#### **2.4.4. Impact of Knowledge Sharing on Socialization**

Knowledge sharing has been taken into consideration in recent years as proactive socialization has gained importance. Proactive socialization claims that newcomers actively attempt to decrease the uncertainty in their work environments through their own initiative (Comer, 1991; Miller & Jablin, 1991). Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) reported that knowledge of various contextual domains, higher satisfaction and commitment of newcomers are related to knowledge sharing. Saks and Ashforth (1997) studied the relation between socialization tactics and availability of knowledge sharing for newcomers in order to establish a link between the proactive socialization perspective and the traditional perspective. They claimed that socialization tactics that are being used set the base for knowledge sharing, as a result of which the relation between socialization tactics and outcomes is explained. Further to their study, Saks and Ashforth (1997) proposed that knowledge sharing is positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) studied knowledge acquisition of newcomers from six different sources of information, which are mentor, supervisor, co-workers, observation, trial and error, and organizational manual, in four content domains; namely, task, role, group and organization. Their study proposed that newcomers mainly rely on information obtained through observation and supervisors. Further to their study, Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) stated that knowledge is positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Especially, “knowledge in the task and role domains contributed the most to successful socialization” (Saks & Ashforth, 1997, p. 249). Without lacking knowledge sharing aspect of socialization, newcomers are motivated and feel connected; and thus, react positively to the job.

#### **2.4.5. Research on Knowledge Sharing**

Organizational newcomers seek knowledge to reduce uncertainty about their new job role (Ashford & Cummings, 1985), about organization’s norms and culture, and about how to relate to other organizational members (Morrison, 1995). An empirical study about knowledge sharing between university faculty staff revealed that organizational socialization is positively correlated with knowledge sharing among employees (Iqbal, Toulson, & Tweed, 2011). It was also concluded in the same study that employees’ knowledge sharing activities are positively correlated with organizational (university) capability.

The findings of a longitudinal study designed to investigate relationships between socialization tactics, information acquisition and attitudinal outcomes associated with successful organizational socialization confirm the impact and extent of the mediating role of knowledge sharing on the effective socialization tactics (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002). The same study also revealed that knowledge sharing positively predicts newcomer adjustment attitudes, which further confirms the previous findings of other scholars stating that newcomer learning has a central role in achieving positive attitudinal outcomes (Chao et al., 1994; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992).

Referring to previous studies in literature, this study assumed that through increased knowledge sharing, individuals are expected to better make sense of their experiences during socialization. A major purpose of this study is to analyze the

relation between knowledge sharing and organization, department, and task socialization of English instructors at Turkish universities.

## **2.5. Job Satisfaction**

Job satisfaction is an affective reaction to the job that stems from both situational factors, such as pay, opportunities, and organizational environment (Gerhart, 1987). It is the degree to which people like their jobs, and thus, one of the most frequently studied variable in organizational behavior research. In the past, job satisfaction was viewed from the perspective of need fulfillment to study whether physical and psychological needs of the employee were fulfilled by his job (Wolf, 1970). However, today studies on job satisfaction focus on cognitive processes rather than the underlying needs. As Spector (1997) stated, “attitudinal perspective has become the predominant one in the study of job satisfaction” (p. 2).

### **2.5.1. Definition of Job Satisfaction**

According to Spector (1997), “job satisfaction is simply how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs” (p. 2). Locke (1976) viewed job satisfaction as the pleasurable and positive emotional state which results from one’s perceiving his job as fulfilling, or allowing fulfillment of one’s important job values when these values are in accordance with one’s needs. Wanous and Lawler (1972) proposed that job satisfaction is a function of situational factors like the nature of work, human resources elements, and the organizational environment.

Current research on job satisfaction regard it either as ‘a global feeling about the job’ or as ‘a collection of attitudes about various facets of the job’ (Spector, 1997). The global approach is employed when the effects of liking or disliking one’s job need to be determined. On the other hand, facet approach is employed to determine which aspects of the job create satisfaction or dissatisfaction. According to Spector (1997), “facet approach gives a more complete picture of a person’s job satisfaction than the global approach” (p. 3). One may have different attitudes towards different facets of the job. However, both approaches are employed to obtain a complete and wide picture of job satisfaction (Spector, 1997).

### **2.5.2. Antecedents of Job Satisfaction**

It is possible to list several factors that influence job satisfaction; however, two main factors, namely, environmental and individual factors can be regarded as antecedents of job satisfaction. Environmental factors are physical and psychological conditions that are related to the work and the extent these conditions fulfill the expectations of the individual. Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics theory stated that people who like challenge and who have interest in their work are more motivated if they have more complex jobs (Spector, 1997). However, not everyone likes to have jobs high in challenge and complexity, so job satisfaction is high when people have the job characteristics they favor (Spector, 1997).

Individual factors are related to the physical, psychological and security needs of individuals, and the way they prioritize these needs. Individual needs, skills, expectations, success, self-esteem and overall thought frame of individuals are influential on the individual factors. In this respect, it is noted that those with high self-confidence and those with high level of self-actualization tend to have higher level of job satisfaction. Both factors together affect job satisfaction. When there is a fit between the job and the individual, job satisfaction increases considerably (Kristof, 1996).

### **2.5.3. Relationship between Socialization and Job Satisfaction**

Extensive literature shows that newcomer socialization is important to positive outcomes such as job satisfaction (Bauer et al., 2007; Bauer et al., 1998). Newcomers learn about the organization and assimilate to it through the process of socialization (Fisher, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). As Haueter et al. (2003) stated newcomers become knowledgeable about the organization, work group and task, and understand the required role behaviors through socialization.

### **2.5.4. Research on Job Satisfaction**

The success of an organization is determined by high performance of the employees, which is determined by their high level of job satisfaction. Previous

research indicates that employees with high level of commitment display remarkably high performance to attain organizational goals. In an empirical study by K ok (2006), the relation between job satisfaction and organizational commitment of academicians working at Pamukkale University was investigated. The findings of this study indicate that *pay* and *academic environment* are the most effective factors on job satisfaction. However, a study by Flanagan, Johnson, and Bennett (1996: 385-397) states that *relations with the manager and colleagues* is the most effective factor on job satisfaction. In their study, Boswell, Shipp, and Culbertson (2009) found that when there was less socialization, job satisfaction was lower and it decreased over time, concluding that being socialized help to facilitate a positive reaction toward the job.

This study assumes that various tactics and procedures related to organizational socialization affect the level of job satisfaction of English instructors, and attempts to investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and organization, department, and task socialization of English instructors at Turkish universities.

## **2.6. Newcomer Training and Mentoring**

When newcomers start working in an organization, they need to learn various skills so as to perform in the new job environment. This is enabled through certain means such as training sessions, orientations, introductory courses, which are expected to increase newcomers' success in the organization. It is observed that pre-service and in-service training provided to teachers is beneficial for their adjustment in the new workplace since the process of socialization is a stressful period of transition due to uncertainty about newcomers' ability to cope with the demands of the organization and the ambiguity related to newcomers' role in the organization.

### **2.6.1. Relationship between Training and Socialization**

Feldman (1989) stated that training programs are considered to be the main process of socialization for newcomers, adding that formal training programs have an important role in how individuals make sense of their new job environment and adjust to it; and therefore, training programs have become synonymous with

socialization. However, as Holton (1996) stated, research in both training and socialization seem to ignore each other. Thus, there has been an increasing interest to integrate research in both (Anderson, Cunningham-Snell, & Haigh, 1996; Feldman, 1989; Holton, 1995, 1996). Nelson and Quick (1991) found formal training to be the most available practice of organizational socialization.

Saks (1996) elaborated on Nelson and Quick's study and considered the amount of training as well and found that the ratings of newcomers' about how helpful the training increased as the amount of training increased. Saks (1996) also found that work outcomes were related to the amount and helpfulness of the training.

### **2.6.2. Relationship between Self-efficacy and Training**

In literature, self-efficacy is observed to be related to training. Saks (1995) remarked that self-efficacy moderates the effects of training on newcomers' anxiety, and also moderates and mediates the relation between the amount of training and work adjustment. Accordingly, research on self-efficacy found that it is related to stress and anxiety (Bandura, 1986; Gist, Schwoerer, & Rosen, 1989; Jex & Gudanowski, 1992), and that self-efficacy moderates the effect of training method on training outcomes (Gist et al., 1989). It was found out in the study of Gomersall and Myers (1966) that newcomers who participated a one-day training designed to reduce anxiety were more productive and had better job attendance compared to those who did not participate.

Further to his research, Saks (1995) proposed that pre-service job training is particularly beneficial for the adjustment of newcomers, especially for those with low self-efficacy. The research carried out by Gist, Stevens, and Bavetta (1991) suggested that certain forms of training may be more effective for newcomers with low self-efficacy when the tasks are particularly complex. However, Louis, Posner, and Powell (1983) investigated the helpfulness of socialization practices and found that training programs made a modest contribution to newcomers' adjustment when compared to other socialization practices, which is thought to stem from the fact that training effectiveness depends on newcomers' self-efficacy. In the same study, it was concluded that increased amount of training is beneficial for newcomers with low



pre-training self-efficacy. In the same study, training programs were found to be strongly related to positive newcomer attitudes, job satisfaction, commitment; however, tenure intention through training programs was not related to becoming an effective employee. Thus, training of newcomers may not be equally effective for all newcomers since it depends on newcomers' level of self-efficacy.

Certain methods of training may have limited value for newcomers with strong self-efficacy, as a result of which diversity in self-efficacy of newcomers needs to be considered while designing effective training programs. Training programs that are effective for newcomers with low self-efficacy may not be as effective for newcomers with high self-efficacy, which may be confirmed by the study of Gist et al. (1991) stating that newcomers with low self-efficacy need more guidance.

### **2.6.3. Relationship between Mentoring and Socialization**

An increasing body of research suggests that the process of mentorship functions effectively during socialization process. Newcomers often report that they have learned a great deal from a mentor, who is an older and more experienced employee advising, counseling and enhancing their development (Greenberg & Baron, 1993). Ostroff and Kozlowski (1993) found that newcomers who had mentors obtained more information about organizational issues and practices. Similarly, Chatman (1991) concluded that newcomers are more likely to internalize the values of their organization when they had organizational mentors. In the same study, Chatman found that time spent with the mentor predicted the fit of the newcomer into the organization.

Louis (1990) stated that interaction with members in the organization significantly contributes to sense making and situation identification, as well as adopting the culture. According to Louis et al. (1983), such an interaction can occur during mentor programs when newcomers establish rapport and relation with experienced members in the organization. Terborg (1981) claimed that newcomers obtain the knowledge about the organization's values and history through mentor programs.

Angelides and Mylordou (2011) stated that during their socialization process, teachers new in the work place have to face many challenges like developing relationships with colleagues, joining the school environment, consolidating the knowledge they carry, gaining skills to facilitate them in their new job, and accepting or rejecting the norms and values of the school. Mentoring is a widespread way to allow teachers to meet these challenges and to improve the quality of teaching (Roehrig, Bohn, Turner, & Pressley, 2008).

#### **2.6.4. Research on Training and Mentoring**

Although training of a newcomer is expected to reduce the uncertainty related to the job, while investigating how helpful socialization practices were, Louis et al. (1983) found that, when compared to other socialization practices, training programs made a modest contribution to newcomer's development. However, referring to Jones (1986), who found that newcomers' self-efficacy moderated the relationship between socialization tactics and role orientation, Saks (1995) proposed that training effectiveness may depend on newcomers' self-efficacy. Further to his study to examine the role of self-efficacy in training and newcomer adjustment, Saks (1995) stated that increased amount of training was most beneficial for newcomers with low self-efficacy at job onset whereas early job training did not have a strong impact on the work adjustment of newcomers with high self-efficacy. In the same study, it was also found that increased amount of training was important for high job satisfaction and organizational commitment regardless of the self-efficacy level. In another study, Saks (1994) found that tutorial training was related to higher anxiety of newcomers with low self-efficacy. However, the relationship between training and anxiety did not change by training method for newcomers with high self-efficacy.

In a study about the relations between short-term mentoring provided by more experienced peers, multiple aspects of socialization and stress, Allen, McManus, and Russell (1999) concluded that mentoring can contribute to successful socialization of newcomers. In the same study, it was concluded that psychosocial mentoring helped newcomers improve their work performance. However, this finding contradicts with Chao, Walz, and Gardner (1992), who did not find a significant relationship between mentoring and performance proficiency dimension of socialization. Allen et al.

(1999) also concluded that career-related mentoring was positively related to the aspect of socialization that deals with forming successful relationships with organizational members. In the same study, both psychosocial and career-related mentoring were found to be positively related to the amount of help in coping with stress provided by mentors. In another study by Lee (2010) evaluating a Korean company's newcomer training program, it was concluded that the mentor has a significant role as a key socializing agent in the interplay between newcomers and organization. Also, in their study on the beneficial outcomes of a successful mentoring relationship, Angelides and Mylordou (2011) concluded that "the mentoring relationship helped the newcomer teacher to improve their teaching practice" (p. 539).

Organizational socialization process is expected to reduce newcomers' high level of uncertainty through training and knowledge sharing, which can be supported by Saks' (1996) finding that pre-service training help newcomers reduce their uncertainty, and Miller and Jablin's (1991) finding that knowledge sharing leads to reduction in uncertainty. Although there is inconsistency in the related literature about the effect of training, this study considered that training of a newcomer is expected to reduce the uncertainty related to the job. Briefly summarizing the inconsistency in literature in this respect, Louis et al. (1983) found that compared to other socialization practices, training programs made a modest contribution to newcomer's development. However, referring to Jones (1986), who found that newcomers' self-efficacy moderated the relationship between socialization tactics and role orientation, Saks (1994) proposed that training effectiveness may depend on newcomers' self-efficacy. Yet, in another study, Saks (1995) found that increased amount of training was important for high job satisfaction and organizational commitment regardless of the self-efficacy level.

This study assumes that training and mentoring opportunities related to organizational socialization affect the performance of English instructors, and attempts to investigate the relationship between training-mentoring and organization, department, and task socialization of English instructors at Turkish universities.

## **2.7. Summary of the Literature Review**

In this chapter, the literature regarding organizational socialization, and the individual and organizational level factors which are assumed to predict organizational socialization, namely, organizational commitment, self-efficacy, knowledge sharing, job satisfaction and training were reviewed in details. Based on the related literature, it can be concluded that organizational socialization is one of the major challenges that higher education institutions face nowadays, making it significant to be measured.

As the related literature indicated, several studies have been carried out to investigate various aspects of socialization. While these studies have brought in richness in the field, they have also lead to various approaches to understand and analyze the socialization process. Due to a large variety of approaches to analyze the socialization process, there has been disagreement among the scholarship regarding the dimensions of socialization. If the dimensions were firmly identified, developing a certain instrument to define and measure to socialization would be easy. However, neither the dynamic and complex nature of socialization process nor the richness of approaches in the field would allow it, as a result of which there has been little empirical research which defines and evaluates the dimensions of socialization process.

Within the scope of this study, socialization literature was reviewed to elaborate on the type of organizational and individual level factors which can be identified as predictors of socialization. While identifying these factors, content, process and environment dimensions of socialization were taken into consideration so that the results of the study could be holistic. Having identified these factors, an inventory was compiled and adapted with the purpose of contributing to the literature with empirical research.

## **CHAPTER III**

### **METHOD**

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

#### **3.1. Design of the Study**

Since this study aims at investigating the relationships between socialization and several other constructs, it was designed as a correlational study, which is a quantitative research method. As the aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between the variables that cannot be manipulated, quantitative research tradition and particularly the correlational design is believed to be an appropriate choice (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2011). According to Borrego, Douglas, and Amelink (2009), quantitative research is an appropriate method for deductive logic and it is instrumental in testing a pre-established hypothesis. The findings of a quantitative research can also be generalized to a larger population and inferences can be made from the findings as stated by Borrego et al. (2009). In this sense, the research question this study attempts to answer is appropriate to be analyzed in terms of quantitative research method.

Designed as a correlational research, this study attempts to present the relationship between socialization at organization, department and task levels, and various organizational (type of university, training, work conditions, knowledge sharing) and individual (academic degree, teaching experience, length of

employment at current work place, job satisfaction, commitment, and self-efficacy) level factors. Correlational design describes relationships between two or more quantitative variables which cannot be designed experimentally without any attempt to manipulate them (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). As it is the case for the variables used in this study, correlational design is considered an appropriate design for this study.

### **3.2. Operational Descriptions of the Variables**

The operational definitions of the variables used in this study are as following:

***Organizational Socialization:*** It was the dependent variable of this study, and it was a continuous variable. Three-dimensional Organizational Socialization Scale (OSS) was used to measure this dependent variable. The scale is made up of 47 items with a 7-point-likert type, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

***Organization Socialization:*** It was one of the continuous dependent variable which shows to what extent instructors' are familiar with and knowledgeable about the products/services produced/provided by the organization (university), as well as showing the level of awareness about the power relations in the organization. There are 16 items in this dimension of the scale. Thus, the lowest score a participant can get from this dimension is 16, and the highest score is 112. The higher the score in this dimension is, the higher the level of organization socialization is.

***Department Socialization:*** It was another continuous dependent variable representing to what extent instructors are familiar with and knowledgeable about the the contribution of their department to the larger organization and other people in their work group. Similar to the organization dimensions, this dimension of the scale also contains 16 items; thus, lowest and highest scores can range between 16 and 112. Higher scores indicate higher level of department socialization.

***Task Socialization:*** It was the final dependent variable of the study, and it was a continuous variable. It indicates to what extent instructors are familiar with and knowledgeable about the requirements for their task, as well as their willingness to continue with their job. This dimension of the scale was measured by 15 items. Thus, the lowest and highest scores can range between 15 and 105. Like it is the case, in other dimensions of the scale, the higher the score is, the higher the level of task socialization is.

***Organizational Commitment:*** It was the independent variable of the study showing to what extent instructors identify themselves with their organization (university) and regard themselves as a member of it. It was a continuous variable, measuring organizational commitment in three dimensions. The scale is made up of 33 items with 7-point-likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). There are 6 reverse items in this scale, which were recoded in the analysis. The higher the score in each dimension of this scale is, the higher the level of related commitment is.

***Affective Commitment:*** It was a continuous independent variable measuring instructors' emotional attachment to, identification with, involvement in their organization and its goals. There are 9 items in this dimension of the scale; thus, the lowest and highest scores can range between 9 and 63.

***Continuance Commitment:*** It was another continuous independent variable related to the costs associated with leaving the organization. This dimension was measured by 10 items; thus, the lowest score could be 10 and the highest could be 70.

***Normative Commitment:*** It was the other continuous dependent variable which shows instructors' desire to stay with the organization based on a sense of duty, loyalty or obligation. 14 items were included in this dimension; thus, the lowest and highest scores can range between 14 and 98.

***Teachers' Sense of Self-Efficacy:*** It was the independent variable of the study indicating to what extent instructors feel themselves capable of dealing with educational and psychological needs of their students, as well as structuring appropriate academic activities in the classroom, and dealing with difficult students causing discipline problems and violating the rules. It was a continuous variable, measuring teachers' sense of self-efficacy in three dimensions. The scale includes 24 items with 9-point-likert scale ranging from insufficient (1) to very sufficient (9). The higher score in each dimension of the scale indicates a higher level of self-efficacy.

***Efficacy for Student Engagement:*** It was a continuous independent variable measuring instructors' beliefs about how capable they are in involving students in class work and motivating them. There are 8 items in this dimension of the scale; thus, the lowest and highest scores can range between 8 and 72.

*Efficacy for Instructional Strategies:* It was another continuous independent variable indicating to what extent instructors feel themselves competent, resourceful and knowledgeable as a teacher. This dimension was measured by 8 items. Hence, the score of a participant can be within the range of 8 and 72.

*Efficacy for Classroom Management:* It was the other independent variable measuring instructors' beliefs about how capable they are in providing ideal teaching environment in the classroom, and dealing with difficult students and discipline problems. Similar to the other two dimensions in this scale, there are 8 items in this dimension, too. Thus, the lowest and highest scores could be within the range of 8 and 72.

*Knowledge Sharing:* It was the independent variable of the study indicating instructors' opinion about to what extent knowledge sharing is available and efficient in their department. Being one-dimensional, it was a continuous variable. The scale includes 5 items with a 5-point-likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The higher scores indicate that instructors think knowledge sharing is available and efficient in their department.

*Job Satisfaction:* It was the independent variable of the study, and it was a continuous variable. It indicates to what extent instructors are satisfied with their job. It is a one-dimensional scale including 6 items with a 5-point-likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The higher the score is, the higher the satisfaction level of the instructor is.

*Work Conditions:* It was the independent variable of the study indicating the level of satisfaction of instructors in terms of salary, employee benefits, social, health, and sports facilities in their organization. It was a continuous variable. The scale includes 5 items with a 5-point-likert scale ranging from not satisfied at all (1) to very satisfied (5). The higher scores indicate higher level of satisfaction in terms of work conditions.



### **3.3. Population and Sample Selection**

Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) remarked that in correlational design, sampling should be conducted carefully to get the exact degree of relationship between variables. They suggested that random sampling should be used as a selection method if it is possible. According to the Council of Higher Education data, in the academic year of 2011-2012, there are 103 state universities and 65 private universities in Turkey, and 83 of the state universities and 55 of the private universities have preparatory schools. Considering the size of population, random sampling did not seem feasible. Thus, cluster sampling selection method was used in this study to collect data from instructors employed in the preparatory schools of universities. Cluster sampling is an effective and proper method with large number of clusters, and it is useful when random sampling is inconvenient to be used (Krahtwohl, 1997). Considering these aspects of cluster sampling, it was used as the sampling method in this study.

#### **3.3.1. Population and Data Collection Procedure in the Pilot Study**

The aim of the pilot study was to test the construct validity of the OSS. The inventory developed to collect data for this study was used in the pilot study. Since the approval of METU Ethics Committee was going to be obtained for administering the inventory only after the pilot study was carried out, the researcher approached the universities that would be willing to participate in the pilot study before obtaining the related approval. Participants of the pilot study consist of 228 English instructors teaching at the Department of Basic English of 4 public universities in Ankara. The return rate was 91.2 %.

Data were collected by the researcher from the preparatory schools of four universities located in Ankara. The researcher contacted Department Heads explaining the purpose of the pilot study and stating that approval of METU Ethics Committee would be obtained once the final form of the questionnaire was developed after the validity of OSS in the inventory was tested. Confidentiality of the responses was assured in addition to informing the instructors about the voluntary nature of the participation in the study. Hard copies of the questionnaire were

distributed and collected from the participants through the contact persons appointed by Department Heads.

### **3.3.2. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants in the Pilot Study**

Pilot study was carried out in order to test the construct validity of OSS, and to observe how compatible the Turkish adaptation was with the original scale. Data were collected from 228 English instructors teaching at preparatory schools of 4 public universities in Ankara. As presented in Table 3.1, the majority of the participants were female constituting 83.3 % of the sample while 16.7 of them were male. Slightly more than half of the participants had a BA degree which constituted 52.6 % of the participants while 41.7 % had a MA degree, and 5.7 % had a PhD degree. Of the sample, age varies considerably. The age of almost one-third of the participants (29.8 %) was within the range of 26-20, followed by 31-35 age group (19.3 %). 12.7 % of the participants were between the ages of 21-25 while 10.5 % were aged 46 and over. The mean age average of the participants is 34.28 with standard deviation of 8.45.

When the instructors were asked about their work experiences as a teacher, the results revealed that almost one-fourth of the participants had a teaching experience of 4-7 years, and 17.1 % of the participants accumulated within the experience group of both ½ to 3 years and 8 to 11 years. The average work experience of participants as a teacher is 11.34 years changing within the range of ½ to 36 years. The average work experience of the participants as a teacher is 11.34 changing within the range of ½ year to 36 years. When the instructors were asked about their work experience at the university where they are currently employed, the results showed that 32 % of the participants have been working in their current institution for ½ to 3 years, and 23.7 % of the participants have been employed in their current institution for 4 to 7 years. The average work experience of the participants at the university where they are currently employed is 9.85 years changing with standard deviation of 7.71.

Of the participants, 53.1 % (121) reported to have had pre-service training, and regarding their level of satisfaction, 13.2 % (19) were not satisfied, and 65 % (79) were satisfied. Of the participants, 84.6 % (193) reported to have had in-service

training, and 15 % (29) were not satisfied with it while 60 % (116) were satisfied. Of the participants, 37.7 % (86) reported to have had a mentor, while 5.8 % (5) of them were not satisfied, 79 % (68) were satisfied.

Table 3.1

*Demographic Characteristics of the Pilot Study Participants*

Variables	Category	Frequency	Percent (%)	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Gender	Male	38	16.7				
	Female	190	83.3				
Degree	BA	120	52.6				
	MA	95	41.7				
	PhD	13	5.7				
Age	21-25	29	12.7				
	26-30	68	29.8				
	31-35	44	19.3				
	36-40	34	14.9	34.28	8.45	22	64
	41-45	29	12.7				
	46-50	15	6.6				
	51+	9	3.9				
Experience as teacher	1/2-3	39	17.1				
	4-7	54	23.7				
	8-11	39	17.1				
	12-15	27	11.8	11.34	8.10	6 months	36 yrs
	16-19	28	12.3				
	20-23	18	7.9				
	24-27	13	5.7				
	28+	10	4.4				
Experience at current university	1/2-3	73	32.0				
	4-7	53	23.2				
	8-11	31	13.6				
	12-15	15	6.6	9.85	7.71	6 months	36 yrs
	16-19	28	12.3				
	20-23	18	7.9				
	24+	10	4.4				

*Table 3.1 (continued)*

Pre-service	No	107	46.9
	Yes	121	53.1
In-service	Yes	193	84.6
	No	35	15.4
Mentoring	Yes	86	37.7
	No	142	62.3

### 3.3.3. Population and Data Collection Procedure in the Main Study

The aim of the main study was to identify the relationship between the organizational and individual level variables that predict organization, department and task level organizational socialization of English instructors at Turkish universities. For this purpose, using cluster sampling as the method for selection, four cities in Turkey (Ankara, İstanbul, Eskişehir and Konya), and one city in Northern Cyprus Turkish Republic (Güzelyurt) were chosen. Considering accessibility and willingness to participate in the study, 10 universities in Ankara, two universities in İstanbul, two universities in Eskişehir, one university in Konya, and one university in Northern Cyprus Turkish Republic constituted the population of the study.

751 English instructors working at preparatory school of seven public and nine private universities participated in the main study and return rate was 83.4 % (751 out of 900). Six hundred and seven of the participants were working in public universities (80.8 %) and 144 of the participants were working at private universities (19.2 %).

In this study, the data were collected via Organizational Socialization Inventory administered to instructors (see Appendix A). First, the necessary permission was obtained from Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Ethics Committee (see Appendix B). Then, METU Graduate School of Social Sciences wrote a letter to the selected universities informing about the study, and requesting their participation. After that, the researcher contacted Preparatory School Department Heads of the selected universities to explain the purpose of the study in

details and to make arrangements for conducting the questionnaire. Despite the intention of the researcher to travel to the site to be present during the administration of the questionnaire, department heads preferred to administer it at their convenience. Hard copies of the questionnaire and the consent form declaring willingness to participate in the study were sent to and received from the Department Heads by post. In the consent form, the participants were ensured about the confidentiality and they were not asked any questions revealing their identity. It was stated in the consent form that participants could quit the study whenever they wanted in order to ensure the essence of willingness. The data of the main study were collected in February-April, 2012.

### **3.4. Data Collection Instrument**

Both in the pilot study and the main study, an inventory consisting of several different scales and questions was utilized for collecting data. The inventory was made up of three parts. In the first part, questions related to demographic information were included. In the second part, items about training for the job and conditions at the workplace were included. The third part consisted of one self-developed and several pre-developed scales; all three parts being preceded by an informed consent form (see Appendix A).

In Part 1, demographic information of the questionnaire included questions about educational level, age, gender, and length of employment as an English instructor and length of employment at the current institution. Part 2 included questions about whether the participants had pre-service training, in-service training and mentoring support at their current workplace. The questions in this section were developed by the researcher and the advisor. The questions were a yes/no scale where a check mark would be used. If participants checked 'yes', they were to indicate their level of satisfaction for each. This part was a 5-point satisfaction scale (1= Not satisfied at all, 5= Very satisfied). In addition to questions regarding training, this part also included a list of five items about the conditions in the workplace; namely, salary, employee benefits, social facilities, health facilities and sports facilities. The items were developed by the researcher and the advisor.

Part 3 consisted of one adapted scale (Newcomer Socialization Scale), and four pre-developed scales (Knowledge Sharing Scale, Job Satisfaction Scale,

Organizational Commitment Scale and Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale). Authors, number of items and reliability values of each scale are presented in Table 3.2.

### **3.4.1. Newcomer Socialization Scale**

Turkish adaptation of Newcomer Socialization Questionnaire (NSQ) developed by Haueter, Macan, and Winter (2003) was used to collect data for this study. The original version of NSQ was developed by the authors in 2003 with the purpose of measuring direct outcomes of socialization such as learning, inclusion and assimilation. Original version of the scale developed by Haueter et al. (2003) has three dimensions: organization socialization, group socialization and task socialization. There are 12 items for both organization and group socialization, and 11 items for task socialization. A 7-point Likert-type response format (1= Strongly disagree to 7= Strongly agree) is used in NSQ. Content validity evidence was provided for NSQ, and two psychometric studies, - EFA in Study 1 and CFA in Study 2 - were performed to gather information about the construct validity of the instrument. The results supported the three factor model with high subscale reliabilities ranging from .92 to .95 (Table 3.2).

Within the scope of this study, NSQ was adapted to Turkish by the writer and her advisor in this study. After Haueter and her colleagues' permission was obtained for the translation and adaptation of the questionnaire, the original version of NSQ was translated into Turkish by five qualified individuals who are proficient in English and Turkish, and who are working at university with a graduate degree. After the initial translation was carried out, the instrument was edited and reviewed again by the writer and the advisor. Since adaptation of a scale into a different cultural context might require more items than comparable scales developed in other languages with the purpose of minimizing item bias (van de Vijver & Poortinga, 2005), a total of 12 items were added in the Turkish version, four for each level of socialization. Thus, the adapted version of the scale had 47 items. Subsequently, this version was field-tested by ten English instructors in order to check the clarity of the statements. Based on their comments, minimal modifications were made, and expert opinion was obtained from two scholars for the content, clarity and intelligibility of

Table 3.2  
*Authors, Number of Items and Reliability Values of the Scales*

SCALE	AUTHORS		NUMBER OF ITEMS		RELIABILITY	
	Original	Turkish adaptation	Original	Current study	Org./Trk adapt.	Current study
Knowledge Sharing	Haser & Kondakçı, 2011	-	5	5	.83*	.89
Job Satisfaction	Hulpia & De Vos, 2009; based on Job Enthusiasm Scale of Dewitte & De Cuyper, 2003	Haser & Kondakçı, 2011	6	6	.86**	.91
Newcomer	Haueter, Macan & Winter, 2003	Ataman, 2012	35	47	Org .92* Dep .95*	Org .92 (.92)*** Dep .92 (.92)***
Socialization					Tsk .94*	Tsk .83 (.91)***
Organizational Commitment	Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993	Wasti, 1999	24	33	Aff .84** Con .70**	Aff .90 Con .66
Teachers' Sense of Efficacy	Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001	Çapa, Çakıroğlu, & Sarıkaya, 2005	24	24	Nor .82** SE .82** IS .86** CM .84**	Nor .91 SE .79 IS .91 CM .82

\*Original

\*\*Turkish adaptation

\*\*\* Reliability scores for the sample in the pilot study are indicated in brackets.

the items in the final form of the scale. Sample items for each dimension of the scale are given in Table 3.3, and descriptive statistics for each item in the scale is given in Appendix C.

Table 3.3

*Sample Items for Organizational Socialization Scale (OSS) / (Turkish adaptation of NSQ). English translation is given in brackets.\**

Subscale	Sample Item
Organization Socialization	Bu kurumun ürettiği/sağladığı ürünlerin/hizmetlerin isimlerini biliyorum. [I know the specific names of the products/services produced/provided by this organization.]
	Benim yaptığım işin kuruma nasıl katkıda bulunduğunu biliyorum. [I understand how my job contributes to the larger organization.]
	Çalışanların kuruma özgü dili (ör. kısaltmalar, takma adlar, yaygın kullanılan kelimeler) kullandıklarında ne demek istediklerini anlıyorum. [I understand what is meant when members use language (e.g., acronyms, abbreviations, nicknames) particular to this organization.]
Department Socialization	Bölümümün hedeflerini biliyorum. [I know my department's objectives.]
	Bölüm başkanının çalışanlardan ne beklediğini biliyorum. [I understand what the department head expects from the work group]
	Bölümümdeki rolümü biliyorum. [I know my role in the department.]



Table 3.3 (continued)

Task Socialization
Hangi sorumluluk, görev ve projeler için işe alındığımı biliyorum. [I know the responsibilities, tasks and projects for which I was hired.] Gerektiğinde işimle ilgili kimden yardım isteyeceğimi biliyorum. [I know who to ask for support when my job requires it.]
Hizmet verdiğim kişilerin ihtiyaçlarını nasıl karşılayacağımı biliyorum. [I know how to meet the needs of the people whom I serve.]

\*The scale was administered in Turkish. Sample items were translated into English by the writer.

#### 3.4.1.1. Exploratory Factor Analysis in the Pilot Study

The pilot study for the Turkish version of the scale (abbreviated as OSS to avoid confusion with the original version) was performed with data gathered from 228 instructors working at four universities in Ankara. The aim of the pilot study was to confirm the validity of NSQ of Haueter et al. (1999). In order to determine the underlying factor structure of OSS items, the data were subjected to EFA. Principal axis factoring technique was used for the extraction of the factors, referring to Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, and Strahan's (1999) suggestion that it is a more robust factor extraction technique against the violation of the assumption of multivariate normality. Oblique rotation was used as a rotational method to make the interpretation of the analysis easier. Oblique rotation (direct oblimin) was preferred since this method allows for factor correlation (Preacher & MacCallum, 2003). In the first analysis, the extraction was made on eigenvalue > 1, scree plot, and percentage of variance (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2001).

The initial factor analysis suggested seven dimensions which account for 61.900 % of the total variance. However, this structure was not compatible with Haueter, Macan, and Winter's analysis of NSQ. Although each factor loading could be interpreted meaningfully if Chao et al.'s (1994) six-dimensional measure of organizational socialization were considered, it failed to support the structure suggested by Haueter et al. (2003). Therefore, the extraction was forced for three factors. The results suggested that three dimensions account for 47.344 % of the total variance. When the number of factors was fixed at three, the first factor included thirty items, explaining 40.354 % of the variance. The second factor included twelve items, and explained 3.872 % of the variance, and the third factor included five items, explaining 3.118 % of the variance as presented in structure matrix in Table 3.4.

Still, detailed analysis of the items loaded in each factor revealed that this structure was not compatible with the one suggested by Haueter et al. (2003). Further analyses were carried out by excluding item 40, which has low factor loading as well as excluding the newly added items. However, no different results were obtained. Thus, it was decided to carry out CFA with the data from a much larger population in the main study to further examine the compatibility of the factor structure of OSS with that of NSQ.

Table 3.4

*Structure Matrix for Organizational Socialization Factors*

Item No	Factors		
	1	2	3
27	<b>.819</b>	.536	.401
25	<b>.797</b>	.547	.294
24	<b>.783</b>	.543	.297
26	<b>.782</b>	.540	.418
10	<b>.779</b>	.580	.282
19	<b>.757</b>	.607	.307
39	<b>.752</b>	.516	.431
31	<b>.740</b>	.479	.449
18	<b>.714</b>	.558	.351
14	<b>.706</b>	.538	.397
28	<b>.699</b>	.501	.453
7	<b>.695</b>	.567	.214
21	<b>.686</b>	.528	.324
30	<b>.652</b>	.483	.456
47	<b>.637</b>	.409	.526
34	<b>.630</b>	.553	.488
3	<b>.625</b>	.583	.083
35	<b>.613</b>	.491	.464
22	<b>.606</b>	.373	.241
32	<b>.596</b>	.550	.546
23	<b>.578</b>	.484	.370
38	<b>.573</b>	.364	.411
43	<b>.507</b>	.398	.400
42	<b>.498</b>	.490	.466
17	<b>.483</b>	.423	.304
33	<b>.475</b>	.382	.455
46	<b>.448</b>	.429	.377
29	<b>.433</b>	.228	.207
13	<b>.425</b>	.399	.383
40	<b>.207</b>	.172	.129
9	.617	<b>.802</b>	.270
5	.437	<b>.787</b>	.361
12	.540	<b>.784</b>	.347
11	.516	<b>.744</b>	.348
15	.522	<b>.736</b>	.378
6	.683	<b>.730</b>	.263
8	.506	<b>.696</b>	.395
2	.551	<b>.691</b>	.233
16	.545	<b>.664</b>	.484
1	.470	<b>.621</b>	.250
4	.439	<b>.621</b>	.211

*Table 3.4 (continued)*

20	.575	<b>.612</b>	.439
37	.499	.484	<b>.734</b>
44	.485	.433	<b>.730</b>
41	.568	.587	<b>.679</b>
36	.554	.462	<b>.627</b>
45	.483	.485	<b>.529</b>

### 3.4.1.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis in the Main Study

In the previous study of Haueter et al. (2003), organizational socialization was suggested to be a three-factor structure as organization socialization, department socialization and task socialization. Further to EFA with the data in the pilot study, CFA was conducted with the data in the main study in order to test three-factor structure of organizational socialization and to ensure the construct validity of the scale. Firstly, missing data were checked using frequencies and descriptives, and missing values analysis (MVA) results indicated:

Little's MCAR test: Chi-Square = 3063.380,  $df = 2118$ ,  $p = .00$

Since the missing data were not missing completely at random (MCAR), and it accounted for more than 5 % of the data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), missing values were imputed using expectation maximization (EM) algorithm available in SPSS, as it is considered to be a common way to impute missing values (Harrington, 2009).

Brown's (2006) recommendations were referred to assess the model fit. The model chi-square, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) values were taken into consideration while evaluating the fit for three factors CFA model of OSS. However, chi-square is a test that is sensitive to the sample size, and the test may give significant results when the sample size is large (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Since this problem with model fit assessment was noted in this study, other fit indices of RMSEA, NNFI and CFI were used to compensate the limitations caused by the chi-square test (Byrne, 2001).

The results of CFA showed that chi-square value was significant ( $\chi^2 = 7953.380$ ,  $df = 1031$ ,  $p = .00$ ) with the comparative fit index (CFI) value of 0.69, non-normed fit index (NNFI) value of .67, and root mean square error of approximation

(RMSEA) value of .09. As the criterion value of RMSEA was taken into consideration, the CFA indicated poor fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). When CFA results indicated poor fit, modification indices of errors (error covariance) were checked and those with highest values were identified as suggested by Arbuckle (1999). The identified item pairs with the high error covariance were  $\varepsilon_{d8-\varepsilon_{o10}}$ ,  $\varepsilon_{o13-\varepsilon_{d15}}$ ,  $\varepsilon_{d6-\varepsilon_{t4}}$ ,  $\varepsilon_{t7-\varepsilon_{t9}}$ ,  $\varepsilon_{o2-\varepsilon_{o3}}$ ,  $\varepsilon_{o4-\varepsilon_{o5}}$ ,  $\varepsilon_{d5-\varepsilon_{d7}}$ ,  $\varepsilon_{t5-\varepsilon_{d4}}$ ,  $\varepsilon_{o5-\varepsilon_{d2}}$ ,  $\varepsilon_{o13-\varepsilon_{d13}}$ . These items were checked to decide whether they belonged to the same factor or measured related constructs.

The item pairs of  $o2 - o3$ ,  $o4 - o5$ ,  $t7 - t9$ , and  $d5 - d7$  were loaded on the same factors of the scale, while the item pairs of  $d8 - o10$ ,  $t4 - d6$ ,  $t5 - d4$ ,  $o2 - d2$ ,  $o13 - d13$ , and  $o13 - d15$  were not loaded on the same factor as shown in Figure 3.1. Item  $o2$  is related to knowing the history of the organization and item  $o3$  is related to knowing the relations between various departments in the organization. Knowledge of relations between departments in the organization could be thought to be included within knowledge of history of the organization. Item  $o4$  is related to knowing who does what job in the organization and how various departments contribute to the organization. Item  $o5$  is related to knowing the goals of the organization. Both items are related to having global knowledge about the organization. Item  $t7$  is related to finding one's job valuable, and item  $t9$  indicates willingness to continue with the current job for a long time. When individuals find their job valuable, it makes sense to conclude that they will be willing to continue with it for a long time. Item  $d5$  is related to knowing the skill and competence that each employee brings to the department. Item  $d7$  is related to knowing the contribution made by each employee in the department to the product/service produced/provided. Both items involve knowledge about the work performance of other employees in the department. Item  $d8$  is related to knowing how to perform in accordance with the values and ideals of the department, and item  $o10$  involves knowing how to perform to comply with the values and beliefs of the organization. Thus, both items involve knowledge of behavior to match with the values in the work place. Item  $t4$  is related to knowing which duties and responsibilities have the priority at task, and item  $d6$  is related to knowing how to perform tasks in accordance with the standards in the department. Both items are related to task performance. Item  $t5$  is related to knowledge about using tools and equipment needed for work, and item  $d4$  is related to knowing other people in the department; and thus, both items involve peripheral knowledge for

work. Item o2 is related to knowing the history of the organization, and item d2 is related to knowledge about the goals of the department. Knowing the goals of the department can stem from knowing the history of the organization. Item o13 is related to knowledge about power relations in the organization, and item d13 is related to knowledge about the management style of the department head. Knowledge about the management style of the department head can be said to involve knowing the power relations in the organization. As stated above, while item o13 is related to power relations in the organization, item d15 is related to power relations in the department. Despite not being loaded on the same factor, careful analysis of these items enabled to conclude that they measure the same scale. Therefore, the model was revised by connecting one set of related items to each other each time, and CFA was conducted again. The CFA results of the final model indicated significant chi-square value ( $\chi^2= 6209.580$ ,  $df= 1020$ ,  $p=.00$ ) with the comparative fit index (CFI) value of .77, non-normed fit index (NNFI) value of .75, and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value of .08, as presented in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5

*CFA Results for the Revised Model of Organizational Socialization Scale*

Scale	$\chi^2$	$df$	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI
Org Soc	6209.580	1020	6.088	.08	.77	.75

Thus, considering RMSEA value of .08, the second analysis resulted in mediocre fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). Considering .95 as a critical CFI and NNFI value of a good-fitting model (Hu & Bentler, 1999), mediocre fit could be justified considering the results of the CFA. Thus, the final CFA model provided satisfactory result on the three factor structure of OSS.

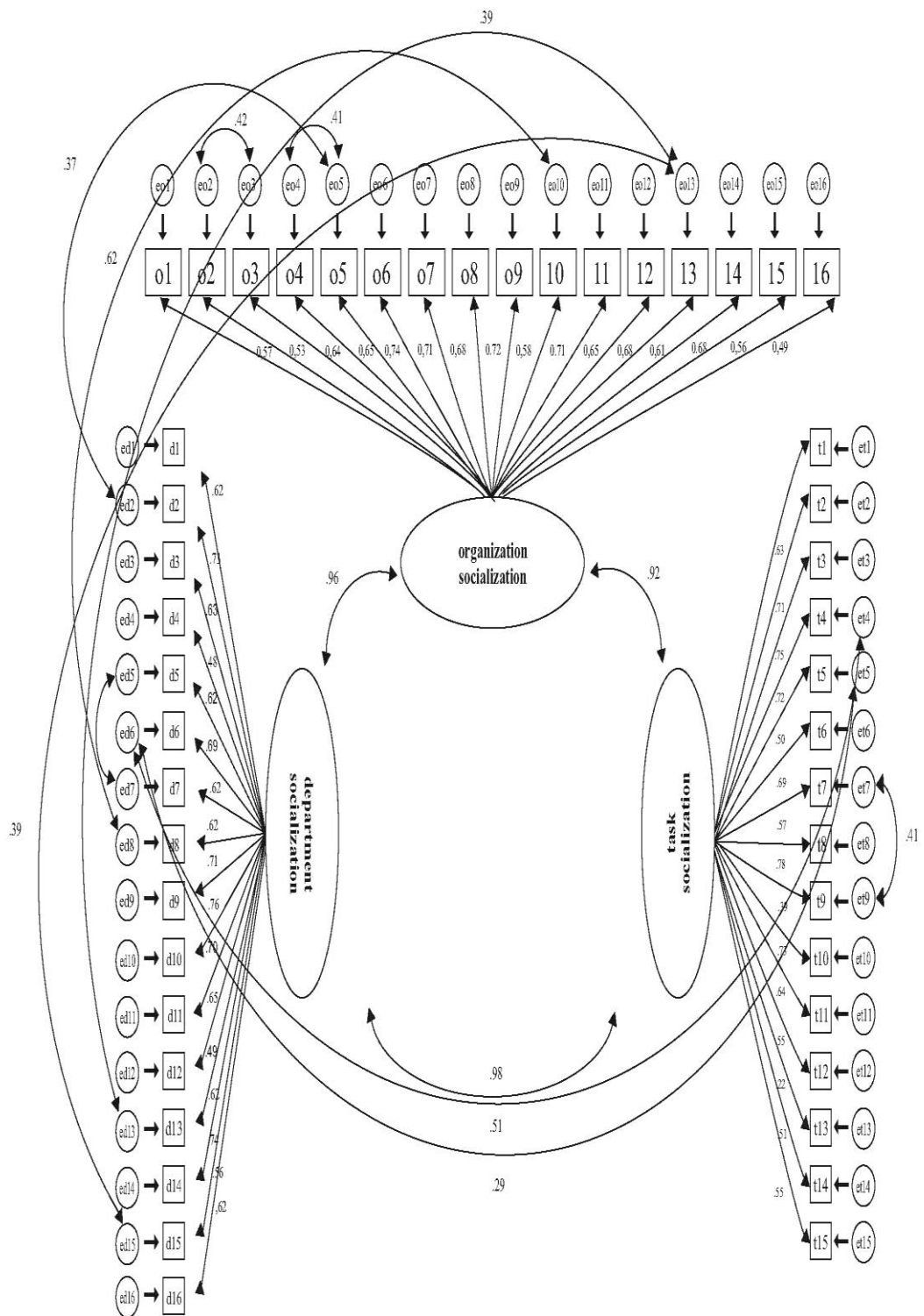


Figure 3.1 Three-Factor CFA Model of OSS with Standardized Coefficients

### 3.4.2. Knowledge Sharing Scale

This scale was developed by Haser and Kondakçı (2011) considering the related literature and the results obtained from a qualitative research by the same researchers. This scale included items about the availability and efficacy of knowledge sharing and dissemination in the workplace. Sample items for KSS are given in Table 3.6, and descriptive statistics for each item in the scale is given in Appendix C.

Table 3.6

*Sample Items for Knowledge Sharing Scale. English translation is given in brackets.\**

Sample Item
Bu bölümde ihtiyaç duyduğum bilgiye hızlı bir şekilde ulaşabilirim. [I can obtain the knowledge I need quickly in this department.]
Bu bölümde hangi bilgiyi nereden alacağımı çok iyi bilirim. [I know very well from where in this department to obtain the knowledge I need.]
Bu bölümde ihtiyaç duyduğum bilgiye doğrudan ulaşmaya çalışırım. [I try to reach the knowledge I need directly in this department.]

\*The scale was administered in Turkish. Sample items were translated into English by the writer.

As given in Table 3.2, the reliability of the Knowledge Sharing Scale is .89, and item total correlation values range between .57 and .77. Although CFA of this scale was already made by Haser and Kondakçı (2011), it was conducted again with the data in the main study in order to provide further evidence on the construct validity of the scale. There were only 7 (0.95 %) missing data in the data set. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggested that any method for handling missing data is unlikely to create a serious problem if 5 % or less of the data is missing at random. Thus, before conducting CFA, the missing data were list wise deleted, which is a very common way of handling missing data (Harrington, 2009).



Brown's (2006) recommendations as explained in CFA for OSS were referred to assess the model fit. The results of CFA showed that chi-square value was significant ( $\chi^2= 130.432$ ,  $df= 5$ ,  $p=.00$ ) with the comparative fit index (CFI) value of 0.94, non-normed fit index (NNFI) value of .89, and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value of .19, as presented in Table 3.7. When the criterion value of RMSEA was taken into consideration, the CFA indicated poor fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). However, Kline (2005, p. 140) stated that CFI "greater than roughly .90 may indicate reasonably good fit." Besides, Harrington (2009) stated that too few factors may lead to poor fit, which is the case with one-dimensional KSS with 5 items. Referring to Kline's (2005) guideline, with CFI value of .94, CFA results added further evidence on the construct validity of KSS. Factor loadings for KSS range between .657 and 0.891.

Table 3.7

*CFA Results for the Basic Model of Knowledge Sharing Scale*

Scale	$\chi^2$	$df$	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI
Knowledge Sharing	130.432	5	26.086	.19	.94	.89

### 3.4.3. Job Satisfaction Scale

The original form of this scale was developed by Hulpia and De Vos (2009), and they stated that their Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS) is based on Job Enthusiasm Scale of Dewitte and De Cuyper (2003). Turkish version of the scale was translated and adapted by Haser and Kondakçı (2011). JSS included items about positive feelings of participants with their current job. Sample items for JSS are given in Table 3.8, and descriptive statistics for each item in the scale is given in Appendix C.

As given in Table 3.2, the reliability of Job Satisfaction Scale is .91, and the item total correlation values range between .52 and .77. Although CFA of this scale was already made by Haser and Kondakçı (2011), it was conducted again with the data in the main study in order to provide further evidence on the construct validity of the scale. There were only 6 (0.8 %) missing data in the data set. Tabachnick and Fidell's (2007) suggestion that any method for handling missing data is unlikely to

create a serious problem if 5 % or less of the data is missing at random was taken into consideration, and the missing data were list wise deleted before conducting CFA.

Table 3.8

*Sample Items for Job Satisfaction Scale. English translation is given in brackets.\**

Sample Item
Yaptığım işle gurur duyuyorum. [I am proud of my job.]
Yaptığım iş bana ilham verir. [My job gives me inspiration.]
Her sabah işime gitmekten mutluluk duyarım. [I am happy to be going to my job every morning.]

\*The scale was administered in Turkish. Sample items were translated into English by the writer.

Brown's (2006) suggestions were taken into consideration to assess the model fit. As presented in Table 3.9, the results of CFA showed that chi-square value was significant ( $\chi^2= 119.986$ ,  $df= 9$ ,  $p=.00$ ) with the comparative fit index (CFI) value of .96, non-normed fit index (NNFI) value of .94, and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value of .13. When the criterion value of RMSEA was taken into consideration, the CFA indicated poor fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). Harrington (2009) remarked that too few factors may lead to poor fit, which is the case with one-dimensional JSS with 6 items. Referring to satisfactory CFI and NNFI values, CFA results added further evidence on the construct validity of JSS. Factor loadings for JSS range between .614 and .866.

Table 3.9

*CFA Results for the Basic Model of Job Satisfaction Scale*

Scale	$\chi^2$	$df$	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI
Job Satisfaction	119.986	9	13.332	.13	.96	.94

### 3.4.4. Organizational Commitment Scale

This scale was originally developed by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) with 24 items measuring affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. Affective commitment is related to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, involvement in the organization and its goals. Continuance commitment is related to the costs associated with leaving the organization. With continuance commitment, individuals feel like they have to stay in the organization because leaving would cost too much, or because they have few employment alternatives elsewhere. Normative commitment is related to the employee's desire to stay with the organization based on a sense of duty, loyalty or obligation (Clugston, Howell, & Dorfman, 2000). Sample items for each dimension of the Organizational Commitment Scale are given in Table 3.10, and descriptive statistics for each item in the scale is given in Appendix C. Meyer et al. (1993) reported the reliability values as .82 for the affective component, .83 for the normative component, and .74 for the continuance component of the scale.

Table 3.10

*Sample Items for Organizational Commitment Scale. English translation is given in brackets.\**

Subscale	Sample Item
Affective Commitment	Meslek hayatımın kalan kısmını bu kurumda geçirmek beni çok mutlu eder. [Spending rest of my career in this organization will make me very happy.]
	Bu kurumun bir çalışanı olmanın gurur verici olduğunu düşünüyorum. [I take pride in being an employee in this organization.]
	Bu kurumun benim için çok kişisel (özel) bir anlamı var. [This organization has a very special meaning for me.]

Table 3.10 (continued)

Continuance Commitment	
	Şu anda kurumumda kalmam mecburiyetten. [I continue to work in this organization due to obligations.]
	Yeni bir işyerine alışmak benim için zor olurdu. [It would be difficult for me to get used to a new work place.]
	Eğer bu kuruma kendimden bu kadar çok vermiş olmasaydım, başka yerde çalışmayı düşünebilirdim. [I might consider working in a different organization if I had not devoted a lot to this organization.]
Normative Commitment	
	Kurumuma çok şey borçluyum. [I owe a lot to this organization.]
	Benim için avantajlı da olsa, kurumumdan şu anda ayrılmanın doğru olmadığını hissediyorum. [I feel leaving this organization is not correct even if it were more advantageous for me.]
	Bu kurum benim sadakatimi hak ediyor. [This organization deserves my loyalty.]

\*The scale was administered in Turkish. Sample items were translated into English by the writer.

The scale was translated and adapted to Turkish by Wasti (1999), and the adapted version of the scale has 33-items as a result of addition of emic (i.e. culture-specific) items (Ok, 2007). Wasti (2003) reported reliability values of the adapted version of the scale as .84 for the affective component, .82 for the normative component, and .70 for the continuance component of the scale with a total of 33 items (Table 3.2). Ok (2007) used the adapted version of the scale by developing 15 further additional items for the dimensions which are thought to be missing.

However, in this study, having obtained permission from Wasti, her adapted version of the scale with 33 items was used.

As given in Table 3.2, the reliability of Organizational Commitment Scale is .90 for affective commitment, .66 for continuance commitment, and .91 for normative commitment, and the item total correlation values range between -.59 and .67. Although CFA of Organizational Commitment Scale was already made by Wasti (2003), it was conducted again with the data in the main study in order to provide further evidence on the construct validity of the scale. Missing data were checked using frequencies and descriptives, and missing values analysis (MVA) results indicated:

Little's MCAR test: Chi-Square = 2195.829,  $df = 1810$ ,  $p = .00$

Since the missing data were not missing completely at random (MCAR), and it accounted for more than 5 % of the data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), missing values were imputed using expectation maximization (EM) algorithm available in SPSS, as it is a common way to impute missing values (Harrington, 2009).

Brown's (2006) recommendations were used to assess the model fit of the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS). The model chi-square, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) values were taken into consideration while evaluating the fit for three-factor CFA model of OCS. However, being sensitive to sample size, chi-square test may give significant results (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Since this problem with model fit assessment was noted in this study, other fit indices of RMSEA, NNFI and CFI were used to compensate the limitations caused by the chi-square test (Byrne, 2001).

The results of CFA showed that chi-square value was significant ( $\chi^2 = 3673.490$ ,  $df = 492$ ,  $p = .00$ ) with the comparative fit index (CFI) value of 0.75, non-normed fit index (NNFI) value of .73, and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value of .09. As the criterion value of RMSEA was taken into consideration, the CFA indicated poor fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). When CFA results indicated poor fit, modification indices of errors (error covariance) were checked and those with highest values were identified as suggested by Arbuckle (1999). The identified item pairs with the high error covariance were  $\epsilon_{c8-\epsilon_{c7}}$ ,  $\epsilon_{a2-\epsilon_{a5}}$ ,  $\epsilon_{n12-\epsilon_{n13}}$ . These items were checked to decide whether they belonged to the same factor or measured related constructs. All three item pairs were loaded on the

same factors of the scale, and careful analysis of each item pair indicated relatedness. For example, both item c8 and c7 involve lack of alternatives for not considering leaving the current work place. Similarly, items a2 and a5 indicate lack of emotional attachment to the organization. Finally, items n12 and n13 involve feeling guilty conscience in case of leaving the work place. After connecting the related items to each other, CFA was conducted again.

As presented in Table 3.11, the CFA results of the final analysis indicated significant chi-square value ( $\chi^2= 3251.054$ ,  $df= 489$ ,  $p=.00$ ) with the comparative fit index (CFI) value of .78, non-normed fit index (NNFI) value of .77, and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value of .08. Thus, considering RMSEA value of .08, the second analysis resulted in mediocre model fit, (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). Thus, CFA results of the final model added further evidence on the construct validity of OCS. Factor loadings for OCS are given in Table 3.12.

Table 3.11

*CFA Results for the Revised Model of Organizational Commitment Scale*

Scale	$\chi^2$	$df$	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI
Organizational Commitment	3251.054	489	6.648	.08	.78	.77

Table 3.12

*Factor Loadings for Organizational Commitment Scale*

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
	.808	.727	.779
	.764	.708	.767
	.762	.669	.749
	.743	.653	.714
	.725	.560	.710
	.699	.533	.709
	.654	.365	.669
	.652	.288	.639

Table 3.12 (continued)

.512	.262	.637
	.215	.610
		.554
		.546
		.536
		.408

### 3.4.5. Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale

Teachers' Sense of Efficacy scale (TSES) used in this study is the Turkish version of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (long form with 24 items) of Çapa, Çakıroğlu, and Sarıkaya, the original English version of which was developed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001). Construct validity and reliability analysis of the Turkish version of the instrument was carried out by obtaining data from 628 pre-service teachers from six different universities located in four major cities in Turkey. Sample items for each dimension of the Organizational Commitment Scale are given in Table 3.13, and descriptive statistics for each item in the scale is given in Appendix C. With the purpose of providing evidence for the construct validity of the three-factor subscale scores, the developers used confirmatory factor analysis and Rasch measurement.

Table 3.13

*Sample Items for Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale. English translation is given in brackets.\**

Subscale	Sample Item
Efficacy for Student Engagement	Çalışması zor öğrencilere ulaşmayı ne kadar başarabilirsiniz? [How much can you do to reach difficult students?]

Table 3.13 (continued)

Derslere az ilgi gösteren öğrencileri motive etmeyi ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?

[How much can you do to motivate students with little interest in school work?]

Öğrencilerin yaratıcılığının gelişmesine ne kadar yardımcı olabilirsiniz?

[How much can you do to support creativity of your students?]

---

Efficacy for Instructional Strategies

---

Öğrencilerin zor sorularına ne kadar iyi cevap verebilirsiniz?

[How well can you answer difficult questions of your students?]

Farklı değerlendirme yöntemlerini ne kadar kullanabilirsiniz?

[How much can you use various evaluation methods?]

Sınıfta farklı öğretim yöntemlerini ne kadar iyi uygulayabilirsiniz?

[How well can you use various instructional strategies in your classroom?]

---

Efficacy for Classroom Management

---

Sınıfta dersi olumsuz yönde etkileyen davranışları kontrol etmeyi ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?.

[How much can you do to take disruptive behavior in class under control?]

Öğrencilerin sınıf kurallarına uymalarını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?

[How much can you do to make students obey the rules in class?]



*Table 3.13 (continued)*

Sizi hiçe sayan davranışlar gösteren öğrencilerle ne kadar iyi baş edebilirsiniz?  
[How well can you deal with students who disregard you?]

---

\*The scale was administered in Turkish. Sample items were translated into English by the writer.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis conducted to model a three factor solution verified that three subscales of the instrument (Efficacy for Student Engagement, Efficacy for Instructional Strategies and Efficacy for Classroom Management) correlated to each other. Furthermore, the Rasch rating scale model confirmed that the items in each subscale are working together to define a recognizable and meaningful variable coefficient alpha values for each subscale (Table 3.2) and the reliability of efficacy for the whole scale confirmed that all items were contributing to the reliability with high item-total correlations (Çapa et al., 2005).

The original English version of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale had been developed in a seminar on self-efficacy in teaching and learning at Ohio State University, as reported by Çapa et al. (2005). The participants in the seminar aimed at developing an instrument including the types of tasks to represent frequent teaching activities (Çapa et al., 2005). Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy took Bandura's scale to measure teacher sense of efficacy as a reference while developing their scale. Bandura's scale had 30 items and seven subscales. In this scale, Bandura tried not to be too specific while measuring teacher's sense of efficacy since deciding the specificity level of teacher efficacy is considered a difficult problem (Gür, 2008).

Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) instrument, developed in a seminar at Ohio University, had a 9-point rating scale (1= Nothing, 9= A Great Deal), and it was investigated by Tschannen-Moran and her colleagues in various studies (Çapa et al. 2005). It was applied to different participants from various school levels three times. Eventually, items with high loading were selected and two forms of the instrument were formed, namely, the long form with 24 items and the short form with 12 items. Principal axis factoring with varimax rotation was used and three factors were determined for the long version of the instrument. Tschannen-Moran

and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001) named these three subscales, each with 8 items, as Efficacy for Instructional Strategies, Efficacy for Classroom Management and Efficacy for Student Engagement. The reliability for the whole scale was .94 and the reliabilities of the subscales were .91 for Efficacy for Instructional Strategies, .90 for Efficacy for Classroom Management, and .87 for Efficacy for Student Engagement. Further to the mentioned analyses, Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale is considered to be a reliable and valid instrument to assess teacher efficacy construct.

As given in Table 3.2, the reliability of Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale is .79 for efficacy for student engagement, .91 for efficacy for instructional strategies, and .82 for efficacy for classroom management, and the item total correlation values range between .07 and .70. CFA was conducted with the data in the main study in order to provide further evidence on the construct validity of the scale. Missing data were checked using frequencies and descriptives, and missing values analysis (MVA) results indicated:

Little's MCAR test: Chi-Square = 722,362,  $df = 401$ ,  $p = .00$

Since the missing data were not missing completely at random (MCAR), and it accounted for more than 5 % of the data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), missing values were imputed using expectation maximization (EM) algorithm available in SPSS, as it is a common way to impute missing values (Harrington, 2009).

Using Brown's (2006) recommendations to assess the model fit of the TSES, the model chi-square, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) values were taken into consideration. Since chi-square test gave significant results due to being sensitive to sample size (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), other fit indices of RMSEA, NNFI and CFI were used to compensate the limitations caused by the chi-square test (Byrne, 2001).

As presented in Table 3.14, the results of CFA showed that chi-square value was significant ( $\chi^2 = 1654.928$ ,  $df = 249$ ,  $p = .00$ ) with the comparative fit index (CFI) value of .88, non-normed fit index (NNFI) value of .86, and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value of .08. As the criterion value of RMSEA was taken into consideration, the CFA indicated moderate fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). Thus, CFA results added further evidence on the construct validity of TSES. Factor loadings for TSES are given in Table 3.15.

Table 3.14

*CFA Results for the Basic Model of Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale*

Scale	$\chi^2$	df	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI
Efficacy	1654.928	249	6.646	.08	.88	.77

Table 3.15

*Factor Loadings for Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale*

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
	.773	.818	.875
	.761	.791	.814
	.752	.759	.812
	.727	.726	.811
	.725	.705	.791
	.667	.689	.746
	.396	.678	.663
	.372	.668	.254

**3.5. Data Analysis Procedures**

First of all, data cleaning was performed to eliminate out of range values, possible wrong entries and to deal with missing variables according to the principles suggested in Tabachnick and Fidell (2007); consequently, 14 cases were deleted from the study.

Descriptive statistics and inferential statistics were used to analyze the data in the pilot study and the main study. Descriptive and inferential statistics were performed by the software PASW Statistics 18, and the confirmatory factor analyses for Organizational Socialization Scale (OSS), Knowledge Sharing Scale (KSS), Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS), Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) and Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) were performed by the software AMOS 18.

Data about degree in education, age, gender, year of experience in teaching, and length of employment at the current workplace were obtained for demographic characteristics of instructors. Data about whether instructors have had pre-service training, in-service training and mentoring, and whether they have been satisfied with

it were also obtained for demographic characteristics. Additionally, data about work conditions were obtained for the same purpose. Descriptive statistics were conducted to calculate the frequency, mean, standard deviation, and range of calculations for demographic characteristics of teachers. The writer also intended to use as many as possible of these demographic characteristics as predictors in the hierarchical regression model while analyzing the relationship between the organizational and individual level variables that predict organization, department and task level organizational socialization.

To test the construct validity of OSS, exploratory factor analysis was carried out in the pilot study, and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was carried out in the main study. CFA for the pre-developed scales were also conducted for further validation purposes.

Inferential statistics were used in this study in order to investigate the relationship between various organizational and individual level variables, and organizational socialization. Three separate hierarchical regression analyses were carried out for organization socialization, department socialization, and task socialization, after the related assumptions were validated. The variables were entered in seven blocks (Table 3.16). The first block variables were type of university (public/private), academic degree, length of employment in profession, and length of employment at the current university. The first block variables were identified as ‘Background Variables’. The second block variables included pre-service training, in-service training, and mentoring, identified as ‘Professional Development Variables.’

Table 3.16

*Predictors*

Block 1 Background Variables
University type
Academic degree
Years of teaching experience
Length of employment at current university
Block 2 Professional Development Variables
Pre-service training
In-service training

Table 3.16 (continued)

Mentoring
Block 3 Work Condition Variables
Salary
Personnel rights
Social facilities
Health facilities
Sports facilities
Block 4 Knowledge Sharing Variable
Block 5 Job Satisfaction Variable
Block 6 Organizational Commitment Variables
Affective commitment
Normative commitment
Continuance commitment
Block 7 Efficacy Variables
Student engagement efficacy
Instructional strategies efficacy
Classroom management efficacy

The third block included salary, personnel rights, social, health, and sports facilities at the work place, which were identified as ‘Work Condition Variables’. The fourth block was ‘Knowledge Sharing Variable’, and the fifth one was ‘Job Satisfaction Variable’. The sixth block included affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment, and it was identified as ‘Commitment Variables’. The final block included efficacy for student engagement (SE), efficacy for instructional strategies (IS), and efficacy for classroom management (CM), and it was identified as ‘Efficacy Variables’. Analyses were conducted by using the software PASW Statistics 18. The significance level for all research questions was defined as .05.

### 3.6. Reliability and Validity Analyses

Necessary measures were taken to ensure the reliability and validity of the instrument used in this study. Firstly, the related theories in the literature were reviewed, and theoretical explanations of the socialization scale and those of the

other scales used in the instrumentation were taken into consideration. During the Turkish translation and back translation of the Organizational Socialization Scale (OSS), seven experts in the field were consulted to ensure its face validity and content validity. Additionally, correlation between the dimensions of the adapted OSS was checked, based on which it was concluded that the dimensions within the socialization scale are related constructs while measuring different dimensions (Table 4.4). Also, correlations between OSS and the other scales in the instrument were checked, and discriminant validity yielded that pre-developed scales used in the instrumentation and the adapted OSS were different but related while measuring different constructs. Although exploratory factor analysis of the OSS did not prove it to be compatible with the original scale (NSQ), confirmatory factor analysis ensured construct evidence. Finally, cronbach's alpha values (Table 3.2) were checked which provided construct related evidence.

### **3.7. Limitations of the Study**

The following limitations are associated with this study. Firstly, cluster sampling data collection method was used in the study. The external validity being reduced, the results do not represent all English instructors of Turkish universities although careful attention was given to make sure underlying assumptions of multiple linear regression were met, which is a condition for generalizability.

Secondly, the data were collected from 16 different universities under varying physical conditions. Thus, the location can be an internal validity threat for the study. Subject characteristics can be another internal validity threat as the age of participants varied between 21 and 66, and the years of experience as a teacher ranged from ½ to 43 years. Such differences among the participants could be a limitation for the study. Despite such differences in age and experience, the sample can be considered as a homogenous group, since it is made up of instructors working at preparatory schools, which can be another internal validity threat.

The use of self-report measures is another limitation related to the data in the study, which may lead to inflation of common method variance. Also, data for both dependent and independent variables were collected at the same time, which may be a reason for inflation of common variables. Another flaw of self-report measure may be the higher levels of social desirability.

Finally, despite the intention of the researcher to be present while the instrument was being administered so as to clarify any unclear item and to avoid influence of participants on each other, the questionnaires were administered by the department heads, which could be another limitation in this study.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis concerning descriptive and inferential statistics. The chapter is organized under four main parts. In the first part, demographic characteristics of the participants in the main study are presented. In the second part, descriptive statistics of the scales are discussed. The following part presents correlations between the scales in the instrument. In the final part, hierarchical regression analysis results with the required assumptions are presented in details.

#### 4.1. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants in the Main Study

Data were collected from 737 English instructors teaching at the preparatory schools of seven public and eight private universities selected from four cities in Turkey and Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. As presented in Table 4.1, the majority of the participants were employed in public universities, which constituted 81.1 % of the sample while 18.9 of them were employed in private universities. Of the sample, the majority was female (81.3 %) and males constituted 18.6 % of the sample. Almost half of the participants had a BA degree which constituted 49 % of the participants while 45.2 % had a MA degree, and 5.8 % had a Ph.D degree. Of the sample, age varied considerably. The age of most of the participants accumulated within the range of 26-30 (27.1 %) and 31-35 (19.4%) age groups. 15.6 % of the participants were within the range of 36-40, and 15.1 % were within the range of 21-25 age groups, followed by 9.9 % within the range of 41-45, 6.5 % within the range of 46-50 age groups, and 4.2 % of them were aged over 51. The mean age average of the participants is 34.06 with standard deviation of 8.47.

When the instructors were asked about the length of their work experience as a teacher, the results revealed that equal number of participants had a teaching experience of ½ to 3 years and 4-7 years constituting 21 % of the participants in each category. 16.4 % of the participants accumulated within the experience group of 8 to 11years, while only 4.1 % had a teaching experience of 28 and more years. The



average work experience of participants as a teacher is 10.93 years changing within the range of ½ to 43 years. When the instructors were asked about their work experience at the university where they are currently employed, the results showed that 34.2 % of the participants have been working in their current institution for ½ to 3 years, and 23.5 % of the participants have been employed in their current institution for 4 to 7 years, while only 4.2 % of the participants have been employed in their current instruction for 24 or more years. The average work experience of the participants at the university where they are currently employed is 8.16 years, changing with standard deviation of 7.35.

Of the participants, 54.3 % (400) reported to have had pre-service training, and regarding their level of satisfaction, 10.2 % (41) were not satisfied, and 66.7 % (267) were satisfied. Of the participants, 71.2 % (525) reported to have had in-service training, and 11.8 % (62) were not satisfied while 56 % (295) were satisfied with it. Of the participants, 28.1 % (207) reported to have had a mentor. While 10 % (21) were not satisfied with it, 76 % (158) were satisfied.

Table 4.1

*Demographic Characteristics of the Main Study Participants*

Variables	Category	Frequency	Percent (%)	Mean	SD	Min	Max
University Type							
	Public	598	81.1				
	Private	139	18.9				
Gender							
	Male	137	18.6				
	Female	599	81.3				
Degree							
	BA	361	49.0				
	MA	333	45.2				
	PhD	43	5.8				
Age							
	21-25	111	15.1				
	26-30	200	27.1				
	31-35	143	19.4				

Table 4.1 (continued)

	36-40	115	15.6	34.06	8.47	21	66
	41-45	73	9.9				
	46-50	48	6.5				
	51+	31	4.2				
<hr/>							
Experience as teacher							
	1/2-3	155	21.0				
	4-7	155	21.0				
	8-11	121	16.4				
	12-15	114	15.5	10.93	8.17	6 mnths	43 yrs
	16-19	72	9.8				
	20-23	54	7.3				
	24-27	35	4.7				
	28+	30	4.1				
<hr/>							
Experience at current uni.							
	1/2-3	252	34.2				
	4-7	173	23.5				
	8-11	109	14.8				
	12-15	74	10.0	8.16	7.35	6 mnths	38 yrs
	16-19	58	7.9				
	20-23	37	5.0				
	24+	31	4.2				
<hr/>							
Pre-service Training							
	Yes	400	54.3				
	No	336	45.7				
<hr/>							
In-service Training							
	Yes	525	71.8				
	No	206	28.2				

*Table 4.1 (continued)*

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Mentoring			
	Yes	207	28.7
	No	514	71.3

---

#### **4.2. Descriptive Statistics Results of the Scales**

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between various organizational and individual level factors, and organization, department and task socialization. An inventory consisting of self-developed and pre-developed scales was used for this purpose, and the data were collected from 737 instructors working at seven state and nine public universities in 4 cities in Turkey, and one in Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. In all scales, the participants were asked to respond the items on a likert type scale, but at various levels ranging between 5 and 9. The higher mean values in the scales with one dimension, and in the subscales with three dimensions were associated with higher satisfaction with work conditions, knowledge sharing, and the job. Similarly, higher scores in each dimension of OSS indicate higher level of related socialization; higher scores in each dimension of OCS represent higher level of related commitment; higher scores in each dimension of TSES show higher level of related efficacy.

The results of descriptive statistics of each one-dimensional scale, and of each subscale of three-dimensional scales with mean, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values are presented in Table 4.2. The results of the descriptive statistics indicated that despite quite high mean score for job satisfaction, the mean score for work conditions is rather low. Instructors' socialization to their task has the highest mean score while socialization to their department and organization are slightly lower. The scores for all three dimensions of organizational commitment are close. The mean scores for instructional strategies efficacy and classroom management efficacy are similar; however, the mean score for student engagement efficacy is slightly lower.

Table 4.2

*Descriptive Statistics for the Scales in the Inventory*

Variables	Dimensions	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>
Work Conditions		714	2.86	.93	1	5
Knowledge Share		730	3.71	.86	1	5
Job Satisfaction		731	4.09	.77	1	5
Organizational Socialization						
	Organization Socialization	725	5.33	1.15	1.17	7
	Department Socialization	698	5.64	.95	2.56	7
	Task Socialization	719	6.13	.84	2.71	7
Organizational Commitment						
	Affective Commitment	712	4.98	1.36	1	7
	Normative Commitment	684	4.22	1.32	1.14	7
	Continuance Commitment	658	4.03	.96	1.40	6.8
Teachers' Efficacy						
	Efficacy for Student Engagement	707	6.93	1.14	2.63	16.5
	Efficacy for Instructional Strategies	720	7.47	1.03	2.50	9
	Efficacy for Classroom Management	725	7.56	1.10	2.50	18.13

**4.3. Correlations between Scales in the Instrument**

Correlations for all scale scores are presented in Table 4.3. As expected there is a moderate correlation between three separate dimensions of OSS, ranging from

.69 to .81. Likewise, the correlations between three dimensions of TSES are moderate, ranging from .64 to .75. However, the same trend was not observed for the three separate dimensions of OCS. Although the correlation between affective commitment and normative commitment is moderate, the correlation between continuous commitment and affective commitment is weak and similar to this, the correlation between continuous commitment and normative commitment lies between weak and moderate. Though closer to the low range, a moderate correlation is seen between work condition, KSS, and JSS.

#### **4.4. Hierarchical Regression Analysis**

Hierarchical regression analysis is used to evaluate relationships between a group of independent variables and the dependent variable, while the impact of a different group of the independent variables on the dependent variable is controlled (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In this study three separate hierarchical regression analyses were performed for three dependent variables, namely, organization socialization, department socialization, and task socialization. As indicated in Table 3.16, criterion variables were university type as public or private; academic degree as 4 year university degree or a graduate degree (academic degree had three levels as B.A., M.A., Ph.D., and dummy coding was used while taking B.A. degree as the reference category); years of teaching experience, length of employment at current university; pre-service training, in-service training, or mentoring experience as professional development (dummy coding was used while taking pre-service training as the reference category); satisfaction with the work conditions in terms of salary, personnel rights, social, health and sports facilities; knowledge sharing, job satisfaction; affective, normative and continuance commitment; student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management efficacy.

The sample size was evaluated for both the main problem and sub-problems before performing the hierarchical regression analyses. The minimum sample size can be calculated by the formula  $N > 50 + 8k$ , where  $k$  refers to the number of criterion variables (Green, 1991). The minimum sample size for this study was calculated as 210 with 20 predictors. Thus, sample size in this study ( $N=737$ ) was appropriate.

Table 4.3

*Correlations for the Scales in the Inventory*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Work Conditions												
2. Knowledge Sharing	.31**											
3. Job Satisfaction	.33**	.40**										
4. Org. Socialization	.20**	.49**	.31**									
5. Dept. Socialization	.25**	.58**	.39**	.74**								
6. Task Socialization	.15**	.47**	.28**	.64**	.81**							
7. Aff. Commitment	.38**	.37**	.58**	.33**	.45**	.27**						
8. Norm. Commitment	.37**	.34**	.48**	.30**	.38**	.18**	.75**					
9. Cont. Commitment	.08*	.06	.03	.02	.09*	-.01	.22**	.39**				
10. SE Efficacy	.11**	.23**	.37**	.32**	.39**	.35**	.30**	.23**	-.10**			
11. IS Efficacy	.09*	.33**	.35**	.39**	.47**	.51**	.24**	.20**	-.09*	.75**		
12. CM Efficacy	.11**	.26**	.33**	.32**	.42**	.46**	.29**	.21**	-.05	.64**	.74**	

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

#### 4.4.1. Research Question 1: Predictors of Organization Socialization

The first research question was:

“How well do individual (academic degree, teaching experience, length of employment at current work place, job satisfaction, commitment, self-efficacy) and organizational (type of university, training, work conditions, knowledge sharing) level factors predict organization socialization of English instructors at Turkish universities?”

The dependent variable was organization socialization. The predictor variables were entered in 7 blocks labeled as presented in Table 3.16.

##### 4.4.1.1. Assumptions of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Hierarchical Regression Analysis has a number of assumptions that need to be checked before running the analysis. Field (2009) and Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham (2006) stated the required assumption as homoscedasticity, linearity, independent errors, multicollinearity and influential observations.

*Normally distributed errors.* Histogram and P-P Plot of the residual were checked in order to test for normality of residuals. A bell-shaped figure was observed when the histogram was inspected visually (Figure 4.1). Besides, despite slight deviations from the normal distribution, P-P plot also represented normal distribution for the residuals (Figure 4.2). Thus, the assumption of normality of residuals was validated.

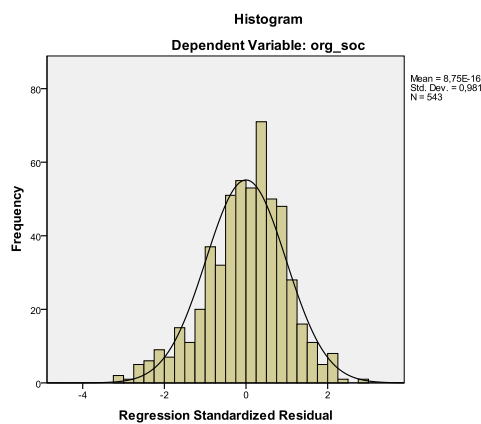


Figure 4.1 Histogram of Residuals

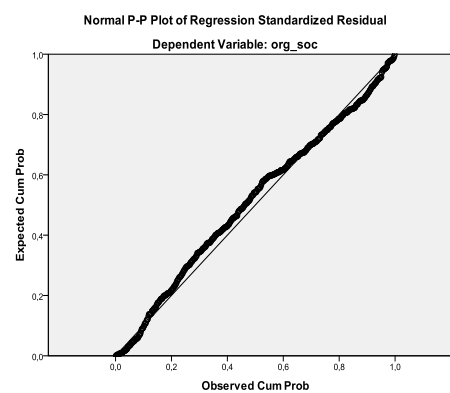


Figure 4.2 P-P Plot of Residuals

***Homoscedasticity and Linearity.*** The residual scatterplot was checked for linearity and homoscedasticity. The overall shape of the scatterplot is in the form of a rectangle if there is linearity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). It was observed in Figure 4.3 that the shape of the scatterplot could be considered to represent a rectangle despite some misfits. Thus, linearity assumption was accepted as validated for this analysis. Considering the validation of the homoscedasticity assumption, the points need to be randomly and uniformly dispersed throughout the plot (Field, 2009). Although the variance of residuals decreases towards the right side of the plot, the points in the residual scatterplot are randomly dispersed; thus, it was concluded that the assumption of homoscedasticity is validated.

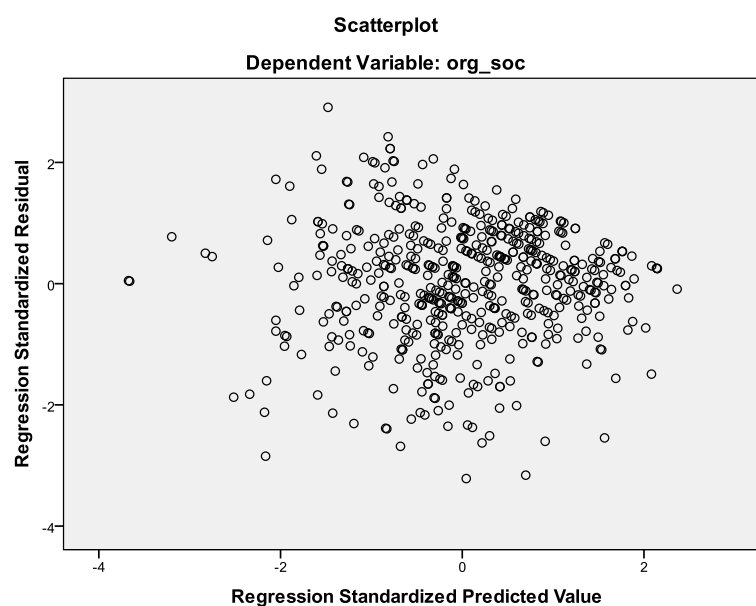


Figure 4.3 Residual Scatterplot

***Independent errors.*** It is suggested by Field (2009) that Durbin-Watson value be not greater than 3 or less than 1 so as to validate the assumption of independence of errors. Durbin-Watson value being within the ideal range (1.680), the assumption of independent errors was validated.

***No perfect multicollinearity.*** Three different ways were suggested by Field (2009) for multicollinearity check. One is scanning the correlation matrix to check whether a high correlation, i.e. correlations above .90, exists between the predictor variables. No substantial correlations ( $r > .90$ ) were observed between predictors in the correlation matrix; thus, multicollinearity assumption was validated. Checking VIF and tolerance values are the other two ways to validate multicollinearity



assumption. The findings showed that VIF values are dispersed between 1.009 and 3.735 and that tolerance values range from .268 to .991. Since the criteria values less than 5 for VIF, greater than .20 for tolerance (1/VIF) are regarded acceptable (Menard, 1995), the assumption of multicollinearity was concluded to be validated.

***Influential observations.*** Partial regression plots of each predictor were checked for multivariate outlier test, the visual inspection of which suggested that there are some multivariate outliers in the data set. Assessment of the Leverage value, Cook's distance, DFBeta values and Mahalanobis distance are the assumptions to be validated in the next step (Field, 2009). The leverage statistics exceeding the value of .50 suggests the presence of multivariate outliers. As the leverage values are within the range of .012 and .423, this assumption is validated. Cook's distance is another way of checking the assumption of influential observations. Values exceeding the value of 1 can be problematic in terms of multivariate outliers (Cook & Weisberg, 1982). The maximum Cook's distance value was observed as .04114; thus, Cook's distance also validated the assumption of influential observations. When the DFBeta values were checked for predictors, this assumption was also validated as none of the criterion values exceeded the criterion value of 2 as suggested by Stevens (2002). Finally, the assumption of influential observations was validated by checking Mahalanobis distance. At  $\alpha=.001$ , for 20 independent variables, the critical  $X^2$  value is 45.315. Since 5 of the Mahalanobis distance values in the data set exceed this critical value, this assumption of influential observations was not validated. However, on the whole, the assumption of influential observations was considered as validated since the assessments of Leverage value, Cook's distance, DFBeta values gave satisfactory results.

#### **4.4.1.2. Findings of Regression Analysis**

Table 4.4 shows the findings of hierarchical regression analysis for organization socialization. Step 1 included background variables which were university type, academic degree, years of teaching experience, and length of employment at current university. After step 1, the regression model was significant  $R^2= .024$ ,  $\Delta F(4,538) = 3.303$ . University type was a significant predictor of organization socialization in favor of private university. After adding three variables, which were pre-service, in-service training, and mentoring, in step 2, the regression

model was again significant,  $R^2 = .047$ ,  $\Delta F(3,535) = 4.234$ , and mentoring was a significant predictor of organization socialization, while pre-service or in-service training were not. After step 3, with the addition of salary, personnel rights, social, health, and sports facilities, the regression model was significant,  $R^2 = .116$ ,  $\Delta F(5,530) = 8.316$ . Salary and personnel rights are significant predictors of organization socialization. After step 4, the regression model was again significant;  $R^2 = .267$ ,  $\Delta F(1,529) = 108.776$ . The addition of knowledge share resulted in significant increment in explained variances, and this variable is quite significant in predicting organization socialization. After step 5, the regression model was still significant with the addition of job satisfaction,  $R^2 = .291$ ,  $\Delta F(1,528) = 18.054$ , and job satisfaction is a significant predictor of organization socialization. After step 6, the regression model was significant;  $R^2 = .305$ ,  $\Delta F(3,525) = 3.605$ , and affective commitment is a significant predictor of organization socialization. After step 7, the regression model was again significant;  $R^2 = .359$ ,  $\Delta F(3,522) = 14.512$ , and efficacy in instructional strategies is a significant predictor of organization socialization.

Table 4.4

*Summary of Hierarchical Analysis for Organization Socialization*

Predictor Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>R</i>	$R^2$	<i>F</i>
Step 1 Background					.16	.02	3.30**
(Constant)	5.00	.19		27.08**			
University type	.33	.13	.11	2.61**			
Education	-.12	.10	-.05	-1.19			
Work experience	.01	.01	.07	.87			
Length at uni	-.02	.01	-.12	-1.47			
Step 2 Training					.22	.05	3.74**
Pre-service	-.08	.11	-.03	-.77			
In-service	-.02	.11	-	-.21			
Mentoring	.40	.11	.16	3.54**			
Step 3 Work					.34	.12	5.79**
Salary	-.16	.07	-.17	-2.26*			
Personnel rights	.24	.07	.25	3.29**			
Social facilities	.09	.06	.10	1.55			
Health facilities	.04	.05	.04	.69			

Table 4.4 (continued)

Sports facilities	.06	.05	.07	1.20			
Step 4 Knowldg				10.43**	.52	.27	14.80**
Step 5 Job Satisfaction				4.25**	.54	.29	15.47**
Step 6 Org. Com					.55	.31	13.57**
Affective com.	.14	.05	.16	2.52*			
Normative com.	.01	.05	.01	.19			
Continuance com.	-.05	.05	-.04	-.93			
Step 7 Efficacy					.60	.36	14.60**
Student engagement	.05	.06	.05	.97			
Instructional strategies	.23	.07	.20	3.22**			
Classroom manage.	.02	.05	.02	.45			

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

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

#### 4.4.2. Research Question 2: Predictors of Department Socialization

The second research question was:

“How well do individual (academic degree, teaching experience, length of employment at current work place, job satisfaction, commitment, self-efficacy) and organizational (type of university, training, work conditions, knowledge sharing) level factors predict department socialization of English instructors at Turkish universities?”

The dependent variable was department socialization. The predictor variables were entered in 7 blocks labeled as presented in Table 3.16.

##### 4.4.2.1. Assumptions of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

The following assumptions of hierarchical regression analysis were validated before performing the regression analysis.

**Normally distributed errors.** In order to test for normality of residuals, histogram and P-P Plot of the residual were checked. When the histogram was inspected visually, a bell-shaped figure was observed (Figure 4.4). Besides, despite very slight deviations from the normal distribution, P-P plot also represented normal

distribution for the residuals (Figure 4.5). Thus, it was concluded that the assumptions of normality of residuals was validated.

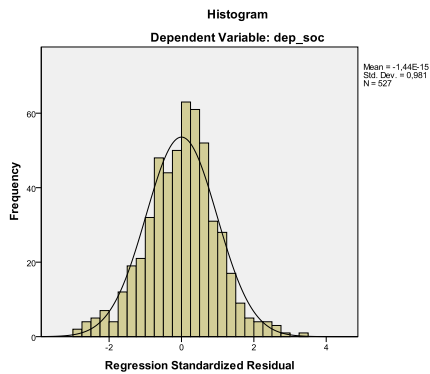


Figure 4.4 Histogram of Residuals

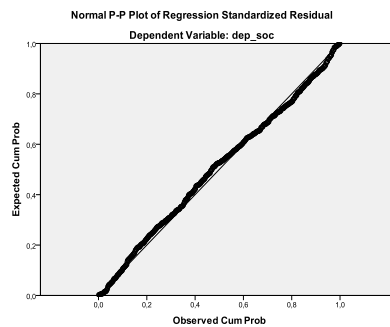


Figure 4.5 P-P Plot of Residuals

***Homoscedasticity and Linearity.*** To validate the assumption of linearity and homoscedasticity, the residual scatterplot was checked. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) stated that the overall shape of the scatterplot is in the form of a rectangle if there is linearity. The shape of the scatterplot could be considered to represent a rectangle despite few misfits (Figure 4.6). Therefore, linearity assumption was accepted as validated for this analysis. Field (2009) stated that the points need to be randomly and uniformly dispersed throughout the plot for validation of the homoscedasticity assumption. Although the variance of residuals decreases towards the right side of the plot, the points in the residual scatterplot are randomly dispersed; thus, the assumption of homoscedasticity was validated.

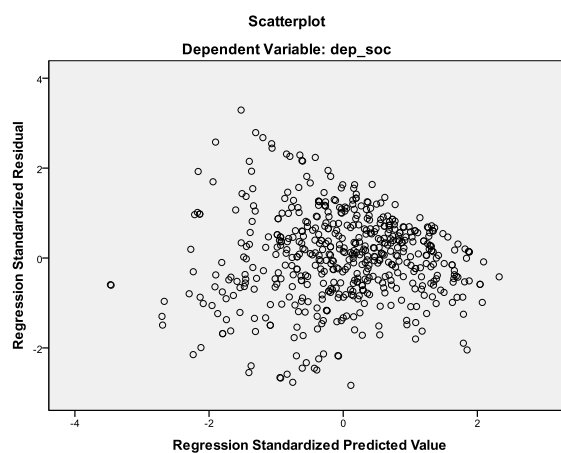


Figure 4.6 Residual Scatterplot

***Independent errors.*** Durbin-Watson value should not be greater than 3 or less than 1 so as to validate the assumption of independence of errors; and the ideal range

is 1.5 to 2.5 (Field, 2006). The assumption of independent errors was validated as Durbin-Watson value was 1.580 in this data set.

**No perfect multicollinearity.** Field (2009) suggested three different ways for multicollinearity check. One is to scan the correlation matrix to check whether a high correlation ( $r > .90$ ) exists between the predictor variables. It was observed in the correlation matrix that multicollinearity assumption was validated. Checking VIF and tolerance values are the other two ways to validate multicollinearity assumption. The findings showed that VIF values are dispersed between 1.008 and 3.824 and that tolerance values range from .261 to .993. The assumption of multicollinearity was concluded to be validated, since the criteria values less than 5 for VIF, greater than .20 for tolerance ( $1/VIF$ ) are regarded acceptable (Menard, 1995).

**Influential observations.** The visual inspection of partial regression plot of each predictor suggested that there are some multivariate outliers in the data set. The next step involves the validation of Leverage value, Cook's distance, DFBeta values and Mahalanobis distance assumptions (Field, 2009). The assumption of Leverage value was validated as the leverage values are within the range of .012 and .423. The leverage statistics exceeding the value of .50 suggests the presence of multivariate outliers. Another way of checking the assumption of influential observations is Cook's distance. Values exceeding the value of 1 can be problematic in terms of multivariate outliers (Cook & Weisberg, 1982). The maximum Cook's distance value was observed as .0299 in this data set; thus, Cook's distance also validated the assumption of influential observations. When the DFBeta values were checked for predictors, this assumption was also validated since none of the criterion values exceeded the criterion value of 2 as suggested by Stevens (2002). Mahalanobis distance was the final assumption to be validated. At  $\alpha = .001$ , for 20 independent variables, the critical  $X^2$  value is 45.315. Although there are 4 Mahalanobis distance values in the data set that exceed this critical value, this assumption of influential observations was validated as the assessments of Leverage value, Cook's distance, DFBeta values gave satisfactory results.

#### **4.4.2.2. Findings of Regression Analysis**

The findings of hierarchical regression analysis for department socialization are presented in Table 4.5. Step 1 included background variables which were

university type, academic degree, years of teaching experience, and length of employment at current university. After step 1, the regression model was not significant;  $R^2 = .008$ ,  $\Delta F (4,522) = 1.010$ . None of the variables were significant predictors of department socialization. After adding three variables in step 2, which are pre-service, in-service training, and mentoring, the regression model was significant;  $R^2 = .059$ ,  $\Delta F (3,519) = 9.346$ . Pre-service training, in-service training, and mentoring were all significant predictors of department socialization. After step 3, with the addition of salary, personnel rights, social, health, and sports facilities, the regression model was significant;  $R^2 = .168$ ,  $\Delta F (5,514) = 13.494$ . Personnel rights and social facilities are significant predictors of department socialization. After step 4, the regression model was again significant;  $R^2 = .377$ ,  $\Delta F (1,513) = 172.659$ . The addition of knowledge share resulted in significant increment in explained variances, and this variable is quite significant in predicting department socialization. After step 5, with the addition of job satisfaction, the regression model was still significant;  $R^2 = .416$ ,  $\Delta F (1,512) = 34.066$ , and job satisfaction is a significant predictor of department socialization. After step 6, the regression model was again significant;  $R^2 = .460$ ,  $\Delta F (3,509) = 13.893$ , and affective commitment is a significant predictor of organization socialization. After step 7, the regression model was significant;  $R^2 = .527$ ,  $\Delta F (3,506) = 23.924$ , and efficacy in instructional strategies and classroom management are significant predictors of department socialization. Addition of teachers' efficacy contributed to improving  $R^2$  while controlling other variables.

Table 4.5 Summary of Hierarchical Analysis for Department Socialization

Predictor Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>R</i>	$R^2$	<i>F</i>
Step 1 Background					.09	.008	1.01
(Constant)	5.35	.16		33.58**			
University type	.20	.11	.08	1.90			
Education	.008	.09	.004	.10			
Work experience	8.98	.01	.001	.009			
Length at uni	-.002	.01	-.01	-.16			
Step 2 Training					.24	.06	4.6**
Pre-service	-.29	.09	-.15	-3.35**			
In-service	.27	.10	.13	2.8**			
Mentoring	.32	.10	.15	3.3**			

Table 4.5 (continued)

Step 3 Work					.41	.17	8.6**
Salary	-.10	.06	-.12	-1.7			
Personnel rights	.19	.06	.24	3.15**			
Social facilities	.10	.05	.13	1.98**			
Health facilities	.06	.04	.07	1.3			
Sports facilities	.07	.04	.09	1.5			
Step 4 Knwldg				13.14**	.61	.38	23.92**
Step 5 Job				5.8**	.65	.42	26.07**
Step 6 Org. Com					.68	.46	25.54**
Affective com.	.23	.04	.32	5.65**			
Normative com.	-.04	.04	-.05	-.87			
Continuance com.	-.001	.04	-	-.04			
Step 7 Efficacy					.73	.53	28.24**
Student engagement	.04	.04	.05	1.05			
Instructional	.13	.05	.13	2.42*			
Classroom manage.	.12	.04	.14	3.04**			

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

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

#### 4.4.3. Research Question 3: Predictors of Task Socialization

The third research question was:

How well do individual (academic degree, teaching experience, length of employment at current work place, job satisfaction, commitment, self-efficacy) and organizational (type of university, training, work conditions, knowledge sharing) level factors predict task socialization of English instructors at Turkish universities?"

The dependent variable was department socialization. The predictor variables were entered in 7 blocks labeled as presented in Table 3.16.

##### 4.4.3.1. Assumptions of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

The following assumptions of hierarchical regression analysis were validated before performing the regression analysis.

**Normally distributed errors.** Normality of residuals was tested by checking histogram and P-P Plot of the residual. A bell-shaped figure was observed (Figure 4.7) in the visual inspection of the histogram. Additionally, P-P plot also represented normal distribution for the residuals (Figure 4.8) despite quite slight deviations from the normal distribution. Hence, the assumption of normality of residuals was validated despite quite slight deviations from the normal distribution.

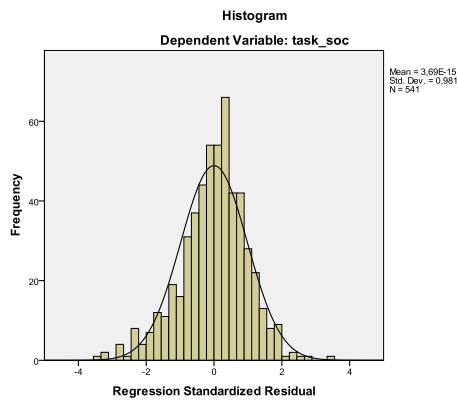


Figure 4.7 Histogram of Residuals

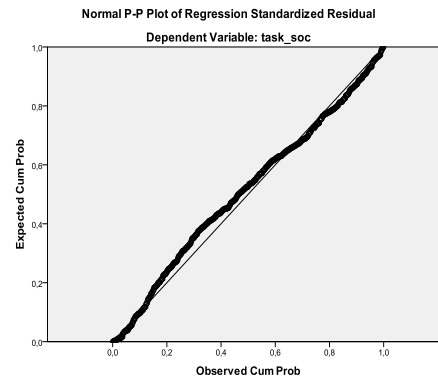


Figure 4.8 P-P Plot of Residuals

**Homoscedasticity and Linearity.** With the purpose of validating the assumption of linearity and homoscedasticity, the residual scatterplot was checked. The overall shape of the scatterplot is expected to be in the form of a rectangle if there is linearity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Although there are few misfits, the shape of the scatterplot was considered to represent a rectangle (Figure 4.9). Hence, linearity assumption was accepted as validated for this analysis. The points need to be randomly and uniformly dispersed throughout the plot for validation of the homoscedasticity assumption (Field, 2009). Although the variance of residuals decreases towards the right side of the plot, the points in the residual scatterplot are randomly dispersed; thus, the assumption of homoscedasticity was validated.



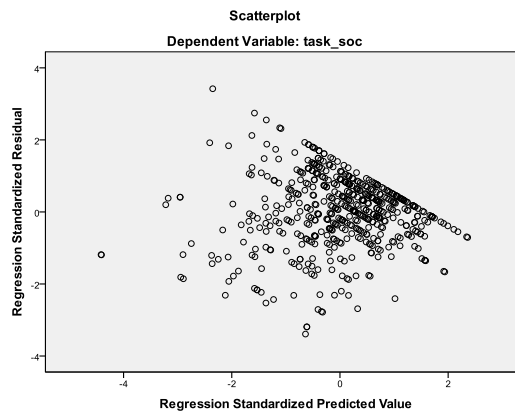


Figure 4.9 Residual Scatterplot

**Independent errors.** Durbin-Watson value should not be greater than 3 or less than 1 to validate the assumption of independence of errors (Field, 2006). In the current data set, Durbin-Watson value is 1.640). Thus, the assumption of independent errors was validated.

**No perfect multicollinearity.** Field (2009) suggests three different ways for multicollinearity check. One way is to scan the correlation matrix to check whether a high correlation, i.e. correlations  $> .90$ , exists between the predictor variables. The inspection of the correlation matrix indicates no substantial correlations ( $r > .9$ ) between predictors; hence, multicollinearity assumption was validated. The other two ways to validate multicollinearity assumption are checking VIF and tolerance values. The results revealed that VIF values range between 1.008 and 3.688 and tolerance values range between .271 and .992. As the criteria values less than 5 for VIF, and greater than .20 for tolerance ( $1/\text{VIF}$ ) are taken into consideration (Menard, 1995), the assumption of multicollinearity was concluded to be validated.

**Influential observations.** Partial regression plot of each predictor was checked for multivariate outlier test. The visual inspection of regression plots suggested that there are some multivariate outliers in the data set. The next step involves assessing Leverage value, Cook's distance, DFBeta values and Mahalanobis distance assumptions (Field, 2009). The assumption of Leverage value was validated as the leverage values are within the range of .013 and .421. Multivariate outliers exist if the leverage statistics exceed the value of .50. Cook's distance is another way of checking the assumption of influential observations. Cook and Weisberg (1982) stated that values exceeding the value of 1 can be problematic in terms of multivariate outliers. In the current data set, the maximum Cook's distance value was

.1675; thus, Cook's distance also validated the assumption of influential observations. When the DFBeta values were checked for predictors, this assumption was also validated since none of the criterion values exceeded the criterion value of 2 as suggested by Stevens (2002). Mahalanobis distance was the final assumption to be validated. At  $\alpha=.001$ , for 20 independent variables, the critical  $X^2$  value is 45.315. Despite 5 cases in the current data whose Mahalanobis distance values exceed this critical value, the assumption of influential observations is not validated considering the assessments of Leverage value, Cook's distance, DFBeta values gave satisfactory results.

#### 4.4.3.2. Findings of Regression Analysis

Table 4.6 presents the findings of hierarchical regression analysis for task socialization. Step 1 included background variables which were university type, academic degree, years of teaching experience, and length of employment at current university. After step 1, the regression model was not significant;  $R^2 = .011$ ,  $\Delta F(4,536) = 1.555$ . However, in this set the 'university type' variable makes a significant contribution to the model, and it is a predictor of task socialization. In step 2, after adding three variables, which are pre-service, in-service training, and mentoring, the regression model was significant;  $R^2 = .042$ ,  $\Delta F(3,533) = 5.707$ , and pre-service and in-service training are significant predictors of task socialization. After step 3, with the addition of salary, personnel rights, social, health, and sports facilities, the regression model was significant;  $R^2 = .091$ ,  $\Delta F(5,528) = 5.701$ , and sports facilities is a significant predictor of task socialization. After step 4, the regression model was again significant;  $R^2 = .242$ ,  $\Delta F(1,527) = 104.590$ . The addition of knowledge share resulted in significant increment in explained variances, and this variable is quite significant in predicting task socialization. After step 5, with the addition of job satisfaction, the regression model was significant;  $R^2 = .261$ ,  $\Delta F(1,526) = 13.429$ , and job satisfaction is a significant predictor of task socialization. After step 6, the regression model was still significant;  $R^2 = .278$ ,  $\Delta F(3,523) = 4.202$ . Affective commitment and normative commitment are significant predictors of task socialization. After step 7, the regression model was again significant;  $R^2 = .444$ ,  $\Delta F(3,520) = 51.557$ . Efficacy in instructional strategies and classroom management are significant predictors of task socialization; efficacy in student

engagement is also a significant predictor of task organization, but there is a negative relation between this predictor and dependent variable. Addition of teachers' efficacy contributed to improving  $R^2$  while controlling other variables.

Table 4.6

*Summary of Hierarchical Analysis for Task Socialization*

Predictor Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>R</i>	$R^2$	<i>F</i>
Step 1 Background					.11	.01	1.55
(Constant)	5.91	.14		42.86**			
University type	.22	.09	.10	2.29*			
Education	-.04	.07	-.02	-.49			
Work experience	-.007	.008	-.07	-.88			
Length at uni	.006	.009	-.05	.68			
Step 2 Training					.21	.04	3.36 **
Pre-service	-.21	.08	-.12	-2.74**			
In-service	.26	.08	.14	3.11**			
mentoring	.11	.09	.06	1.34			
Step 3 Work					.30	.09	4.4**
Salary	-.05	.05	-.07	-.98			
Personnel rights	.10	.05	.15	1.88			
Social facilities	.03	.05	.05	.67			
Health facilities	-.003	.04	-	-.08			
Sports facilities	.10	.04	.15	2.49*			
Step 4 Knwldg Sharing				10.23**	.49	.24	12.39**
Step 5 Job Satisfaction				3.67**	.51	.26	13.25**
Step 6 Org. Com					.53	.28	11.85**
Affective com.	.13	.04	.21	3.29**			
Normative com.	-.09	.04	-	-2.13*			
Continuance com.	-.04	.04	-	-.93			
Step 7 Efficacy					.67	.44	20.73**
Student engagement	-.08	.04	-	-2.04*			
Instructional strategies	.33	.05	.40	6.65**			
Classroom management	.12	.04	.16	3.32**			

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

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

## **CHAPTER V**

### **DISCUSSION**

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

#### **5.1. Study Results**

This study was designed as a correlational study. The major purpose of the study was to examine the predictors of organization, department and task socialization of English instructors including background, training, work conditions, knowledge sharing, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and efficacy variables. The participants of the study were 737 English instructors working at public and private universities.

For the purpose of the study, one self-developed scale and four pre-developed scales were used. The self-developed scale was the Turkish adaptation of Newcomer Socialization Scale of Haueter et al. (2003). The structure obtained from EFA results of the pilot study was not compatible with the structure in the original scale. Analysis of the factor loadings provided two different explanations that may account for this incompatibility. One is that English instructors do not differentiate between ‘organization’ and ‘department’ as two separate identities, instead consider ‘organization’ as ‘department.’ This may be due to unique characteristics of preparatory schools since instructors at preparatory schools do not have an opportunity for career advancement and they are not involved in research and publication. Thus, they do not place themselves within the competitive academic environment at university. The second explanation is that organizational socialization scale with six-factor structures developed by Chao et al. (1994) may be a more suitable scale to be utilized as the specific content areas of socialization are identified independently in this scale. Identifying factor loadings of the initial EFA results in the pilot study would be quite similar to the dimensions of organizational socialization scale developed by Chao et al. (1994). However, CFA results in the

main study ensured three-factor structure of Turkish adaptation of the scale as organization socialization, department socialization, and task socialization with moderate fit. CFA of pre-developed scales used in this study provided further evidence for construct validity of the scales.

Considering the results for training, a considerable number of participants were satisfied with the training they had. Being satisfied with the training meaning smooth transition to the organization and the job, this finding is consistent with the previous studies in literature. For example, Saks (1995) found that increased amount of training was important for the newcomers regardless of their pre-training self-efficacy. In another study, Louis et al. (1983) concluded that training programs were strongly related to positive newcomer attitudes. Similarly, mentoring was found to be positively related to overall socialization in a study by Allen, McManus, and Russell (1999). Despite the positive effect of training in socialization, a small proportion of instructors in this study were not satisfied with it. This could be due to uniform training programs offered for all newcomers without taking into consideration their self-efficacy beliefs. It is stated in the literature that training programs that are effective for newcomers with low self-efficacy may not be equally effective for those with high self-efficacy. As found by Gist et al. (1991), newcomers with low self-efficacy need more guidance during training programs.

The fact that the percentage of participants who were satisfied with in-service training is lower than those who were satisfied with pre-service training and mentoring could be explained with the fact that pre-service and mentoring are provided to newcomers and inexperienced teachers whose job commitment is generally high whereas in-service training is given at intervals throughout teachers' working life, and more experienced teachers may feel less committed to their job due to teacher burnout. This result can be supported with the findings of Hupia, Devos and Van Keer (2010) and Reyes (1992), who concluded that compared to less experienced teachers, more experienced teachers are less committed to the organization, which may explain less interest in in-service training. On the other hand, it is also possible that more experienced teachers may regard themselves competent enough, as a result of which they express less interest in in-service-training.

Descriptive statistics results of work conditions indicated that instructors are somewhat satisfied ( $M_{\text{Work Conditions}} = 2.86$ ) with the work conditions in their

organization. However, instructors' mean score for Knowledge Sharing Scale is much higher ( $M_{Knowledge\ Sharing} = 3.71$ ), indicating they have quite positive views about knowledge sharing opportunity in their organization. Higher level of satisfaction regarding knowledge sharing can be explained by the fact that universities give importance to disseminating knowledge and involving staff in department related issues, and thus inform the staff on a regular basis. Mission statement of most universities generally acknowledge their responsibility to disseminate knowledge, which may become widespread culture among faculty. Additionally, through widespread use of e-mail list groups within the university and department, instructors have easy access to knowledge. Oye, Salleh, and Iahad (2011) concluded in their studies about knowledge sharing in workplace that technology has a significant role in increasing productivity of knowledge sharing, adding that creation, distribution, and storage of knowledge in an accessible and expeditious way is possible through technology.

Surprisingly, the mean score of Job Satisfaction ( $M_{Job\ Satisfaction} = 4.09$ ) is higher compared to work conditions and knowledge sharing although when satisfaction with work conditions is lower, job satisfaction is expected to be lower. This could be explained by the fact that work condition is not the sole determinant of job satisfaction. Being a member of academic staff at university gives instructors a prestigious status and teaching is considered a respectable and rewarding career, which may be the other factors that lead to higher level of satisfaction among the participants in this study. In her study investigating the job satisfaction and organizational commitment of academicians working at Pamukkale University, Kök (2006) concluded that 73 % of the academicians thought their job offers the opportunity of being a respectable person in society. Similarly, 75 % of the academicians felt proud of their job, and 83 % of them liked and enjoyed their job.

Descriptive statistics results of organizational socialization indicated that on the whole instructors find themselves socialized in the profession. The highest level of socialization is to the task ( $M_{Task\ Socialization} = 6.13$ ), followed by socialization to the department ( $M_{Department\ Socialization} = 5.64$ ); and socialization to the organization ( $M_{Organization\ Socialization} = 5.33$ ) is slightly lower. This could be explained by the fact due to the nature of their job, the main concern and priority of instructors is being an effective teacher, rather than doing research. It may be also possible that instructors feel less committed because of the general belief that they are not esteemed as highly

as other lecturers in the academic environment since they do not conduct research, or they do not have to obtain a graduate degree. One of the findings in the pilot study could be considered a further support for this assumption. In the pilot study, it was concluded that instructors do not differentiate between department and organization, but consider 'organization' as 'department.'

Descriptive statistics results of organizational commitment showed that on the whole the commitment of instructors to the organization is above average, with the highest mean score of 4.98 for affective commitment, and lowest mean score of 4.03 continuance commitment. Higher mean score for affective commitment could be explained in relation to higher level of job satisfaction. It could be concluded that instructors do not feel obliged to work at their institution; instead, they are proud of working there.

Descriptive statistics results of teachers' self-efficacy revealed that in general instructors rated their efficacy quite high, with the highest mean score of 7.56 for efficacy in classroom management, and the lowest mean score of 6.93 for efficacy in student engagement. Higher mean score for efficacy in classroom management could be due to more mature student profile at university compared to secondary or high school students. Similarly, more autonomous learning environment at university may lead to slightly lower mean score for efficacy in student engagement.

The results of the correlation analysis indicated that there is a significant correlation among the predictor variables of socialization, and between the predictor variables and predicted variables except a few cases. There is no significant correlation between continuous commitment and knowledge sharing; between continuous commitment and job satisfaction; between continuous commitment and task socialization; and finally, between continuous commitment and classroom management efficacy. Since continuous commitment seems to be the factor in all correlations that are not significant, the items in this dimension of scale may be problematic. All items in this dimension of the scale carry a pessimistic tone, implying having to work in that institution because there is no other choice, which could be better than this one. On the whole, as expected, moderate correlation was observed between the variables since they are supposed to be related but measuring different dimensions.

According to the results of hierarchical regression analysis, the model is fit in predicting all three dependent variables. Considering the background variables, type

of university as public or private significantly predicted organization socialization and task socialization, but it did not predict department socialization. This could be explained by the fact in a public university, once the one-year probation period of a novice teacher is successfully completed, being thrown out of employment is possible only in case of a serious violation of the rules. However, in a private university, employment contract is renewed on a yearly basis, generally based on performance, which makes job less secure in private universities. On the other hand, educational background, work experience as a teacher, and length of employment at the current organization did not predict any type of socialization. In literature, there is inconsistency about the impact of this variable. For example, some studies found that public employees report lower organizational commitment than private sector employees (Flynn & Tannenbaum, 1993; Moon, 2000; Zeffane, 1994); however, some other studies found either the opposite (Balfour & Wechsler, 1990), or no difference (Steinhaus & Perry, 1996).

Considering training variables, the present study showed that training – whether in the form of pre-service training, in-service training or mentoring – explained 5 % of the variance in organization socialization, 6 % variance of the in department socialization, and 4 % of the variance in task socialization. This is consistent with the related studies in literature. For example, Bauer et al. (2007), and Saks et al. (2007) analyzed the relationships among the variables of organizational socialization in two separate meta-analyses, and concluded that ‘how’ newcomers learn during the socialization process has a significant effect on their job satisfaction; and it would not be wrong to state that ‘how’ newcomers learn involves the training provided to them. It was concluded in both of these meta-analyses that training and mentoring are the strongest predictors of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and retention. The results of this study indicated that having a mentor significantly predicted socialization to the organization and to the department. This result is consistent with the study of Allen et al. (1999), which examined formal peer developmental relationships within a graduate academic setting. Allen et al. (1999) found that mentoring contributes to the successful socialization of newcomers. Although Chao et al. (1992) did not find a significant relationship between mentoring and performance proficiency dimension of socialization, Allen et al. (1999) concluded that psychosocial mentoring helped newcomers improve their work performance. It was suggested in the same study that mentors can help newcomers



learn to become an effective and efficient member of the group. In another study, Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) found that mentoring facilitates socialization within the organizational domain. In another study about the relation between mentoring and socialization, Cawyer, Simonds, and Davis (2002) found that mentoring relationships facilitated socialization since they allow newcomers to establish interpersonal bonds, and receive support and advice from experienced colleagues. On the other hand, Louis et al. (1983) concluded that training made a modest contribution to newcomer's development when compared to other socialization practices.

The results of this study indicated that having in-service training significantly predicted socialization to the department and to the task, but surprisingly, having had pre-service training significantly predicts socialization to the department and to the task in a negative direction. High sense of self-efficacy of instructors seems to be the only explanation for this negative relation. Referring to the findings of Gist et al. (1991) about the relation between training, efficacy, and socialization, training of newcomers may not be equally effective for all newcomers since it depends on newcomers' level of self-efficacy.

Considering work condition variables in the model, it was found that salary and personnel rights significantly predicted socialization to the organization, but there is a negative relation between salary and socialization to the organization; personnel rights and social facilities significantly predicted socialization to the department; sports facilities significantly predicted socialization to the task. The fact that financial incentives make an employer highly motivated to their job and organization may explain the relation between the predictors of financial incentives, and socialization to the organization and socialization to the department. However, this contradicts with the negative relation between salary and socialization to the organization. This calls for further research in this regard. Since the majority of participants in this study are females, availability of kindergarten is crucial, which may explain the relation between social facilities and socialization to the department. Kindergarten was given as an example for social facilities in the inventory. Furthermore, the fact that healthy life style and being fit is the current trend may explain the relation between the availability of sports facilities and socialization to the task. However, the fact that the availability of social facilities significantly predicts socialization to the department and the availability of sports facilities

significantly predicts socialization to the task need to be investigated in further research.

The results indicated that knowledge sharing explained the highest percentage of the variance in all three types of socialization. Knowledge sharing significantly predicted socialization to the organization, to the department, and to the task. In other words, the more knowledge instructors have about their organization, department, and task, the more socialized they become in these dimensions. This finding is consistent with the previous studies in literature. For example, in a meta-analytic review of antecedents and outcomes of socialization, Bauer et al. (2007) found that information seeking, which could be realized through the availability of knowledge sharing, is a significant antecedent of socialization. Beforehand, Saks and Ashforth (1997) had also proposed that information seeking is an antecedent of socialization. Knowledge means reduced uncertainty, and it represents power as it is an important source of competitive advantage in this information age (Iqbal et al., 2011). In an empirical study of higher education institutions in Pakistan, Iqbal, Toulson, and Tweed (2011) investigated how human resources management practices affected organizational capabilities when mediated by knowledge sharing practices, and concluded that human resource management is positively correlated with employees' knowledge sharing, and interrelated with organizational capability. Additionally, Tidwell and Sias (2005) describe information seeking, which may occur when knowledge sharing is available, as a self-socialization process. In another study, Ramasamy and Thamaraiselvan (2011) examined the relation between organizational citizenship behavior and knowledge sharing, and concluded that there is a significant and positive relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and knowledge sharing.

As for job satisfaction variable in the model, hierarchical regression analysis results showed that job satisfaction significantly predicted socialization to the organization, to the department, and to the task. Thus, it can be concluded that instructors who are highly satisfied with their job are better socialized. In their study about the changes in job satisfaction over time, Boswell et al. (2009) concluded that change pattern of job satisfaction depends on previous job experience and fulfillment of commitments, adding that newcomers' job satisfaction makes a peak after the entry, but drops down and remain steady afterwards. Boswell et al. (2009) found that experiencing less or more socialization is a critical factor in this sense; and being

socialized may certainly help to facilitate a positive reaction to the job. In another study, Kök (2006) stated that psychological and physical conditions related to the job, and the extent to which these conditions meet the individuals' expectations determine job satisfaction. In her empirical analysis, Kök (2006) concluded that two most significant factors that reduce job satisfaction are insufficient level of payment and the academic environment where career advancement is not enforced according to scientific and objective criteria.

Considering organizational commitment variables, the findings in this study indicated that affective commitment significantly predicted socialization to the organization, to the department, and to the task. However, the majority of studies in literature related to commitment indicate commitment as an outcome of socialization. For example, the findings of a study about affective organizational commitment by Stazyk et al. (2011) indicated that that role ambiguity decreases affective organizational commitment. Considering that the practices of socialization involve reducing role ambiguity among newcomers, affective organizational commitment may be considered its outcome. Similarly, Wiener (1988) theorized commitment to be an outcome of socialization, and the research of Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Davis-LaMastro (1990) supported this theory of Wiener. Additionally, Caldwell, et al. (1990) found that employees are committed to organizational values when there are intensive socialization practices. Also, Allen and Meyer (1991) concluded in their study that cultural socialization is antecedent to commitment. However, contrary to these research results, the finding in this study that affective commitment significantly predicted socialization makes sense. The items related to affective commitment in the scale used in this study involves the individual's attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. It could be concluded that when individuals are high in this commitment, they will be motivated to learn more about the organization, department, and task; thus, better socialized.

The findings of this study also indicated that normative commitment significantly but negatively predicted task socialization. Wiener (1982, p. 421) defined commitment as "the totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way that meets organizational interests." Ok (2007, p. 7) commented on Wiener's definition stating that "according to this definition, commitment is a moral construct, and it is proposed that one's commitment to the organization is determined by pre- and post-employment socialization referring that commitment initially develops as a

result of socialization in a specific culture and family and then in the organization. This view of commitment refers to the normative commitment.” Similarly, Cladwell, Chatman, and O’Reilly (1990) showed that normative commitment is observed high in organizations with strong cultures, and it would not be wrong to assume that universities are more liberal institutions compared to most other organizations, so imposing a strong culture is not the case, which may explain the negative relation between normative commitment and task socialization. Moreover, since the items related to normative commitment in the scale used in this study involve the feeling of obligation to remain with the organization, the negative – significant relation could be interpreted such that instructors are socialized to their task not because they feel obliged to; and thus, one explanation remains, which is because they like it, and they want to become effective teachers.

Finally, the results of this study indicated that self-efficacy for instructional strategies and self-efficacy for classroom management significantly predicted task socialization while self-efficacy for student engagement significantly but negatively predicted socialization to the task. The items in the scale related to self-efficacy for instructional strategies and classroom management indicate how competent, resourceful and knowledgeable instructors regard themselves as a teacher, and how capable they are in providing ideal teaching environment in the classroom, and dealing with difficult students and discipline problems. For example, two items of self-efficacy for instructional strategies were “How satisfactory answers can you give to difficult questions of students?” and “How well can you use various assessment methods?” An example item for classroom management was “How successful are you at making sure that students obey the rules in class?.” Instructors’ higher level of confidence in these respects shall indicate their socialization to the task. This is consistent with other studies in literature. In their study about the nature of the relationship between teaching concerns and sense of efficacy, Boz and Boz (2010) found that the teachers who believe their efficacy is weaker tend to have more concerns about teaching. Surprisingly, instructors’ self-efficacy for student engagement predicted task socialization in a negative way. Items in the scale for this dimension had questions related to pedagogical aspect of teaching, like motivating students; thus, a possible explanation could be that instructors who feel less secure about student engagement efficacy could attempt to be more socialized to the task to compensate for this. Another possible explanation could be that in more autonomous

learning environment at university, instructors' priority for efficacy is not motivating them; however, this still calls for further research in this regard.

In this study, self-efficacy for instructional strategies and self-efficacy for classroom management significantly predicted department socialization; and self-efficacy for instructional strategies significantly predicted socialization to the organization. This seems to be in line with other studies in literature. For example, Bauer et al. (2007) concluded that self-efficacy has a mediator role between socialization efforts by the organization and task performance. The results of the same study also suggested that newcomers whose sense of self-efficacy is high try to define the situations themselves even when their roles or progressions in organizations are prescribed, from which it could be concluded that those with high sense of self-efficacy tend to socialize to the organization and department more easily.

The complexity of the socialization process has impeded detailed investigation of the factors that affect this process, and most research in the field has focused on individual level variables that affect the process (Haser & Kondakçı, 2011). This study focused on both organizational and individual level variables that have an impact on socialization. As shown in Figure 5.1 - in order of significance -, several organizational and individual level of factors significantly predict socialization to the organization, socialization to the department, and socialization to the task. Among organizational level factors, knowledge sharing and training are the most significant predictors of socialization, and among the individual level predictors, job satisfaction is the most significant predictor of socialization. The existing literature also supports the significance of most of these predictors. However, it may be necessary to explore alternative predictors of socialization with future research.

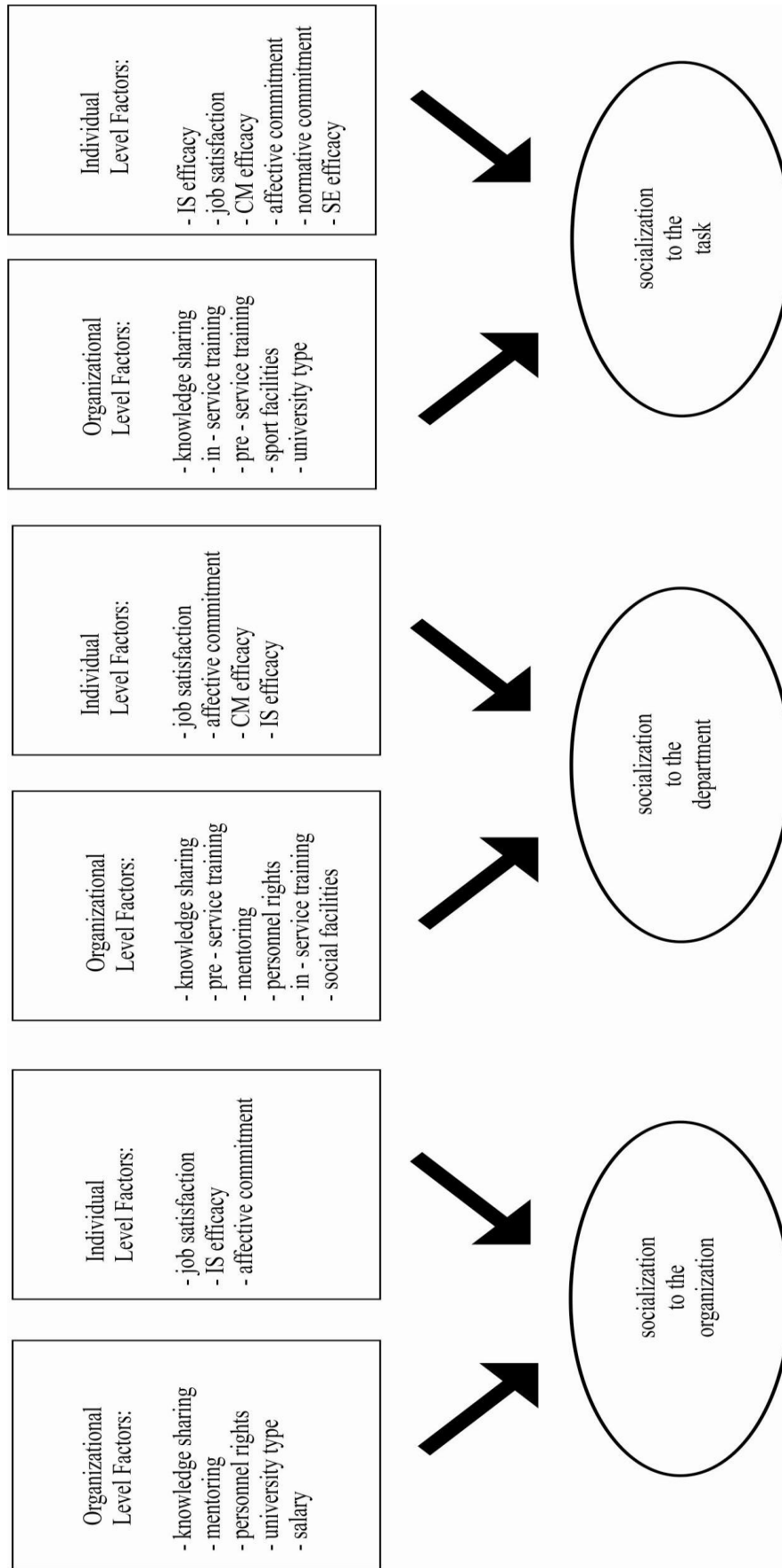


Figure 5.1 Predictors of organizational socialization

## **5.2. Implications for Practice**

Since socialization of faculty is a dynamic and complex process affected by both organizational and individual level variables, it needs to be managed effectively. Higher level of socialization of faculty eventually leads to increasing quality of education given to students in preparatory schools. In this respect, the variables that predict socialization of instructors need to be investigated. This study provides empirical evidence on the variables that determine instructors' socialization.

With regard to practice, this study indicated that among organizational level factors, which are type of university, training, work conditions, and knowledge sharing, the best predictor of socialization to the organization, to the department, and to the task is knowledge sharing. Among the individual level factors, which are academic degree, teaching experience, length of employment at current work place, job satisfaction, commitment, and self-efficacy, job satisfaction is the best predictor of socialization to the organization and to the department, while it is the second best predictor of socialization to the task. The self-efficacy for instructional strategies is the best predictor of task socialization. Therefore, practitioners should focus on finding out ways for encouraging and increasing knowledge sharing both in the organization and in the department, and increasing job satisfaction among instructors since they seem to be critical variables in predicting how well instructors are socialized in all these dimensions, which in turn, shall determine how less likely they are to leave their job voluntarily, and how high likely to exhibit greater productivity (Kramer, 2010; Schein, 1985).

Additionally, self-efficacy of instructors for instructional strategies could be increased through appropriate training programs in order to make instructors feel competent, resourceful and knowledgeable as a teacher. Training programs, whether in the form of pre-service, in-service or mentoring, also predict all dimensions of socialization significantly. However, practitioners should consider the self-efficacy beliefs of instructors while designing training programs since those with low self-efficacy need more guidance during training programs, and certain methods of training may have limited value for instructors with strong self-efficacy (Gist et al., 1991).

Another important point is that affective commitment of instructors significantly predicts their organizational socialization. Since affective commitment, also expressed as 'desire', is related to emotional attachment to, identification with, involvement in their organization and its goals, practitioners should consider implementing the management and leadership style that would lead to increasing affective commitment. The desire to maintain membership in an organization stems from work experiences; and employees who have a strong affective commitment continue employment because they really want to do so (Ünüvar, 2006), because they think the management and the leader is fair to them.

Still another important point is related to instructors' feeling of resentment about not being esteemed highly enough in the academic environment. Compared to socialization to their department and task, instructors are less socialized to the organization. In this respect, practitioners should take necessary measures to get instructors involved in issues outside the department within the university, which would decrease the feeling of alienation and increase the feeling of ownership for the university-wide issues. Furthermore, it was noted in this study that instructors are socialized to the organization not because of the salary. Since non-material incentives seem to matter to contribute to socialization, practitioners should find ways to create opportunities to emphasize appreciation of instructors' work, and to make them feel the respectable aspect of being a teacher and working at a university.

Theoretically, this study provides a broad understanding of socialization process itself and the factors that affect the socialization process of English instructors at university preparatory schools. Moreover, this study contributes to the literature by identifying predictors of socialization to the organization, to the department, and to the task. Since higher education institutions have certain distinctive characteristics different from business organizations, the findings of this study provide empirical evidence about the importance of certain organizational and individual level variables in this context. As there is limited research investigating content, environment and process dimensions of socialization in an integrated fashion, this study calls attention of both department heads and university authorities to revise their induction programs and policies.



With regard to research, this study contributed in the validation of the adapted Turkish version of three-dimensional Organizational Socialization Scale with a considerable sample size, and was presented for the use of the researchers interested in the field. Additionally, although confirmatory factor analysis of the scale ensured three-dimensional structure as proposed in the literature, exploratory factor analysis of the scale in the pilot study also provided evidence for a better suitability of another socialization scale in which specific content areas of socialization are identified independently. Thus, researchers may consider developing or making Turkish adaptation of another socialization scale with more specifically identified content areas of socialization.

### **5.3. Recommendations for Further Research**

Considering the shortcomings of this study, some recommendations for future studies are as following:

Firstly, in the present study, data were collected from 4 cities in Turkey, and one city in Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. Further studies can collect data from a wider geographical area in Turkey, including the Eastern and Northern regions, which will provide a better insight about the predictors of socialization.

Additionally, this study was designed as a quantitative research; however, qualitative research studies could be conducted to have a better understanding of the predictors of socialization.

Furthermore, although this study examined predictors of organizational socialization considering a number of both organizational and individual variables, there may be other alternative variables important for socialization, such as collective efficacy, medium of instruction at the university as Turkish or English, and length of time instructors have the same class of students during the academic year. What instructors think about the ability of the team and the faculty of teachers in the department may influence their self-efficacy beliefs, which may also influence their socialization. Additionally, this study included instructors from both English medium and Turkish medium universities, which may be another variable affecting the level of socialization. However, English-medium of university or Turkish-medium university was not included in this study as a variable. Further studies need to explore this variable. Besides, universities have differing schedules for instructors at

preparatory schools. For example, at some universities, instructors have the same class of students for one term whereas in some others, instructors have a new class of students every eight weeks, which may also influence the extent of socialization. Further studies should investigate the impact of this variable.

A negative relation was found in this study between the salary of instructors and socialization to the organization. Since financial incentives are known to promote positive attitudes towards one's job, the underlying reasons for this negative relation need to be explored. Also, empirical evidence should be obtained in further studies to explore the positive relation between social facilities available at the university and socialization to the department, as well as the positive relation between sports facilities and socialization to the task.

Finally, more studies need to be carried out with data collected from different populations to ensure the validity of the Turkish adaptation of Organizational Socialization Scale (OSS), as well as using another socialization scale in which specific content areas of socialization are identified independently. CFA results of Turkish adaptation of OSS barely provided mediocre fit, which may result from the fact that the participants in this study formed a rather homogeneous group, each being an English instructor at university. A similar problem is also noted with the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS). CFA results of OCS barely provided mediocre fit, and reliability of continuance commitment sub-scale is rather low. Also, though few in number, there are some rather low factor loadings. Wasti stated that there are theoretical and methodological problems both with the original scale and the Turkish adaptation, adding that lack of alternatives and high perceived costs show better fit in CFA as two separate concepts, and that lack of alternatives needs to be considered as an antecedent of organizational commitment. More studies need to be carried out regarding theoretical and methodological problems with the OCS.

All of the above suggestions for further research are expected to contribute to deeper understanding of relations between organizational and individual level variables, and socialization, as well as providing a better insight into the network of relations among the variables.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A

#### Öğretim Elemanlarının Toplumsallaşması Anketi

Değerli katılımcı,

Bu çalışma ODTÜ öğretim görevlisi Fatma Ataman'ın doktora tezi kapsamında yapılmakta ve Yrd. Doç. Dr. Yaşar Kondakçı'nın danışmanlığında yürütülmektedir. Bu çalışma Ankara, Eskişehir ve Konya da seçilmiş üniversitelerde çalışan öğretim elemanlarının mesleki toplumsallaşmalarını (sosyalizasyon) ve mesleki toplumsallaşmalarını yordayan faktörleri incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. En geniş anlamıyla toplumsallaşma yeni iş ortamına uyumu sağlayan kurumdaki değerlerin, davranış biçimlerinin ve sosyal bilginin alınması ve içselleştirilmesini ifade eder. Birey, bölüm ve kurum düzeyinde farklı faktörlerin bu sürece etkisi bulunmaktadır. Hem mesleki toplumsallaşmanın incelenmesi hem de mesleki toplumsallaşmayı yordayan faktörlerin ortaya konmasıyla, bu çalışmanın sonuçlarının göreve yeni başlayan öğretim elemanlarının kurumlarındaki toplumsallaşma süreçlerini olumlu etkileyecek öneriler geliştirilmesine katkı sağlaması hedeflenmektedir. Dolayısıyla çalışmanın sonuçları, yeni göreve başlayan öğretim elemanlarının buldukları kurumlara uyumlarının arttırılmasına ve bölümlerinin/kurumlarının uyum sürecini etkin bir hale getirmesine yönelik önermelerde bulunabilecektir.

Bu formda, yukarıda belirtilen amaca yönelik ifadeleri içeren bir anket bulunmaktadır. Anketin tamamının cevaplandırılması yaklaşık 20 dakika sürmektedir. Anketin her bir kısmındaki ifadeleri okuyup, kendi durumunuzu, gözlemlerinizi ve düşüncelerinizi göz önüne alarak sizi en iyi yansıtan tercihleri işaretlemenizi rica ederiz.



Bu çalışmaya katılım gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Anket formuna kimliğinizi açık edecek herhangi bir bilgi yazmanız gerekmemektedir. Katılımcıların sağladıkları bilgiler sadece araştırmacılar tarafından incelenecektir ve sadece bilimsel amaçla kullanılacaktır. Elde edilecek bilgiler başka hiçbir amaç için kullanılmayacak ve başka kişi ve kurumlarla paylaşılmayacaktır. Anket, genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek soruları içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz, cevaplama işini yarıda bırakıp çıkmakta serbestsiniz. Böyle bir durumda anketi uygulayan kişiye, anketi tamamlamadığınızı söylemek yeterli olacaktır. Anket sonunda, bu çalışmayla ilgili sorularınız cevaplanacaktır. Araştırmacılara sormak istediğiniz ek bilgiler için aşağıdaki iletişim adresini kullanabilirsiniz.

Çalışmaya sağladığınız katkı için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

*Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.* (Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri veriniz).

Adı Soyadı

Tarih

İmza

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.....

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**Doktora Öğrencisi**

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## BÖLÜM I: GENEL BİLGİLER

1. Eğitim düzeyiniz  Lisans  
 Yüksek Lisans  
 Doktora
2. Yaşınız : \_\_\_\_\_
3. Cinsiyetiniz :  Kadın  Erkek
4. Kaç yıldır okutman/öğretim görevlisi/İngilizce öğretmeni olarak çalışıyorsunuz? : \_\_\_\_\_
5. Kaç yıldır bu kurumda çalışıyorsunuz? : \_\_\_\_\_

## BÖLÜM II: KURUMA HAZIRLIK

Aşağıda bir kurumun göreve yeni başlayanlara sağladığı eğitim olanaklarına yönelik sorular yer almaktadır. Lütfen, öncelikle söz konusu eğitimin kurumunuzda olup olmadığını (“Evet” “Hayır” seçeneklerinden birini işaretleyerek) belirtiniz. “Evet” cevabı verdiğiniz sorular için, eğitimden **memnuniyet derecenizi** (“1-hiç memnun değilim” ve “5-çok memnunum” olmak üzere), sizin durumunuzu en iyi yansıtan seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

1. Çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumda göreve başlamadan önce hizmet içi eğitim aldınız mı? :  Evet  
 Hayır

2. Cevabınız evet ise memnuniyet dereceniz nedir? (“1-hiç memnun değilim” ve “5-çok memnunum” olmak üzere sizin durumunuzu en iyi yansıtan seçeneği işaretleyiniz).

Hiç memnun  
değilim  
1  2  3  4  5  Çok

3. Çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumda göreve başladıktan sonra hizmet içi eğitim aldınız mı?

:  Evet  
 Hayır

4. Cevabınız evet ise memnuniyet dereceniz nedir? (“1-hiç memnun değilim” ve “5-çok memnunum” olmak üzere sizin durumunuzu en iyi yansıtan seçeneği işaretleyiniz).

Hiç memnun  
değilim  
1  2  3  4  5  Çok memnunum

5. Çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumda göreve başladıktan sonra mentorluk (mentoring) desteği aldınız mı?

:  Evet  Hayır

6. Cevabınız evet ise memnuniyet dereceniz nedir? (“1-hiç memnun değilim” ve “5-çok memnunum” olmak üzere sizin durumunuzu en iyi yansıtan seçeneği işaretleyiniz).

Hiç memnun  
değilim  
1  2  3  4  5  Çok memnunum

### BÖLÜM III: KURUM KOŞULLARI

Aşağıda işinizle ilgili bazı olanaklara yönelik maddeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen her bir maddeyi okuyarak memnuniyet derecenizi (“**1-hiç memnun değilim**” ve “**5-çok memnunum**” olmak üzere), sizin durumunuzu en iyi yansıtan seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

	Hiç memnun değilim				Çok memnunum
1. Aldığım maaş	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2. Özlük haklarım (ör. maaş, yolluk, ek ders ücretleri)	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3. Kurumdaki sosyal olanaklar (ör. sosyal tesisler, kreş vb.)	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
4. Kurumdaki sağlık olanakları	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
5. Kurumdaki spor olanakları	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

### BÖLÜM IV: BİLGİ PAYLAŞIMI ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıda çalıştığımız bölümde bilgi paylaşımı hakkında bazı ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen, her bir ifadeyi okuyarak, (“**1-hiç katılmıyorum**” ve “**5-tamamen katılıyorum**” olmak üzere) şu anda sizin durumunuzu en iyi yansıtan seçeneği (X) ile işaretleyiniz.

İfadelerde yer alan “bölüm” ibaresi ile çalıştığınız birim veya bölüm (Örnek, Temel İngilizce Bölümü) kastedilmektedir.

	Hiç					Tamamen
	1	2	3	4	5	
	1	2	3	4	5	
1. Bu bölümde geniş bir bilgi paylaşımı mevcuttur.	1	2	3	4	5	
2. Bu bölümde ihtiyaç duyduğum bilgiye hızlı bir şekilde ulaşabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	
3. Bu bölümde hangi bilgiyi nereden alacağımı çok iyi bilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	
4. Bu bölümde ihtiyaç duyduğum bilgiye doğrudan ulaşmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5	
5. Bu bölümde bilgi paylaşımını sağlayacak resmi mekanizmalar vardır.	1	2	3	4	5	

## BÖLÜM V: İŞ TATMİNİ ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıda işiniz ile ilgili duygularınız hakkında bazı ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen, her bir ifadeyi okuyarak, (“**1-hiç katılmıyorum**” ve “**5-tamamen katılıyorum**” olmak üzere) şu anda sizin durumunuzu en iyi yansıtan seçeneği (X) ile işaretleyiniz.

	Hiç					Tamamen
	1	2	3	4	5	
	1	2	3	4	5	
1. Yaptığım işin olumlu yanları olumsuz yanlarından çok daha fazladır.	1	2	3	4	5	
2. Yaptığım işle gurur duyuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	
3. Yaptığım iş bana ilham verir.	1	2	3	4	5	
4. İşimi her zaman büyük bir şevkle yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5	
5. Her sabah işime gitmekten mutluluk duyuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	
6. Kendimi işimle bütünleşmiş hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5	

## BÖLÜM VI: KURUMSAL TOPLUMSALLAŞMA ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıda çalışma ortamınıza ve yaptığınız işe yönelik bazı ifadeler yer almaktadır.

Lütfen, her bir ifadeyi okuyarak, (“1-hiç katılmıyorum” ve “7-tamamen katılıyorum” olmak üzere) şu anda sizin durumunuzu en iyi yansıtan seçeneği (X) ile işaretleyiniz.

İfadelerde yer alan “kurum” ibaresi ile çalıştığınız üniversite, “bölüm” ibaresi ise çalıştığınız birim veya bölüm (Örnek, Temel İngilizce Bölümü) kastedilmektedir.

	Hiç katılmıyorum	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Tamamen katılıyorum
1. Bu kurumun ürettiği/sağladığı ürünlerin/hizmetlerin isimlerini biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
2. Bölümümün kurumun hedeflerine nasıl katkıda bulunduğunu biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
3. Hangi sorumluluk, görev ve projeler için işe alındığımı biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
4. Bu kurumun tarihçesini biliyorum (ör. Ne zaman ve kim tarafından kuruldu, özgün ürün ve hizmetler).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
5. Kurumun yapısını biliyorum (ör. Bölümlerarası ilişkiler).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
6. Bölümümün hedeflerini biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
7. İşimin gereği olan görevleri nasıl yapmam gerektiğini biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

8. Bu kurumun nasıl işlediğini biliyorum (ör. Kim ne iş yapıyor, birim ve bölümler kuruma nasıl katkı yapıyor. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. Bu kurumun hedeflerini biliyorum. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. İşimde kabul edilebilir performans düzeyinin ne olduğunu biliyorum (başka bir deyişle, bölüm başkanın ve/veya hizmet verdiğim kişilerin benden ne beklediğini biliyorum). 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. Bölümümün diğer bölümlerle ilişkisini biliyorum. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12. Bu kurumun genel stratejisini biliyorum. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13. Bölümümde çalışanların çoğunluğunu tanıyorum. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14. İşimde hangi görev ve sorumlulukların öncelikli olduğunu biliyorum. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15. Kurumdaki değişik birim ve bölümlerin kurumun hedeflerine nasıl katkıda bulunduğunu biliyorum. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. Bölümümdeki her bir çalışanın bölüme getirdiği uzmanlığı (ör. beceri, bilgi, yetkinlik) biliyorum. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. İşim ile ilgili araç ve gereçleri nasıl kullanacağımı biliyorum (fotokopi makinesi, bilgisayar, projektör, yazılım, vb.). 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18. Yaptığım işleri bölüm standartlarına uygun olarak nasıl yapacağımı biliyorum. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19. Benim yaptığım işin kuruma nasıl katkıda bulunduğunu biliyorum. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20. Bölümümdeki her bir çalışanın üretilen hizmete katkısını biliyorum. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

	<b>Hiç katılmıyorum</b>							<b>Tamamen katılıyorum</b>
21. İşimi yapmak için gerekli kaynakları (ör. donanım, araç-gereç, sarf malzemesi) nasıl elde edeceğimi biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
22. Yaptığım işi değerli buluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
23. Kurumdaki performans değerlendirme ölçütlerini biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
24. Bölümümün değer ve idealleriyle nasıl tutarlı biçimde davranacağımı biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
25. Kurumun değer verdiği ve inandığı şeylere uyum sağlamak için nasıl davranmam gerektiğini biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
26. Bölüm başkanının çalışanlardan ne beklediğini biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
27. Gerektiğinde işimle ilgili kimden yardım isteyeceğimi biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
28. Bölümümdeki politikaları, kuralları ve usulleri biliyorum (ör. devamlılık, katılım).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
29. Yaptığım işimde uzun süre çalışmak istiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
30. Bölümümde benden deneyimli olan meslektaşlarımdan nasıl profesyonel destek alabileceğimi biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
31. Yaptığım iş ile ilgili olarak amirimi (bölüm başkanı, koordinatör vb.) ne zaman bilgilendireceğimi biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	



32. Bu kurumun genel politikalarını ve/veya kurallarını biliyorum (ör. Geliş-gidiş saatlerini, kılık kıyafet yönetmeliği, izin hakları, ücretlendirme/özlük hakları, harcırah olanakları, sosyal olanaklar, vb.). 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
33. Bölümümde yönetim kademesine nasıl yükselebileceğimi biliyorum. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
34. Kurumda üst yönetimle nasıl iletişime geçileceğini biliyorum. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
35. Hizmet verdiğim kişilerin (öğrenciler, diğer bölümler, diğer akademisyenler) kim olduklarını biliyorum. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
36. Bölüm başkanının yönetim yaklaşımını biliyorum (ör. kontrolcü, iş yönelimli, çalışan yönelimli, desteleyici, talepkar, katılımcı gibi ). 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
37. Bu kurumdaki güç dengelerini biliyorum (ör. hiyerarşik yapı, alt gruplar, kimin etkili olduğu, itibarı korumak ve geliştirmek için ne yapılması gerektiği). 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
38. Hizmet verdiğim kişilerin bana değer verdiğini düşünüyorum. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
39. Bölümümdeki rolümü biliyorum. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
40. Hizmet verdiğim kişilerin ihtiyaçlarını nasıl karşılayacağımı biliyorum. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

	<b>Hiç katılmıyorum</b>							<b>Tamamen katılıyorum</b>
41. Bu kurumdaki genel yönetim yaklaşımını (ör. merkeziyetçi, katılımcı gibi) biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
42. Çalışanların kuruma özgü dili (ör. kısaltmalar, takma adlar, yaygın kullanılan kelimeler) kullandıklarında ne demek istediklerini anlıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
43. Görev tanımım dışında benden yapılması istenen işleri yapmaktan kaçınmayacağımı düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
44. Bölümümdeki güç dengelerini biliyorum (ör. kimin sözünün geçtiği, iyi konumu ilerletmek veya korumak için ne yapılması gerektiği).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
45. Görevimi yapma sürecinde gerekli formları/evrakları nasıl dolduracağımı biliyorum (ör. zaman çizelgesi, izin formu, harcama raporları, bilgisayar erişim formları).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
46. Bu kurumun sunduğu olanaklara (lojman, sağlık hizmeti, spor olanakları) nasıl ulaşacağımı biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
47. Bölümümde kendimi yabancı hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

## BÖLÜM VII: KURUMSAL BAĞLILIK ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıdaki cümleler kişilerin çalıştıkları kurum hakkında çeşitli duygu ve fikirlerini yansıtmaktadır. Lütfen, her bir ifadeyi okuyarak, (“1-hiç katılmıyorum” ve “7-tamamen katılıyorum” olmak üzere) şu anda çalıştığınız üniversite açısından ne ölçüde katıldığınızı yansıtan seçeneği (X) ile işaretleyiniz.

İfadelerde yer alan “kurum” ibaresi ile çalıştığınız üniversite kastedilmektedir.

	Hiç katılmıyorum	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Tamamen katılıyorum
1. Meslek hayatımın kalan kısmını bu kurumda geçirmek beni çok mutlu eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. Şu anda kurumumda kalmam mecburiyetten.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. Daha iyi bir imkan çıkarsa, mevcut kurumumdan ayrılmamın ayıp olmadığını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. Kurumuma karşı güçlü bir aitlik hissim yok.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. İstesem de, şu anda kurumumdan ayrılmak benim için çok zor olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. Bu kurumun benim için çok kişisel (özel) bir anlamı var.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. Bu işyerinden ayrılıp burada kurduğum kişisel ilişkileri bozmam doğru olmaz.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. Şu anda kurumumdan ayrılmak istediğime karar versem, hayatımın çoğu alt üst olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. Yeni bir işyerine alışmak benim için zor olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. Bu kurumun meselelerini gerçekten de kendi meselelerim gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

11. Bu kuruma kendimi “duygusal olarak bağı” hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Buradaki işimi kendi özel işim gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Başka bir işyerinin buradan daha iyi olacağına garantisiz, burayı hiç olmazsa biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Kurumuma çok şey borçluyum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Bu işyerinden ayrılıp başka bir yerde sıfırdan başlamak istemezdim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Buradaki insanlara karşı yükümlülük hissettiğim için kurumumdan şu anda ayrılmazdım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Biraz daha fazla para için mevcut işyerimi değiştirmeyi ciddi olarak düşünmezdim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Kendimi kurumumda “ailenin bir parçası” gibi hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Benim için avantajlı da olsa, kurumumdan şu anda ayrılmanın doğru olmadığını hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Bu kuruma sadakat göstermenin görevim olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Kurumum maddi olarak zor durumda olsa bile, sonuna kadar kalırdım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Bu kurumdan ayrılmanın az sayıdaki olumsuz sonuçlarından biri alternatif kılığı olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Bu kuruma gönül borcu hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Bu kurumun bir çalışanı olmanın gurur verici olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

25. Mevcut işverenimle kalmak için hiçbir manevi yükümlülük hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Bu kurumu bırakmayı düşünemeyecek kadar az seçeneğim olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Bu kurumun amaçlarını benimsiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Bu kurum sayesinde ekmek parası kazanıyorum, karşılığında sadakat göstermeliyim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Eğer bu kuruma kendimden bu kadar çok vermiş olmasaydım, başka yerde çalışmayı düşünebilirdim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Mevcut kurumumdan ayrılıp birlikte çalıştığım insanları yarı yolda bırakmak istemem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. Kurumumdan şimdi ayrılısam kendimi suçlu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. Zaman geçtikçe mevcut kurumumdan ayrılmanın gittikçe zorlaştığını hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. Bu kurum benim sadakatimi hak ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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## BÖLÜM VIII: ÖZYETERLİK ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıda sınıf içinde öğretmenliğinize yönelik bazı sorular yer almaktadır. Lütfen, her bir soruyu okuyarak, (“1-yetersiz ” ve “9-çok yeterli” olmak üzere) şu anda sizin durumunuzu en iyi yansıtan seçeneği (X) ile işaretleyiniz.

	Yetersiz	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Çok yeterli
1. Çalışması zor öğrencilere ulaşmayı ne kadar başarabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
2. Öğrencilerin eleştirel düşüncelerini ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
3. Sınıfta dersi olumsuz yönde etkileyen davranışları kontrol etmeyi ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
4. Derslere az ilgi gösteren öğrencileri motive etmeyi ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
5. Öğrenci davranışlarıyla ilgili beklentilerinizi ne kadar açık ortaya koyabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
6. Öğrencileri okulda başarılı olabileceklerine inandırmayı ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
7. Öğrencilerin zor sorularına ne kadar iyi cevap verebilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
8. Sınıfta yapılan etkinliklerin düzenli yürütmesini ne kadar iyi sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
9. Öğrencilerin öğrenmeye değer vermelerini ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
10. Öğrettiklerinizin öğrenciler tarafından kavranıp kavranmadığını ne kadar iyi değerlendirebilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		

11. Öğrencilerinizi iyi bir şekilde değerlendirmesine olanak sağlayacak soruları ne ölçüde hazırlayabilirsiniz? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
12. Öğrencilerin yaratıcılığının gelişmesine ne kadar yardımcı olabilirsiniz? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
13. Öğrencilerin sınıf kurallarına uymalarını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
14. Başarısız bir öğrencinin dersi daha iyi anlamasını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
15. Dersi olumsuz yönde etkileyen ya da derste gürültü yapan öğrencileri ne kadar yatıştırabilirsiniz? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
16. Farklı öğrenci gruplarına uygun sınıf yönetim sistemini ne kadar iyi oluşturabilirsiniz? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
17. Derslerin her bir öğrencinin seviyesine uygun olmasını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
18. Farklı değerlendirme yöntemlerini ne kadar kullanabilirsiniz? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
19. Birkaç problemlili öğrencinin derse zarar vermesini ne kadar iyi engelleyebilirsiniz? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
20. Öğrencilerin kafası karıştığında ne kadar alternatif açıklama ya da örnek sağlayabilirsiniz? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
21. Sizi hiçe sayan davranışlar gösteren öğrencilerle ne kadar iyi baş edebilirsiniz? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
22. Gerekliğinde çocuklarının okulda başarılı olmalarına yardımcı olmaları için ailelere ne kadar destek olabilirsiniz? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
23. Sınıfta farklı öğretim yöntemlerini ne kadar iyi uygulayabilirsiniz? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
24. Çok yetenekli öğrencilere uygun öğrenme ortamını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

## APPENDIX B

### CONSENT LETTER OF HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE



1956

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6 Şubat 2012

Gönderilen: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Yaşar Kondakçı  
Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü

Gönderen : Prof. Dr. Canan Özgen  
IAK Başkan Yardımcısı

İlgi : Etik Onayı

"Öğretim Elemanlarının Mesleki Toplumsallaşması ve Mesleki Toplusallaşmalarını Yordayan Faktörlerin İncelenmesi" isimli araştırmanız "İnsan Araştırmaları Komitesi" tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Etik Komite Onayı

Uygundur

06/02/2012

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



## APPENDIX C

### DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE ITEMS IN EACH SCALE

#### Work Conditions Scale

Item	Category	Frequency	Percent (%)	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
1	(1) Not satisfied at all	149	20.3	2.66	1.16
	(2)	170	23.1		
	(3) Neutral	238	32.4		
	(4)	135	18.4		
	(5) Very satisfied	43	5.9		
2	(1) Not satisfied at all	169	23.2	2.60	1.20
	(2)	168	23.1		
	(3) Neutral	216	29.7		
	(4)	130	17.9		
	(5) Very satisfied	44	6.1		
3	(1) Not satisfied at all	124	17.1	2.87	1.25
	(2)	168	23.1		
	(3) Neutral	193	26.6		
	(4)	162	22.3		
	(5) Very satisfied	79	10.9		
4	(1) Not satisfied at all	110	15.0	3.04	1.24
	(2)	126	17.2		
	(3) Neutral	208	28.5		
	(4)	200	27.4		
	(5) Very satisfied	87	11.9		
5	(1) Not satisfied at all	119	16.3	3.13	1.33
	(2)	117	16.1		
	(3) Neutral	174	23.9		
	(4)	189	26.0		
	(5) Very satisfied	129	17.7		

### Knowledge Sharing Scale

Item		Frequency	Percent (%)	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
1	(1) Strongly disagree	34	4.6	3.47	1.07
	(2)	89	12.1		
	(3) Neutral	248	33.6		
	(4)	227	30.8		
	(5) Strongly agree	139	18.9		
2	(1) Strongly disagree	27	3.7	3.59	1.07
	(2)	90	12.2		
	(3) Neutral	202	27.5		
	(4)	257	35.0		
	(5) Strongly agree	159	21.6		
3	(1) Strongly disagree	18	2.5	3.75	1.03
	(2)	68	9.3		
	(3) Neutral	189	25.8		
	(4)	260	35.5		
	(5) Strongly agree	198	27.0		
4	(1) Strongly disagree	5	.7	4.02	.89
	(2)	38	5.2		
	(3) Neutral	140	19.1		
	(4)	304	41.4		
	(5) Strongly agree	247	33.7		
5	(1) Strongly disagree	26	3.6	3.71	1.09
	(2)	73	10.0		
	(3) Neutral	194	26.5		
	(4)	234	32.0		
	(5) Strongly agree	204	27.9		

### Job Satisfaction Scale

Item		Frequency	Percent (%)	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
1	(1) Strongly disagree	16	2.2	4.01	1.00
	(2)	44	6.0		
	(3) Neutral	137	18.6		
	(4)	263	35.7		
	(5) Strongly agree	277	37.6		
2	(1) Strongly disagree	6	.8	4.40	.83
	(2)	8	1.1		
	(3) Neutral	101	13.8		
	(4)	191	26.0		
	(5) Strongly agree	428	58.3		
3	(1) Strongly disagree	12	1.6	4.11	.98
	(2)	38	5.2		
	(3) Neutral	130	17.6		
	(4)	236	32.0		
	(5) Strongly agree	321	43.6		
4	(1) Strongly disagree	4	.5	4.13	.86
	(2)	29	3.9		
	(3) Neutral	121	16.5		
	(4)	293	39.9		
	(5) Strongly agree	288	39.2		
5	(1) Strongly disagree	13	1.8	3.88	.93
	(2)	36	4.9		
	(3) Neutral	179	24.3		
	(4)	307	41.7		
	(5) Strongly agree	201	27.3		
6	(1) Strongly disagree	13	1.8	4.0	.98
	(2)	43	5.8		
	(3) Neutral	148	20.1		
	(4)	258	35.0		
	(5) Strongly agree	275	37.3		

### Organizational Socialization Scale

\*(O) stands for organization socialization dimension

\*\*\*(D) stands for department socialization dimension

\*\*\*(T) stands for task socialization dimension

Item		Frequency	Percent (%)	Mean	SD
1 (O)*	(1) Strongly disagree	13	1.8	4.83	1.55
	(2)	45	6.1		
	(3)	92	12.6		
	(4) Neutral	149	20.3		
	(5)	161	22.0		
	(6)	148	20.2		
	(7) Strongly agree	125	17.1		
2 (D)**	(1) Strongly disagree	11	1.5	5.16	1.49
	(2)	27	3.7		
	(3)	76	10.4		
	(4) Neutral	109	14.9		
	(5)	161	22.0		
	(6)	191	26.1		
	(7) Strongly agree	157	21.4		
3(T)***	(1) Strongly disagree	3	.4	5.89	1.27
	(2)	17	2.3		
	(3)	23	3.1		
	(4) Neutral	59	8.0		
	(5)	107	14.6		
	(6)	231	31.5		
	(7) Strongly agree	294	40.1		
4 (O)	(1) Strongly disagree	12	1.6	5.10	1.62
	(2)	45	6.1		
	(3)	87	11.9		
	(4) Neutral	103	14.1		
	(5)	136	18.6		
	(6)	166	22.6		
	(7) Strongly agree	184	25.1		

*continued*

5 (O)	(1) Strongly disagree	15	2.0		
	(2)	48	6.5		
	(3)	101	13.7		
	(4) Neutral	118	16.0	4.95	1.65
	(5)	135	18.3		
	(6)	153	20.8		
	(7) Strongly agree	167	22.7		
6 (D)	(1) Strongly disagree	2	.3		
	(2)	18	2.4		
	(3)	31	4.2		
	(4) Neutral	59	8.0	5.83	1.31
	(5)	125	17.0		
	(6)	205	27.9		
	(7) Strongly agree	295	40.1		
7 (T)	(1) Strongly disagree	0	0		
	(2)	2	.3		
	(3)	8	1.1		
	(4) Neutral	33	4.5	6.42	.92
	(5)	50	6.8		
	(6)	184	25.2		
	(7) Strongly agree	454	62.1		
8 (O)	(1) Strongly disagree	4	.5		
	(2)	16	2.2		
	(3)	33	4.5		
	(4) Neutral	64	8.7	5.77	1.32
	(5)	130	17.6		
	(6)	216	29.3		
	(7) Strongly agree	274	37.2		
9 (O)	(1) Strongly disagree	8	1.1		
	(2)	16	2.2		
	(3)	21	2.9		
	(4) Neutral	74	10.1	5.79	1.34

*continued*

	(5)	120	16.3		
	(6)	213	29.0		
	(7) Strongly agree	283	38.4		
10 (T)	(1) Strongly disagree	3	.5		
	(2)	13	1.8		
	(3)	19	2.6		
	(4) Neutral	38	5.2	6.15	1.20
	(5)	68	9.2		
	(6)	209	28.4		
	(7) Strongly agree	385	52.3		
11 (D)	(1) Strongly disagree	18	2.4		
	(2)	41	5.6		
	(3)	55	7.5		
	(4) Neutral	138	18.8	5.04	1.56
	(5)	159	21.6		
	(6)	174	23.6		
	(7) Strongly agree	151	20.5		
12 (O)	(1) Strongly disagree	8	1.1		
	(2)	15	2.0		
	(3)	59	8.0		
	(4) Neutral	94	12.8	5.48	1.43
	(5)	132	18.0		
	(6)	214	29.1		
	(7) Strongly agree	213	29.0		
13 (D)	(1) Strongly disagree	4	.5		
	(2)	22	3.0		
	(3)	58	7.9		
	(4) Neutral	82	11.2	5.71	1.49
	(5)	83	11.3		
	(6)	173	23.5		
	(7) Strongly agree	313	42.6		

*continued*

14 (T)	(1) Strongly disagree	1	.1	6.31	1.01
	(2)	2	.3		
	(3)	18	2.5		
	(4) Neutral	33	4.5		
	(5)	52	7.1		
	(6)	214	29.2		
	(7) Strongly agree	414	56.4		
15 (O)	(1) Strongly disagree	12	1.6	5.21	1.52
	(2)	39	5.3		
	(3)	42	5.7		
	(4) Neutral	128	17.4		
	(5)	157	21.3		
	(6)	181	24.6		
	(7) Strongly agree	177	24.0		
16 (D)	(1) Strongly disagree	18	2.4	4.90	1.57
	(2)	46	6.3		
	(3)	68	9.3		
	(4) Neutral	151	20.5		
	(5)	163	22.2		
	(6)	157	21.4		
	(7) Strongly agree	132	18.0		
17 (T)	(1) Strongly disagree	1	.1	6.08	1.19
	(2)	7	1.0		
	(3)	31	4.2		
	(4) Neutral	42	5.7		
	(5)	95	13.0		
	(6)	192	26.2		
	(7) Strongly agree	364	49.7		
18 (D)	(1) Strongly disagree	1	.1	6.28	.99
	(2)	0	0		
	(3)	13	1.8		
	(4) Neutral	43	5.9		

*continued*

	(5)	61	8.3		
	(6)	221	30.2		
	(7) Strongly agree	394	53.8		
19 (O)	(1) Strongly disagree	1	.1		
	(2)	6	.8		
	(3)	14	1.9		
	(4) Neutral	30	4.1	6.26	1.04
	(5)	75	10.2		
	(6)	212	28.9		
	(7) Strongly agree	396	54.0		
20 (D)	(1) Strongly disagree	8	1.1		
	(2)	30	4.1		
	(3)	42	5.7		
	(4) Neutral	111	15.1	5.43	1.48
	(5)	129	17.6		
	(6)	198	26.9		
	(7) Strongly agree	217	29.5		
21 (T)	(1) Strongly disagree	5	.7		
	(2)	15	2.0		
	(3)	17	2.3		
	(4) Neutral	62	8.4	5.95	1.26
	(5)	89	12.1		
	(6)	238	32.3		
	(7) Strongly agree	311	42.2		
22 (T)	(1) Strongly disagree	1	.1		
	(2)	9	1.2		
	(3)	11	1.5		
	(4) Neutral	30	4.1	6.33	1.05
	(5)	61	8.3		
	(6)	187	25.4		
	(7) Strongly agree	436	59.3		



*continued*

23 (O)	(1) Strongly disagree	28	3.8		
	(2)	45	6.2		
	(3)	63	8.6		
	(4) Neutral	104	14.3	5.07	1.69
	(5)	133	18.2		
	(6)	181	24.8		
	(7) Strongly agree	175	24		
24 (D)	(1) Strongly disagree	11	1.5		
	(2)	17	2.3		
	(3)	27	3.7		
	(4) Neutral	63	8.7	5.83	1.38
	(5)	85	11.7		
	(6)	236	32.4		
	(7) Strongly agree	289	39.7		
25 (O)	(1) Strongly disagree	7	1.0		
	(2)	13	1.8		
	(3)	21	2.9		
	(4) Neutral	46	6.3	5.94	1.26
	(5)	107	14.6		
	(6)	234	31.9		
	(7) Strongly agree	305	41.6		
26 (D)	(1) Strongly disagree	9	1.2		
	(2)	15	2.0		
	(3)	23	3.1		
	(4) Neutral	40	6.6	5.93	1.32
	(5)	101	13.7		
	(6)	217	29.4		
	(7) Strongly agree	323	43.8		
27 (T)	(1) Strongly disagree	2	.3		
	(2)	15	2.0		
	(3)	29	3.9		
	(4) Neutral	49	6.7	6.01	1.27

*continued*

	(5)	92	12.5		
	(6)	194	26.4		
	(7) Strongly agree	355	48.2		
28 (D)	(1) Strongly disagree	2	.3		
	(2)	8	1.1		
	(3)	20	2.7		
	(4) Neutral	50	6.8	6.14	1.15
	(5)	64	8.7		
	(6)	225	30.5		
	(7) Strongly agree	368	49.9		
29 (T)	(1) Strongly disagree	20	2.7		
	(2)	30	4.1		
	(3)	14	1.9		
	(4) Neutral	65	8.8	5.78	1.55
	(5)	104	14.1		
	(6)	167	22.7		
	(7) Strongly agree	336	45.7		
30 (D)	(1) Strongly disagree	17	2.3		
	(2)	31	4.2		
	(3)	30	4.1		
	(4) Neutral	74	10.1	5.63	1.55
	(5)	103	14.0		
	(6)	197	26.8		
	(7) Strongly agree	282	38.4		
31 (T)	(1) Strongly disagree	8	1.1		
	(2)	13	1.8		
	(3)	19	2.6		
	(4) Neutral	45	6.1	6.12	1.28
	(5)	65	8.9		
	(6)	191	26.0		
	(7) Strongly agree	393	53.5		

*continued*

32 (O)	(1) Strongly disagree	6	.8		
	(2)	13	1.8		
	(3)	24	3.3		
	(4) Neutral	61	8.3	5.92	1.29
	(5)	98	13.3		
	(6)	221	30.0		
	(7) Strongly agree	314	42.6		
33 (D)	(1) Strongly disagree	79	10.8		
	(2)	63	8.6		
	(3)	70	9.6		
	(4) Neutral	131	17.9	4.52	1.96
	(5)	103	14.1		
	(6)	139	19.0		
	(7) Strongly agree	145	19.9		
34 (O)	(1) Strongly disagree	18	2.5		
	(2)	32	4.4		
	(3)	23	3.1		
	(4) Neutral	75	10.2	5.72	1.56
	(5)	76	10.4		
	(6)	204	27.8		
	(7) Strongly agree	306	41.7		
35 (T)	(1) Strongly disagree	1	.1		
	(2)	9	1.2		
	(3)	19	2.6		
	(4) Neutral	39	5.3	6.18	1.13
	(5)	77	10.5		
	(6)	206	28.0		
	(7) Strongly agree	385	52.3		
36 (D)	(1) Strongly disagree	9	1.2		
	(2)	17	2.3		
	(3)	18	2.4		
	(4) Neutral	58	7.9	5.92	1.34

*continued*

	(5)	99	13.5		
	(6)	210	28.5		
	(7) Strongly agree	325	44.2		
37 (O)	(1) Strongly disagree	16	2.2		
	(2)	28	3.8		
	(3)	43	5.8		
	(4) Neutral	80	10.9	5.59	1.57
	(5)	101	13.7		
	(6)	189	25.7		
	(7) Strongly agree	279	37.9		
38 (T)	(1) Strongly disagree	25	3.4		
	(2)	38	5.2		
	(3)	43	5.9		
	(4) Neutral	93	12.7	5.30	1.63
	(5)	123	16.7		
	(6)	210	28.6		
	(7) Strongly agree	203	27.6		
39 (D)	(1) Strongly disagree	3	.4		
	(2)	5	.7		
	(3)	21	2.9		
	(4) Neutral	48	6.5	6.10	1.14
	(5)	83	11.3		
	(6)	228	31.0		
	(7) Strongly agree	348	47.3		
40 (T)	(1) Strongly disagree	2	.3		
	(2)	4	.5		
	(3)	13	1.8		
	(4) Neutral	45	6.1	6.26	3.82
	(5)	107	14.5		
	(6)	248	33.6		
	(7) Strongly agree	319	42.9		

*continued*

41 (O)	(1) Strongly disagree	11	1.5	5.43	1.50
	(2)	35	4.8		
	(3)	43	5.9		
	(4) Neutral	79	10.8		
	(5)	140	19.1		
	(6)	222	30.2		
	(7) Strongly agree	204	27.8		
42 (O)	(1) Strongly disagree	7	1.0	5.80	1.37
	(2)	20	2.7		
	(3)	29	4.0		
	(4) Neutral	61	8.3		
	(5)	114	15.5		
	(6)	212	28.9		
	(7) Strongly agree	291	39.6		
43 (T)	(1) Strongly disagree	29	4.0	5.41	1.68
	(2)	31	4.2		
	(3)	56	7.6		
	(4) Neutral	66	9.0		
	(5)	105	14.3		
	(6)	204	27.8		
	(7) Strongly agree	243	33.1		
44 (D)	(1) Strongly disagree	18	2.5	5.62	1.52
	(2)	21	2.9		
	(3)	36	4.9		
	(4) Neutral	77	10.5		
	(5)	104	14.2		
	(6)	213	29.1		
	(7) Strongly agree	262	35.8		
45 (T)	(1) Strongly disagree	13	1.8	5.61	1.48
	(2)	18	2.5		
	(3)	39	5.3		
	(4) Neutral	93	12.7		

*continued*

	(5)	111	15.2		
	(6)	193	26.4		
	(7) Strongly agree	265	36.2		
46 (O)	(1) Strongly disagree	50	6.8		
	(2)	47	6.4		
	(3)	80	10.9		
	(4) Neutral	104	14.2	4.81	1.81
	(5)	139	18.9		
	(6)	163	22.2		
	(7) Strongly agree	151	20.6		
47 (D)	(1) Strongly disagree	10	1.4		
	(2)	12	1.6		
	(3)	29	4.0		
	(4) Neutral	70	9.5	5.93	1.40
	(5)	91	12.4		
	(6)	160	21.8		
	(7) Strongly agree	361	49.2		

### **Organizational Commitment Scale**

\*(A) stands for affective commitment dimension

\*\* (C) stands for continuance commitment dimension

\*\*\* (N) stands for normative commitment dimension

Item		Frequency	Percent (%)	Mean	SD
1 (A)*	(1) Strongly disagree	38	5.2		
	(2)	32	4.4		
	(3)	46	6.3		
	(4) Neutral	99	13.5	5.30	1.77
	(5)	118	16.1		
	(6)	144	19.6		
	(7) Strongly agree	256	34.9		

*continued*

2 (C)**	(1) Strongly disagree	323	44.3		
	(2)	117	16.0		
	(3)	86	11.8		
	(4) Neutral	54	7.4	2.63	1.94
	(5)	49	6.7		
	(6)	59	8.1		
	(7) Strongly agree	41	5.6		
3 (N)***	(1) Strongly disagree	222	30.4		
	(2)	174	23.8		
	(3)	86	11.8		
	(4) Neutral	97	13.3	2.96	1.99
	(5)	38	5.2		
	(6)	37	5.1		
	(7) Strongly agree	77	10.5		
4 (A)	(1) Strongly disagree	51	6.9		
	(2)	58	7.9		
	(3)	76	10.3		
	(4) Neutral	84	11.4	4.99	1.96
	(5)	97	13.2		
	(6)	132	18.0		
	(7) Strongly agree	237	32.2		
5 (C)	(1) Strongly disagree	107	14.7		
	(2)	76	10.4		
	(3)	60	8.2		
	(4) Neutral	117	16.0	4.38	2.10
	(5)	85	11.6		
	(6)	131	17.9		
	(7) Strongly agree	154	21.1		
6 (A)	(1) Strongly disagree	64	8.8		
	(2)	73	10.0		
	(3)	73	10.0		
	(4) Neutral	104	14.3	4.64	1.95

*continued*

	(5)	111	15.2		
	(6)	143	19.6		
	(7) Strongly agree	160	22.0		
7 (N)	(1) Strongly disagree	110	15.2		
	(2)	92	12.7		
	(3)	58	8.0		
	(4) Neutral	113	15.6	4.26	2.12
	(5)	92	12.7		
	(6)	112	15.4		
	(7) Strongly agree	148	20.4		
8 (C)	(1) Strongly disagree	144	19.8		
	(2)	104	14.3		
	(3)	88	12.1		
	(4) Neutral	117	16.1	3.76	2.04
	(5)	86	11.8		
	(6)	102	14.0		
	(7) Strongly agree	87	12.0		
9 (C)	(1) Strongly disagree	117	16.0		
	(2)	84	11.5		
	(3)	89	12.2		
	(4) Neutral	122	16.7	4.05	2.02
	(5)	98	13.4		
	(6)	115	15.8		
	(7) Strongly agree	105	14.4		
10 (A)	(1) Strongly disagree	48	6.6		
	(2)	51	7.0		
	(3)	70	9.6		
	(4) Neutral	117	16.0	4.74	1.75
	(5)	148	20.3		
	(6)	178	24.4		
	(7) Strongly agree	117	16.0		



*continued*

11 (A)	(1) Strongly disagree	69	9.4		
	(2)	64	8.8		
	(3)	55	7.5		
	(4) Neutral	106	14.5	4.78	1.99
	(5)	109	14.9		
	(6)	133	18.2		
	(7) Strongly agree	195	26.7		
12 (A)	(1) Strongly disagree	60	8.2		
	(2)	46	6.3		
	(3)	74	10.1		
	(4) Neutral	106	14.5	4.83	1.87
	(5)	96	13.1		
	(6)	197	26.9		
	(7) Strongly agree	154	21.0		
13 (C)	(1) Strongly disagree	56	7.7		
	(2)	29	4.0		
	(3)	64	8.8		
	(4) Neutral	142	19.5	4.88	1.80
	(5)	108	14.8		
	(6)	171	23.4		
	(7) Strongly agree	160	21.9		
14 (N)	(1) Strongly disagree	40	5.4		
	(2)	57	7.8		
	(3)	92	12.5		
	(4) Neutral	127	17.3	4.74	1.80
	(5)	136	18.5		
	(6)	117	15.9		
	(7) Strongly agree	166	22.6		
15 (C)	(1) Strongly disagree	68	9.3		
	(2)	64	8.8		
	(3)	47	6.4		
	(4) Neutral	114	15.6	4.82	1.98

*continued*

	(5)	97	13.3		
	(6)	145	19.8		
	(7) Strongly agree	196	26.8		
16 (N)	(1) Strongly disagree	129	17.7		
	(2)	96	13.2		
	(3)	96	13.2		
	(4) Neutral	124	17.0	3.90	2.05
	(5)	70	9.6		
	(6)	116	15.9		
	(7) Strongly agree	99	13.6		
17 (N)	(1) Strongly disagree	57	7.8		
	(2)	53	7.2		
	(3)	55	7.5		
	(4) Neutral	100	13.6	4.95	1.91
	(5)	103	14.1		
	(6)	167	22.8		
	(7) Strongly agree	198	27.0		
18 (A)	(1) Strongly disagree	57	7.8		
	(2)	77	10.5		
	(3)	73	9.9		
	(4) Neutral	115	15.6	4.65	1.93
	(5)	118	16.1		
	(6)	125	17.0		
	(7) Strongly agree	170	23.1		
19 (N)	(1) Strongly disagree	96	13.2		
	(2)	87	12.0		
	(3)	61	8.4		
	(4) Neutral	134	18.4	4.28	2.01
	(5)	87	12.0		
	(6)	149	20.5		
	(7) Strongly agree	114	15.7		

*continued*

20 (N)	(1) Strongly disagree	73	9.9	4.55	1.91
	(2)	54	7.4		
	(3)	85	11.6		
	(4) Neutral	128	17.4		
	(5)	113	15.4		
	(6)	141	19.2		
	(7) Strongly agree	140	19.1		
21 (N)	(1) Strongly disagree	98	13.4	3.96	1.89
	(2)	94	12.8		
	(3)	100	13.6		
	(4) Neutral	157	21.4		
	(5)	94	12.8		
	(6)	112	15.3		
	(7) Strongly agree	78	10.6		
22 (C)	(1) Strongly disagree	93	13.4	3.89	1.82
	(2)	82	11.8		
	(3)	94	13.5		
	(4) Neutral	188	27.1		
	(5)	89	12.8		
	(6)	77	11.1		
	(7) Strongly agree	72	10.4		
23 (N)	(1) Strongly disagree	84	11.6	4.12	1.88
	(2)	80	11.0		
	(3)	107	14.7		
	(4) Neutral	142	19.6		
	(5)	116	16.0		
	(6)	101	13.9		
	(7) Strongly agree	96	13.2		
24 (A)	(1) Strongly disagree	19	2.6	5.53	1.56
	(2)	22	3.0		
	(3)	43	5.9		
	(4) Neutral	86	11.7		

*continued*

	(5)	125	17.0		
	(6)	176	24.0		
	(7) Strongly agree	263	35.8		
25 (N)	(1) Strongly disagree	87	12.0		
	(2)	74	10.2		
	(3)	70	9.6		
	(4) Neutral	129	17.7	4.41	2.01
	(5)	110	15.1		
	(6)	103	14.2		
	(7) Strongly agree	154	21.2		
26 (C)	(1) Strongly disagree	222	31.0		
	(2)	124	17.3		
	(3)	89	12.4		
	(4) Neutral	111	15.5	3.05	1.92
	(5)	66	9.2		
	(6)	60	8.4		
	(7) Strongly agree	45	6.3		
27 (A)	(1) Strongly disagree	20	2.7		
	(2)	19	2.6		
	(3)	44	6.0		
	(4) Neutral	129	17.7	5.29	1.52
	(5)	140	19.2		
	(6)	188	25.8		
	(7) Strongly agree	188	25.8		
28 (N)	(1) Strongly disagree	66	9.1		
	(2)	55	7.5		
	(3)	54	7.4		
	(4) Neutral	139	19.1	4.64	1.86
	(5)	137	18.8		
	(6)	140	19.2		
	(7) Strongly agree	138	18.9		

*continued*

29 (C)	(1) Strongly disagree	41	5.6		
	(2)	64	8.8		
	(3)	75	10.3		
	(4) Neutral	190	26.1	4.57	1.74
	(5)	96	13.2		
	(6)	142	19.5		
	(7) Strongly agree	119	16.4		
30 (N)	(1) Strongly disagree	79	10.9		
	(2)	99	13.6		
	(3)	71	9.8		
	(4) Neutral	164	22.5	4.20	1.93
	(5)	96	13.2		
	(6)	101	13.9		
	(7) Strongly agree	118	16.2		
31 (N)	(1) Strongly disagree	167	22.8		
	(2)	113	15.5		
	(3)	92	12.6		
	(4) Neutral	113	15.5	3.55	2.03
	(5)	74	10.1		
	(6)	101	13.8		
	(7) Strongly agree	71	9.7		
32 (C)	(1) Strongly disagree	85	11.6		
	(2)	72	9.9		
	(3)	69	9.5		
	(4) Neutral	110	15.1	4.51	2.01
	(5)	92	12.6		
	(6)	161	22.1		
	(7) Strongly agree	141	19.3		
33 (N)	(1) Strongly disagree	59	8.1		
	(2)	51	7.0		
	(3)	60	8.2		
	(4) Neutral	140	19.2	4.76	1.86

*continued*

(5)	110	15.0
(6)	150	20.5
(7) Strongly agree	161	22.0

### **Efficacy Scale**

\*(SE) stands for efficacy for student engagement dimension

\*\* (CM) stands for efficacy for classroom management dimension

\*\*\* (IS) stands for efficacy for instructional strategies dimension

Item		Frequency	Percent (%)	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
1 (SE)*	(1) Nothing	2	0.3		
	(2)	7	1.0		
	(3) Very little	15	2.0		
	(4)	34	4.6		
	(5) Some influence	77	10.5	6.79	1.48
	(6)	109	14.8		
	(7) Quite a lot	238	32.3		
	(8)	193	26.2		
	(9) A great deal	61	8.3		
2 (SE)	(1) Nothing	1	0.1		
	(2)	6	0.8		
	(3) Very little	14	1.9		
	(4)	21	2.9		
	(5) Some influence	57	7.7	6.97	1.45
	(6)	130	17.7		
	(7) Quite a lot	228	31.0		
	(8)	179	24.3		
	(9) A great deal	100	13.6		
3(CM)**	(1) Nothing	1	0.1		
	(2)	2	0.3		
	(3) Very little	7	0.9		
	(4)	15	2.0		

*continued*

	(5) Some influence	39	5.3	7.38	1.31
	(6)	87	11.8		
	(7) Quite a lot	185	25.1		
	(8)	270	36.6		
	(9) A great deal	131	17.8		
4 (SE)	(1) Nothing	1	0.1		
	(2)	2	0.3		
	(3) Very little	13	1.8		
	(4)	19	2.6		
	(5) Some influence	66	9.0	6.97	1.39
	(6)	137	18.7		
	(7) Quite a lot	216	29.4		
	(8)	190	25.9		
	(9) A great deal	90	12.3		
5(CM)	(1) Nothing	0	0		
	(2)	2	0.3		
	(3) Very little	4	0.5		
	(4)	6	0.8		
	(5) Some influence	19	2.6	8.14	3.22
	(6)	41	5.6		
	(7) Quite a lot	113	15.4		
	(8)	223	30.3		
	(9) A great deal	327	44.4		
6 (SE)	(1) Nothing	1	0.1		
	(2)	3	0.4		
	(3) Very little	3	0.4		
	(4)	12	1.6		
	(5) Some influence	32	4.3	7.47	1.28
	(6)	84	11.4		
	(7) Quite a lot	204	27.7		
	(8)	231	31.3		
	(9) A great deal	167	22.7		

*continued*

7 (IS)***	(1) Nothing	0	0		
	(2)	0	0		
	(3) Very little	4	0.5		
	(4)	6	0.8		
	(5) Some influence	14	1.9	7.92	1.09
	(6)	40	5.4		
	(7) Quite a lot	138	18.8		
	(8)	285	38.8		
	(9) A great deal	248	33.7		
8(CM)	(1) Nothing	0	0		
	(2)	6	0.8		
	(3) Very little	4	0.5		
	(4)	6	0.8		
	(5) Some influence	21	2.8	7.72	1.23
	(6)	52	7.1		
	(7) Quite a lot	160	21.7		
	(8)	286	38.8		
	(9) A great deal	202	27.4		
9 (SE)	(1) Nothing	0	0		
	(2)	1	0.1		
	(3) Very little	9	1.2		
	(4)	17	2.3		
	(5) Some influence	57	7.7	7.31	2.90
	(6)	102	13.9		
	(7) Quite a lot	208	28.2		
	(8)	221	30.0		
	(9) A great deal	121	16.4		
10 (IS)	(1) Nothing	0	0		
	(2)	0	0		
	(3) Very little	4	0.5		
	(4)	8	1.1		
	(5) Some influence	24	3.3	7.67	1.17



*continued*

	(6)	62	8.5		
	(7) Quite a lot	189	25.9		
	(8)	247	33.8		
	(9) A great deal	197	26.9		
11 (IS)	(1) Nothing	1	0.1		
	(2)	4	0.5		
	(3) Very little	3	0.4		
	(4)	10	1.4		
	(5) Some influence	29	4.0	7.59	1.30
	(6)	80	10.9		
	(7) Quite a lot	158	21.5		
	(8)	258	35.1		
	(9) A great deal	191	26.0		
12(SE)	(1) Nothing	0	0		
	(2)	2	0.3		
	(3) Very little	8	1.1		
	(4)	28	3.8		
	(5) Some influence	58	7.9	7.15	1.42
	(6)	115	15.6		
	(7) Quite a lot	182	24.7		
	(8)	218	29.6		
	(9) A great deal	126	17.1		
13(CM)	(1) Nothing	0	0		
	(2)	2	0.3		
	(3) Very little	2	0.3		
	(4)	15	2.0		
	(5) Some influence	19	2.6	7.64	1.19
	(6)	62	8.4		
	(7) Quite a lot	174	23.7		
	(8)	285	38.8		
	(9) A great deal	175	23.8		

*continued*

14(SE)	(1) Nothing	0	0		
	(2)	2	0.3		
	(3) Very little	6	0.8		
	(4)	19	2.6		
	(5) Some influence	35	4.7	7.27	1.25
	(6)	94	12.8		
	(7) Quite a lot	231	31.3		
	(8)	250	33.9		
	(9) A great deal	100	13.6		
15(CM)	(1) Nothing	1	0.1		
	(2)	0	0		
	(3) Very little	5	0.7		
	(4)	20	2.7		
	(5) Some influence	33	4.5	7.50	1.29
	(6)	70	9.5		
	(7) Quite a lot	179	24.3		
	(8)	267	36.2		
	(9) A great deal	162	22.0		
16(CM)	(1) Nothing	1	0.1		
	(2)	0	0		
	(3) Very little	5	0.7		
	(4)	19	2.6		
	(5) Some influence	58	7.9	7.23	1.31
	(6)	87	11.9		
	(7) Quite a lot	224	30.6		
	(8)	220	30.0		
	(9) A great deal	119	16.2		
17 (IS)	(1) Nothing	1	0.1		
	(2)	9	1.2		
	(3) Very little	19	2.6		
	(4)	24	3.3		
	(5) Some influence	53	7.2	6.96	1.52

*continued*

	(6)	119	16.2		
	(7) Quite a lot	211	28.7		
	(8)	203	27.7		
	(9) A great deal	95	12.9		
18 (IS)	(1) Nothing	1	0.1		
	(2)	7	1.0		
	(3) Very little	10	1.4		
	(4)	27	3.7		
	(5) Some influence	59	8.0	7.10	1.48
	(6)	89	12.1		
	(7) Quite a lot	212	28.9		
	(8)	218	29.7		
	(9) A great deal	111	15.1		
19(CM)	(1) Nothing	1	0.1		
	(2)	4	0.5		
	(3) Very little	6	0.8		
	(4)	16	2.2		
	(5) Some influence	35	4.8	7.39	1.36
	(6)	90	12.2		
	(7) Quite a lot	196	26.6		
	(8)	229	31.1		
	(9) A great deal	159	21.6		
20 (IS)	(1) Nothing	2	0.3		
	(2)	3	0.4		
	(3) Very little	4	0.5		
	(4)	7	1.0		
	(5) Some influence	16	2.2	7.95	1.22
	(6)	32	4.3		
	(7) Quite a lot	125	17.0		
	(8)	268	36.4		
	(9) A great deal	279	37.9		

*continued*

21(CM)	(1) Nothing	5	0.7		
	(2)	1	0.1		
	(3) Very little	12	1.6		
	(4)	9	1.2		
	(5) Some influence	37	5.0	7.45	1.43
	(6)	79	10.8		
	(7) Quite a lot	169	23.0		
	(8)	252	34.3		
	(9) A great deal	170	23.2		
22(SE)	(1) Nothing	70	9.8		
	(2)	34	4.8		
	(3) Very little	46	6.5		
	(4)	49	6.9		
	(5) Some influence	117	16.4	5.56	2.37
	(6)	106	14.9		
	(7) Quite a lot	116	16.3		
	(8)	115	16.2		
	(9) A great deal	59	8.3		
23 (IS)	(1) Nothing	0	0		
	(2)	2	0.3		
	(3) Very little	12	1.6		
	(4)	14	1.9		
	(5) Some influence	41	5.6	7.36	1.36
	(6)	90	12.2		
	(7) Quite a lot	186	25.3		
	(8)	241	32.8		
	(9) A great deal	149	20.3		
24 (IS)	(1) Nothing	3	0.4		
	(2)	5	0.7		
	(3) Very little	10	1.4		
	(4)	23	3.1		
	(5) Some influence	64	8.7	7.15	1.53

*continued*

(6)	95	12.9
(7) Quite a lot	192	26.1
(8)	199	27.1
(9) A great deal	144	19.6

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**APPENDIX D**  
**TEZ FOTOKOPİ İZİN FORMU**



**ENSTİTÜ**

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

**YAZARIN**

Soyadı : .....

Adı : .....

Bölümü : .....

**TEZİN ADI** (İngilizce) : .....

.....

.....

.....

**TÜRÜ** : Yüksek Lisans  Doktora

1. Tezimin tamamı dünya çapında erişime açılsın ve kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla tezimin bir kısmı veya tamamının fotokopisi alınsın.
2. Tezimin tamamı yalnızca Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi kullanıcılarının erişimine açılsın. (Bu seçenekle tezinizin fotokopisi ya da elektronik kopyası Kütüphane aracılığı ile ODTÜ dışına dağıtılmayacaktır.)
3. Tezim bir (1) yıl süreyle erişime kapalı olsun. (Bu seçenekle tezinizin fotokopisi ya da elektronik kopyası Kütüphane aracılığı ile ODTÜ dışına dağıtılmayacaktır.)

Yazarın imzası ..... Tarih .....

## APPENDIX E

### TURKISH SUMMARY

#### Giriş:

Yüksek öğretim kurumları diğer kurumlardan farklı yönetildiği ve kendilerine özgü kültürleri olduğu için, üniversitelerde kurumsal toplumsallaşma ve işe başlama uygulamalarının incelenmesi önemlidir. Göreve yenigelenlerin toplumsallaşması konusu genellikle psikoloji ve işletme alanlarında incelenmiş olmasına rağmen, yüksek öğretim yönetimi alanında bu konuda az sayıda çalışma vardır. Ayrıca, psikoloji ve işletme alanlarında toplumsallaşma konusunda pek çok çalışma yapılmış olmasına rağmen, kavramın karmaşık özelliği nedeni ile, kurumsal toplumsallaşmaya ait tek bir teori bulunmamaktadır. Ancak, çeşitli kuramlar bu alandaki çalışmalara temel oluşturmaktadır. Bu kuramların ilki Van Maanen ve Schein (1976) tarafından geliştirilen sosyalleşme taktikleridir. Kurumlar tarafından yenigelenlerin görevlerine alışmalarına yardımcı olmaları için kullanılan ve altı adet zıt uçlu taktikten oluşan bu teorik kuram, toplumsallaşma yönteminin bireyin rolüne nasıl uyum sağlayabileceğini açıklamaktadır. Daha sonra Jones (1986), bu altı adet zıt uçlu taktiği birey odaklı ve kurum odaklı olmak üzere iki kategoriye indirmiştir. Jones (1986); birey odaklı taktiklerin yenigelenlerin rollerine uyum sürecinde kendi yaklaşımlarını geliştirerek yaratıcı bir uyum sürecini desteklediğini, diğer taraftan kurum odaklı taktiklerin yenigelenlerin yaşadığı belirsizlikleri azalttığını ve yeni rollerini kabul etmelerini desteklediğini öne sürmüştür.

Kurumsal toplumsallaşma araştırmalarına temel oluşturan diğer bir kuram, Berger ve Calabrese (1975) tarafından geliştirilen belirsizlik azaltma teorisidir. Yenigelenlerin belirsizlik düzeyi yüksektir. Çünkü, diğer çalışanlarla nasıl ilişki kuracakları ve de kurumun norm ve kültürü hakkında yeterli bilgiye sahip değillerdir. Bu rahatsız edici bir durum olduğu için yenigelenler bilgi arayışı içindedir. Bandura (1986; 1997) tarafından geliştirilen sosyal bilişsel teori ve özyeterlik teorileri toplumsallaşma araştırmalarına temel oluşturan diğer bir kuramdır. Sosyal bilişsel teori; davranış, bilişsel ve diğer kişisel faktörlerin ve çevrede gelişen olayların birbirini karşılıklı etkilediğini öne sürmektedir. Sosyal bilişsel teorisinin kurumsal

toplumsallaşma ile ilgili boyutu; dolaylı öğrenme ve otoriteyi modelleme, hedef sistemler ve kendi kendini düzenleyen mekanizmalardır (Wood ve Bandura, 1989). Özyeterlik teorisi ise, kendi kendini düzenleyen mekanizmanın önemli bir parçası olarak kabul edilmektedir. Özyeterlik teorisine göre; bireyin içinde bulunduğu durumun beklentilerine uyum sağlayacağı şekilde davranması için motivasyonunu, bilişsel kaynaklarını ve davranışlarını etkileyen dört farklı bilgi kaynağı vardır. Bu bilgi kaynakları otoriteyi izlemek, dolaylı olarak deneyim kazanmak, sözel ikna, bireyin fizyolojik ve duygusal durumudur (Bandura, 1986; 1997). Sosyal bilişsel teorisi, kurumsal toplumsallaşma sürecini incelerken sıklıkla kullanılmaktadır.

Kurumsal toplumsallaşma araştırmalarında temel alınan diğer bir kuram ise, anlam yüklemektir. Bireyler yeni katıldıkları bir kurumda varlıklarını sürdürebilmek için çeşitli davranış biçimleri ve yaklaşımlar geliştirirken, karşılaştıkları beklenmedik davranışları anlamaya ve onlara anlam yüklemeye çalışırlar. Böylece, kendi beklentileri ve gerçek arasında bir uyum oluşturabilirler (Bauer, Morrison ve Callister, 1998; Morrison, 1993; Saks ve Ashforth, 1997). Anlam yükleme teorisi ile belirsizlik azaltma teorisi arasında benzerlik vardır. Bu benzerlik, her iki teori de bireylerin yaşadıkları deneyimleri anlamlandırmaları ile ilgilidir. Benzerliğin yanısıra; bireyin geçmiş deneyimlerinden yola çıkarak anlam yüklemesi farklılık yaratır.

Feldman (1976) tarafından geliştirilen toplumsallaşma sürecinin aşamaları bu alandaki araştırmalara temel oluşturan diğer bir kavramdır. Feldman toplumsallaşma sürecinde üç aşama belirtmiş ve her aşamada bireylerin nasıl davrandığını tanımlamıştır. İşe giriş öncesi olarak adlandırılan birinci aşamada, kurum ve iş hakkında çeşitli kaynaklardan toplanan bilgi ile bireyin beklentileri oluşur. Eğer bu aşamada birey kurum hakkında net bir tablo oluşturdu ise ve birey ile kurum arasında karşılıklı uyum var ise, bu aşamadaki toplumsallaşma başarılıdır. İkinci aşama olan intibak sürecinde, birey kurum ve görevi hakkında açık bir bilgiye sahip olur. Yenigelen işinde kendini yeterli hissediyorsa ve ait olduğu çalışma grubunun üyeleri tarafından kabul edildiyse, bu aşamadaki toplumsallaşma başarılı kabul edilir. Feldman'ın modelindeki üçüncü aşama rol yönetimidir. Bireyler, görevleri ve aile yükümlülükleri arasındaki çatışmalar ve ayrıca iş yerinde kendi çalışma grubu ve diğer gruplar arasındaki çatışmalarla baş edebiliyorsa bu süreçte başarılı kabul edilir.



Kurumsal toplumsallaşma karmaşık ve sürekliliği devamlı olan bir süreçtir. Dolayısıyla bu sürecin; birbirini tamamlayan çeşitli kuramları gözönünde bulundurarak ve toplumsallaşmanın içerik, bağlam ve yöntem boyutlarının bir arada ele alındığı heterojen bir kuramsal çerçevede ele alarak incelenmesi önemlidir.

Üniversiteler diğer kurumlara kıyasla oldukça farklı özelliklere sahip oldukları için, öğretim elemanlarının işe başlama, uyum sağlama ve toplumsallaşmalarının farklı özellikleri vardır. Öğretim görevlileri eğitim, araştırma ve hizmet verme eylemlerini birbiriyle uyumlu şekilde gerçekleştirmelidir. Ayrıca; toplumsallaşma sürecinde öğretim elemanları deneyim kazanarak, akademik ortamın üyesi ve öğretmen olarak sürekli bir değişim yaşamaktadırlar. Dolayısıyla, öğretim elemanlarının toplumsallaşması meslek yaşamları boyunca devam eden bir süreçtir. Ancak, kurumsal sosyalleşme çoğunlukla psikoloji ve yönetim alanlarında ele alınmıştır ve yüksek öğretim alanında sınırlı sayıda çalışma bulunmaktadır. Oysa ki, öğretim elemanlarının kurumsal toplumsallaşmalarını etkileyen faktörlerin incelenmesi, onların kurumsal bağlılıklarının ve iş doyumlarının artmasını sağlayacaktır. Böylece, öğretmenlik performansı artacak ve öğrencilerin başarısı yükselecektir. Diğer taraftan, olumlu olmayan bir toplumsallaşma süreci, öğretim elemanlarının işten ayrılmalarına neden olmaktadır. Çeşitli araştırmalar, öğretim elemanlarının iş yaşam kalitelerinin düştüğüne inandıklarını ve çalıştıkları kurumla ilgili doyumsuzluk ve hayal kırıklığı yaşadıklarını göstermektedir (Johnsrud ve Heck, 1998). Bu nedenle, yüksek öğretim kurumları öğretim elemanlarını istihdam etmek açısından sıkıntı yaşamaktadır. Bu sıkıntının aşılması, öğretim elemanlarının kurumsal toplumsallaşmanı etkileyen süreç ve faktörlerin anlaşılmasıyla olasıdır. Çünkü; başarılı bir kurumsal toplumsallaşma ile öğretim elemanlarına kurumun kültürü ve kuralları aktarılır, diğer çalışanları tanınması sağlanır ve onlarla nasıl ilişki kuracağı yönünde bilgi verilir.

Bu çalışmanın amacı; kurumsal ve bireysel düzeydeki değişkenler ile üniversitelerin hazırlık okullarında görev yapan okutmanların kurum, bölüm ve görev toplumsallaşması arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir. Alanyazının incelenmesi ile belirlenen kurumsal düzeydeki değişkenler; devlet veya vakıf üniversitesi olarak üniversite tipi, işe yönelik eğitim, çalışma koşulları ve bilgi paylaşımıdır. Yine alanyazın incelemesi ile belirlenen bireysel düzeyde değişkenler; akademik derece,

öğretmenlik deneyimi, kurumda çalışma süresi, iş doyumu, kuruma bağlılık ve özyeterlidir.

### **Yöntem:**

Bu çalışma, Türkçe uyarlaması yapılan Yenigelen Kurumsal Toplumsallaşma ölçeğinin geçerlik çalışmasının yapıldığı pilot çalışma ve kurumsal toplumsallaşmayı yordayan değişkenlerin incelendiği ana çalışmadan oluşmaktadır. Bu çalışmanın amacı toplumsallaşma ve diğer pek çok kavram arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemek olduğu için korelasyonel bir çalışmadır. Bu çalışmada pek çok değişken arasındaki ilişki, herhangi bir şekilde bu değişkenlere müdahale edilmeden incelendiği için nitel ve korelasyonel bir çalışma olarak tasarlanmıştır. Bu korelasyonel çalışmada; kurum, bölüm, görev düzeyinde toplumsallaşma ile, çeşitli kurum (üniversite tipi, işe yönelik eğitim, çalışma koşulları, bilgi paylaşımı) ve birey (akademik derece, öğretmenlik deneyimi, şu anki kurumda çalışma süresi, iş doyumu, işe bağlılık, özyeterlik) düzeyindeki faktörler arasındaki ilişki incelenmektedir.

**Katılımcılar ve İşlemler:** Pilot çalışmanın katılımcıları Ankara'da dört ayrı devlet üniversitesinde çalışan 228 okutmandan oluşmaktadır. Ana çalışmanın katılımcıları ise, Ankara, İstanbul, Eskişehir, Konya ve Kuzey Kıbrıs Türk Cumhuriyeti'nde toplam 16 üniversitede çalışan 737 okutmandır. Katılımcıların 598'i (% 81.1) devlet üniversitesinde, 139'u (% 18.9) vakıf üniversitesinde çalışmaktadır. Katılımcıların 599'u (% 81.3) kadın, 137'si (% 18.6) erkektir. Katılımcıların yaş ortalaması 34.06 yıldır (std= 8.47, 21 ile 66 arasında değişmektedir). Katılımcıların % 49'u lisans, % 45.2'si yüksek lisans, ve % 5.8'i doktora derecesine sahiptir. Katılımcıların öğretmen olarak çalışma süresi ortalama 10.9 yıldır (std= 8.17, 6 ay ile 43 yıl arasında değişmektedir; mevcut kurumlarında çalışma süresi ortalaması 8.2 yıldır (std= 7.35, 6 ay ile 38 yıl arasında değişmektedir). Son olarak, katılımcıların % 54.3'ü hizmet-öncesi eğitim, % 71.8'i hizmet-içi eğitim, ve % 28.7'si mentör desteği almıştır. Veri toplamak üzere geliştirilen anket, hazırlık okullarının bölüm başkanları tarafından katılımcılara dağıtılmış ve katılım tamamen gönüllülük temelinde gerçekleşmiştir.

**Ölçüm Araçları:** Katılımcılara uygulanan anket üç bölümden oluşmaktadır. Birinci bölümde katılımcıların eğitim düzeyi, yaş, cinsiyet, öğretmen olarak çalışma süreleri, ve mevcut kurumda görev sürelerine ilişkin sorular sorulmaktadır. İkinci

bölümde, katılımcıların kurumlarında hizmet-öncesi, hizmet-içi eğitim ve mentör desteği alıp-almadıkları, aldılar ise memnuniyet dereceleri sorulmaktadır. Bu bölümde ayrıca, katılımcıların mevcut kurumlarındaki çalışma koşullarından memnuniyetlerine yönelik (ör: maaş, ikramiye, ek ders ücreti, kreş, sosyal tesisler, sağlık ve spor olanakları), 5-dereceli (1= Hiç memnun değilim, 5= Çok memnunum) beş soru bulunmaktadır.

Üçüncü bölümde, bağımlı ve bağımsız değişkenlere yönelik veri toplamak amacı ile beş ayrı ölçek bulunmaktadır:

**Bilgi Paylaşımı Ölçeği:** Bu ölçekte kurumda bilgi paylaşımının mevcudiyeti ve etkinliği konusunda, 5-dereceli (1= Hiç katılmıyorum, 5= Tamamen katılıyorum) beş adet madde bulunmaktadır. Haser ve Kondakçı (2011) tarafından geliştirilmiş ve geçerlik-güvenirlilik incelemesi yapılmış olan ölçeğin geçerliğine ilave kanıt olması amacı ile bu çalışmada doğrulayıcı faktör analizi yapılmıştır.

**İş Doyumu Ölçeği:** Orijinali Hulpia ve De Vos (2009) tarafından geliştirilen ölçeğin Türkçe adaptasyonu Haser ve Kondakçı (2011) tarafından yapılmıştır. Katılımcıların işlerine yönelik doyum durumları hakkında, 5-dereceli (1= Hiç katılmıyorum, 5= Tamamen katılıyorum) altı madde bulunmaktadır. Haser ve Kondakçı (2011) tarafından geçerlik-güvenirlilik incelemesi yapılmış olan ölçeğin geçerliğine ilave kanıt olması amacı ile bu çalışmada doğrulayıcı faktör analizi yapılmıştır.

**Kurumsal Toplumsallaşma Ölçeği:** Orijinali Haueter, Macan ve Winter (2003) tarafından geliştirilen Yenigelen Toplumsallaşma Ölçeğinin bu çalışma kapsamında Türkçe adaptasyonu yapılmıştır. Yazarlar bu ölçeği geliştirirken öğrenme, dahil olma ve asimilasyon gibi kurumsal toplumsallaşmanın direk sonuçlarını ölçmeyi hedeflemişlerdir. Ölçekteki üç boyut; kuruma yönelik toplumsallaşma, bölüme yönelik toplumsallaşma ve göreve yönelik toplumsallaşmadır. Orijinalinde toplam 35 madde bulunan ölçek, kültürel açıdan eksik olduğu düşünülen maddelerin ilave edilmesi ile Türkçe adaptasyonunda 47 madde içermektedir. Katılımcıların kurum, bölüm ve göreve yönelik toplumsallaşmaları 7-dereceli (1= Hiç katılmıyorum, 7= Tamamen katılıyorum) maddeler ile ölçülmektedir. Ölçeğin adaptasyonu yapılırken geçerlik ve güvenirlilik konusunda özen gösterilmiş, toplumsallaşma ölçeklerine yönelik alanyazın taraması

yapılmış, teoriler incelenmiş ve Türkçe çevirisi ve geri-çevirisi yapılırken alanda uzman kişilerden yardım ve görüş alınmıştır.

Pilot çalışma sürecinde yapılan açıklayıcı faktör analizi bulguları orijinal ölçekteki boyutlarla örtüşmemiştir. Ancak; ana çalışma kapsamında yapılan doğrulayıcı faktör analizi bulguları, orijinal ölçekteki boyutlara uygunluk göstermiştir.

**Kurumsal Bağlılık Ölçeği:** Orijinali Meyer, Allen ve Smith (1993) tarafından geliştirilen ölçek; kuruma bağlılığın duygusal, normatif ve devamlılık bağlılığı boyutlarını içeren 24 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Bu çalışmada, ölçeğin Wasti (1999) tarafından yapılan Türkçe adaptasyonu kullanılmıştır. Kültür açısından eksik olduğu düşünülen maddelerin ilave edilmesi ile ölçeğin Türkçe adaptasyonu 33 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Katılımcılar, her bir maddenin kendilerine ne derece uygun olduğunu 7-dereceli (1= Hiç katılmıyorum, 7= Tamamen katılıyorum) olarak değerlendirmektedir. Wasti (1999) tarafından geçerlik ve güvenirlik incelemesi yapılmış olan ölçeğin geçerliğine ilave kanıt olması amacı ile bu çalışmada doğrulayıcı faktör analizi yapılmıştır.

**Öğretmen Özyeterlik Ölçeği:** Orijinali Tschannen-Moran ve Woolfolk-Hoy (2001) tarafından geliştirilen ölçek; öğretmen özyeterliğinin, öğrencinin ilgisini çekme, etkin ders anlatım yöntemleri ve sınıfı kontrol altında tutma boyutlarını içeren 24 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Bu çalışmada; Türkçe adaptasyonu ve geçerlik-güvenirlik incelemeleri Çapa, Çakıroğlu ve Sakarya (2005) tarafından yapılan ölçek kullanılmıştır. Türkçe adaptasyonu da 24 maddeden oluşan ölçekte, katılımcılardan her bir maddenin kendilerine ne derece uygun olduğunu 9-dereceli (1= Yetersiz, 9= Çok yeterli) olarak değerlendirmeleri istenmektedir. Bu çalışmada, ölçeğin geçerliğine ilave kanıt olması amacı ile doğrulayıcı faktör analizi yapılmıştır.

### **Temel Bulgular:**

Öncelikle; pilot çalışmada yapılan kurumsal toplumsallaşma ölçeğinin açıklayıcı faktör analizi sonuçlarının, orijinal ölçekteki yapı ile uyumlu olmaması ile ilgili iki görüş ortaya çıkmaktadır. Birincisi, okutmanlar çalıştıkları üniversite ve bölüm arasında bir ayırım yapmamakta ve her iki olguyu aynı görmektedir. Hazırlık okullarında görev yapan okutmanların, üniversitenin diğer bölümlerinde görev yapan akademik personele kıyasla farklı konumları vardır. Okutmanların; akademik ünvan

olanağı ve kaygıları yoktur, dolayısıyla araştırma ve yayın ile ilgilenmemektedirler. Bunun sonucu olarak, kendilerini üniversitedeki rekabetçi akademik ortamda görmemektedirler. Diğer bir açıklama ise; Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein ve Gardner (1994) tarafından geliştirilmiş olan kurumsal toplumsallaşma ölçeği - toplumsallaşmanın özgül içerik boyutları birbirinden bağımsız olarak tanımladığı için - daha geçerli bir ölçek olabilir. Çünkü; pilot çalışmada açıklayıcı faktör analizinde elde edilen boyutları tanımlamak, Chao ve arkadaşları tarafından tanımlanan boyutlara benzer çıkmıştır.

Ana çalışmanın amacı; üniversitelerin hazırlık okullarında görev yapan okutmanların kurum, bölüm ve görev düzeyindeki toplumsallaşmalarını yordayan bireysel ve kurumsal düzeydeki faktörleri belirlemektir.

İşe yönelik eğitim için betimsel istatistik sonuçlarına göre, hizmet-öncesi eğitim alan okutmanların % 66.7'si aldıkları eğitimden memnunken, % 10.2'si memnun değildi. Hizmet-içi eğitim alanların % 56'sı aldıkları eğitimden memnunken, % 11.8'i memnun değildi. Mentör desteği alan okutmanların % 76'sı memnuniyetini belirtirken, % 10'u memnun değildi. Genelde eğitim alanların önemli bir kısmı işe yönelik eğitimden memnun olduklarını ifade etmiştir. İşe yönelik eğitim, işe başlama sürecinde rahat bir uyum süreci ifade ettiği için bu bulgu alanyazındaki diğer çalışmalarla tutarlıdır. Örneğin, Saks (1995) yenigelenlerin hizmet-öncesi eğitim özyeterlik düzeylerine bakılmaksızın eğitimin önemli olduğunu tespit etmiştir. Diğer bir çalışmada ise Louis ve diğerleri (1983), eğitim programlarının yenigelenlerin olumlu tutumları ile yakından ilişkili olduğu sonucuna varmıştır. Benzer şekilde Allen, McManus ve Russell (1999) tarafından yapılan çalışmada, mentör desteğinin kurumsal toplumsallaşma ile olumlu ilişkili olduğunu tespit edilmiştir. İşe yönelik eğitimin kurumsal toplumsallaşma ile olumlu ilişkisine rağmen, daha düşük oranda olsa da bazı okutmanların memnuniyetsizliklerini belirtmelerinin nedeni eğitim programlarının özyeterlik düzeylerinin dikkate alınmadan her birey için benzer şekilde düzenlenmesinden kaynaklanabilir. Alanyazında, özyeterlik düzeyi düşük olanlar için yararlı olan eğitim programlarının özyeterlik düzeyi yüksek olanlar açısından aynı ölçüde verimli olmadığı tespit edilmiştir (Gist ve diğerleri, 1991).

Hizmet-içi eğitim ve mentörlük desteğinden memnun olan okutmanların yüzdesinin hizmet-öncesi eğitim alanların yüzdesinden düşük olmasının nedeni,

hizmet-öncesi eğitimin yenigelenlere yönelik olması ve deneyimsiz yenigelenlerin işe bağlılıklarının daha yüksek olmasından kaynaklanabilir. Ayrıca, deneyimli okutmanlar hizmet-içi eğitime katılmalarının kendilerini meslekleri açısından zenginleştirmeyeceğine inanıyor olabilirler. Benzer şekilde, Hupia, Devos ve Van Keer (2010) ve Reyes (1992) deneyimli olan öğretmenlerin işe bağlılıklarının, deneyimsiz öğretmenlere kıyasla daha düşük olduğunu tespit etmişlerdir.

Çalışma koşullarına yönelik betimsel istatistik sonuçlarına göre okutmanlar çalışma koşullarından orta düzeyde ( $M_{\text{Çalışma Koşulları}} = 2.86$ ) memnundur. Bilgi paylaşımı ölçeği için ortalamanın ( $M_{\text{Bilgi Paylaşımı}} = 3.71$ ) yüksek olması, okutmanların kurumlarındaki bilgi paylaşımından memnun olduklarını göstermektedir. Üniversiteler doğası nedeniyle bilgi paylaşımını destekleyen ve bilgiyi yayan kurumlardır. Ayrıca, diğer eğitim kurumlarına kıyasla, üniversite ortamında akademisyenlerin karar verme sürecine dahil edilmesine daha fazla önem verilmesi ve dolayısıyla bilgilendirilmesi, ayrıca üniversite içinde elektronik posta listelerinin bilgilendirme amacı ile yaygın olarak kullanılması, bu konuda memnuniyet seviyesinin yüksek olmasını açıklayabilir.

Şaşırtıcı olarak, iş doyumunu ölçeğinin ortalaması ( $M_{\text{İş Doyumu}} = 4.09$ ) çalışma koşulları ve bilgi paylaşımı ortalamalarından oldukça yüksek çıkmıştır. Çalışma koşulları ve bilgi paylaşımına yönelik memnuniyet daha düşük seviyede iken iş doyumunun yüksek olması, başka etkenlerin de bu süreçte etkili olması ile açıklanabilir. Üniversitede çalışıyor olmanın sağladığı prestijli statü ve öğretmenliğin saygın bir meslek olarak görülmesi iş doyumunu arttıran etkenler olabilir. Alanyazında bu konuda benzer sonuçlar elde edilmiştir. Örneğin, Kök (2006) Pamukkale Üniversitesinde çalışan akademisyenlerin iş doyumunu ve kurumsal bağlılıklarına yönelik yaptığı çalışmada, akademisyenlerin % 73'ünün mesleklerinin toplumda saygın bir kişilik kazandırdığını düşündüklerini belirtmiştir. Aynı çalışmada, akademisyenlerin % 75'inin işlerinden gurur duyduğu ve % 83'ünün işinden memnun olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır.

Kurumsal toplumsallaşma betimsel istatistik sonuçlarına göre en yüksek düzeyde toplumsallaşma; göreve ( $M_{\text{Görev Toplumsallaşması}} = 6.13$ ), ardından bölüme ( $M_{\text{Görev Toplumsallaşması}} = 5.64$ ) ve ardından kuruma ( $M_{\text{Kurum Toplumsallaşması}} = 5.33$ ) yöneliktir. Görevlerinin doğası nedeniyle okutmanların önceliği, araştırma yapmaktan ziyade başarılı bir öğretmen olmaktır. Ayrıca, araştırma-yayın

yapmalarının beklenmemesi ve akademik ünvan olanaklarının olmaması nedeniyle okutmanların akademik ortamda negatif ayrımcılık yaşadıkları inancı da bu süreçte etkili olabilir.

Kurumsal bağlılık betimleyici istatistik sonuçlarına göre, kuruma bağlılığın duygusal bağlılık boyutu en yüksek (4.98) ve devamlılık bağlılığı boyutu en düşük ortalamaya (4.03) sahiptir. Duygusal bağlılık boyutunun ortalamasının yüksek olması iş doyumunun yüksek olması ile açıklanabilir. Dolayısıyla; okutmanlar başka seçenekleri olmadığından değil, gurur duydukları için buldukları kurumda çalışmaktadırlar.

Öğretmen özyeterlik betimleyici istatistik sonuçlarına göre, okutmanlar özyeterliklerini oldukça yüksek olarak değerlendirmektedir. Özyeterliğin sınıfı kontrol altında tutma boyutu 7.56 ile en yüksek ortalamaya sahipken, öğrencinin ilgisini çekme boyutu 6.93 ile en düşük ortalamaya sahiptir. Sınıfı kontrol altında tutma boyutunun en yüksek ortalamaya sahip olması, üniversite öğrencilerinin ortaokul ve lise öğrencilerine kıyasla daha olgun olması ile açıklanabilir. Benzer şekilde, üniversitede öğrenim ortamının daha özerk olması, öğrencinin ilgisini çekme boyutunun ortalamasının düşük olmasını açıklayabilir.

Korelasyon analizinin sonuçlarına göre, toplumsallaşmayı yordayan değişkenler arasında ve yordayıcı değişkenler ile bağımlı değişkenler arasında birkaç istisna dışında anlamlı bir ilişki vardır. Devamlılık bağlılığının bilgi paylaşımı, iş doyumunu, görev toplumsallaşması ve özyeterliğin sınıfı kontrol altında tutma boyutu arasındaki korelasyon anlamlı değildir. Anlamlı olmayan korelasyonların hepsi kurumsal bağlılığın devamlılık boyutunu içerdiği için, kurumsal bağlılık ölçeğinin devamlılık bağlılığı boyutundaki maddeler sorunlu olabilir. Söz konusu ölçeğin bu boyutundaki maddeler genellikle, daha iyi bir seçenek olmadığı için bu kurumda çalışmak zorunluluğu yönünde bedbin tavırlı ifadeler içermektedir. Değişkenler ilişkili ancak farklı boyutları ölçtüğü için, beklendiği şekilde değişkenler arasında orta seviyede anlamlı korelasyon gözlemlenmiştir.

Bağımlı ve bağımsız değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemek için üç ayrı hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Bağımlı değişkenler kurum, bölüm ve görev düzeyinde toplumsallaşmadır. Hiyerarşik regresyon analizi sonuçlarına göre, bağımlı üç değişkeni yordamak için model uygundur. Kurum düzeyinde toplumsallaşma bağımlı değişken olarak ele alındığında, birinci kademe değişkenleri olan üniversite

tipi, akademik derece, öğretmenlik deneyimi ve şu anki kurumda çalışma süresi dikkate alınca regresyon modeli anlamlıdır:

$R^2 = .024$ ,  $\Delta F (4,538) = 3.303$ . Üniversite tipi kurum düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı önemli ölçüde yordamaktadır. İkinci kademedede, işe yönelik eğitim değişkenleri dikkate alınca regresyon modeli anlamlıdır:  $R^2 = .047$ ,  $\Delta F (3,535) = 4.234$  ve mentör desteği kurum düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı önemli ölçüde yordamaktadır. Üçüncü kademedede maaş, özlük hakları, sosyal, sağlık ve spor olanaklarını içeren çalışma koşullarına ilişkin değişkenleri dikkate alınca, regresyon modeli anlamlıdır:  $R^2 = .116$ ,  $\Delta F (5,530) = 8.316$ . Maaş ve özlük hakları kurum düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı önemli ölçüde yordamaktadır. Dördüncü kademedede bilgi paylaşımı değişkeni dikkate alınca, regresyon modeli anlamlıdır:  $R^2 = .267$ ,  $\Delta F (1,529) = 108.776$  ve kurum düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı en önemli ölçüde yordayan değişken, bilgi paylaşımıdır. Beşinci aşamada iş doyumunu değişkeni dikkate alınca regresyon modeli anlamlıdır:  $R^2 = .291$ ,  $\Delta F (1,528) = 18.054$  ve iş doyumunu kurum düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı önemli ölçüde yordamaktadır. Altıncı aşamada kurumsal bağlılık değişkenleri dikkate alınca, regresyon modeli anlamlıdır:  $R^2 = .305$ ,  $\Delta F (3,525) = 3.605$  ve duygusal bağlılık kurum düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı önemli ölçüde yordamaktadır. Yedinci kademedede özyeterlik değişkenleri dikkate alınca, regresyon modeli anlamlıdır:  $R^2 = .359$ ,  $\Delta F (3,522) = 14.512$  ve etkin ders anlatım yöntemlerine yönelik özyeterlik, kurum düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı önemli ölçüde yordamaktadır.

Bölüm düzeyinde toplumsallaşma bağımlı değişken olarak ele alınca, birinci kademe değişkenleri olan üniversite tipi, akademik derece, öğretmenlik deneyimi ve şu anki kurumda çalışma süresi dikkate alınca, regresyon modeli anlamlıdır:  $R^2 = .008$ ,  $\Delta F (4,522) = 1.010$ .

Bu kademedeki değişkenler bölüm düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı önemli derecede yordamamaktadır. İkinci kademedede işe yönelik eğitim değişkenleri dikkate alınca, regresyon modeli anlamlıdır:  $R^2 = .059$ ,  $\Delta F (3,519) = 9.346$  ve hizmet öncesi, hizmet-içi, mentör desteği bölüm düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı önemli ölçüde yordamaktadır. Üçüncü kademedede maaş, özlük hakları, sosyal, sağlık ve spor olanaklarını içeren çalışma koşullarına ilişkin değişkenleri dikkate alınca, regresyon modeli anlamlıdır:  $R^2 = .168$ ,  $\Delta F (5,514) = 13.494$ . Özlük hakları ve sosyal olanaklar bölüm düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı önemli ölçüde yordamaktadır. Dördüncü



kademede bilgi paylaşımı değişkeni dikkate alınca, regresyon modeli anlamlıdır:  $R^2 = .377$ ,  $\Delta F (1,513) = 172.659$  ve bölüm düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı en önemli ölçüde yordayan değişken bilgi paylaşımıdır. Beşinci aşamada iş doyumunu değişkeni dikkate alınca regresyon modeli anlamlıdır:  $R^2 = .416$ ,  $\Delta F (1,512) = 34.066$  ve iş doyumunu bölüm düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı önemli ölçüde yordamaktadır. Altıncı aşamada kurumsal bağlılık değişkenleri dikkate alınca, regresyon modeli anlamlıdır:  $R^2 = .460$ ,  $\Delta F (3,509) = 13.893$  ve duygusal bağlılık bölüm düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı önemli ölçüde yordamaktadır. Yedinci kademedeki özyeterlik değişkenleri dikkate alınca regresyon modeli anlamlıdır:  $R^2 = .527$ ,  $\Delta F (3,506) = 23.924$ ; etkin ders anlatım yöntemlerine yönelik özyeterlik ve sınıfı kontrol altında tutmaya yönelik özyeterlik, bölüm düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı önemli ölçüde yordamaktadır.

Görev düzeyinde toplumsallaşma bağımlı değişken olarak ele alındığında; birinci kademe değişkenleri olan üniversite tipi, akademik derece, öğretmenlik deneyimi ve şu anki kurumda çalışma süresi dikkate alınca, regresyon modeli önemli görülmemektedir:  $R^2 = .011$ ,  $\Delta F (4,536) = 1.555$ , ancak üniversite tipi değişkeni göreve yönelik toplumsallaşmayı önemli derecede yordamaktadır. İkinci kademedeki işe yönelik eğitim değişkenleri dikkate alınca, regresyon modeli anlamlıdır:  $R^2 = .042$ ,  $\Delta F (3,533) = 5.707$ ; hizmet öncesi, hizmet-içi eğitim görev düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı önemli ölçüde yordamaktadır. Üçüncü kademedeki maaş, özlük hakları, sosyal, sağlık ve spor olanaklarını içeren çalışma koşullarına ilişkin değişkenleri dikkate alınca, regresyon modeli anlamlıdır:  $R^2 = .091$ ,  $\Delta F (5,528) = 5.701$ . Kurumdaki spor olanakları görev düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı önemli ölçüde yordamaktadır. Dördüncü kademedeki bilgi paylaşımı değişkeni dikkate alınca, regresyon modeli anlamlıdır:  $R^2 = .242$ ,  $\Delta F (1,527) = 104.590$  ve görev düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı en önemli ölçüde yordayan değişken bilgi paylaşımıdır. Beşinci aşamada iş doyumunu değişkeni dikkate alınca regresyon modeli anlamlıdır:  $R^2 = .261$ ,  $\Delta F (1,526) = 13.429$  ve iş doyumunu bölüm düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı önemli ölçüde yordamaktadır. Altıncı aşamada kurumsal bağlılık değişkenleri dikkate alınca, regresyon modeli anlamlıdır:  $R^2 = .278$ ,  $\Delta F (3,523) = 4.202$ ; duygusal bağlılık ve normatif bağlılık görev düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı önemli ölçüde yordamaktadır. Yedinci kademedeki özyeterlik değişkenleri dikkate alınca, regresyon modeli anlamlıdır:  $R^2 = .444$ ,  $\Delta F (3,520) = 51.557$ ; etkin ders anlatım yöntemlerine

yönelik özyeterlik ve sınıfı kontrol altında tutmaya yönelik özyeterlik bölüm düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı önemli ölçüde yordamaktadır. Öğrencinin derse katılımını sağlamaya yönelik özyeterlik, bölüm düzeyinde toplumsallaşmayı önemli ancak ters yönde yordamaktadır.

Devlet veya vakıf üniversitesi olarak üniversite tipi değişkeni, kuruma ve göreve toplumsallaşmayı önemli ölçüde yordarken, bölüme toplumsallaşmayı yordamamaktadır. Üniversite tipi değişkeninin kurumsal toplumsallaşmayı yordamadaki önemi şöyle açıklanabilir: Devlet üniversitelerinde stajyer okutmanın bir yıllık staj süresi başarıyla tamamlandıktan sonra, ciddi bir disiplin suçu olmadıkça işten çıkarılma söz konusu değildir. Ancak, vakıf üniversitelerinde iş sözleşmesi performansa bağlı olarak her yıl yenilenmektedir. Dolayısıyla, vakıf üniversitelerinde iş sürekliliği garantisi daha düşüktür. Diğer taraftan, akademik derece, öğretmenlik deneyimi ve kurumda çalışma süresi her üç boyutdaki toplumsallaşmayı yordamamaktadır. Alanyazında bu değişkenlerin etkisi hakkında farklı görüşler vardır. Bazı araştırmalar devlet memurlarının özel sektör memurlarına göre daha düşük kurumsal bağlılık sergilediği sonucuna varmıştır (Flynn ve Tannenbaum, 1993; Moon, 2000; Zeffane, 1994). Ancak, bazı diğer çalışmalar tam tersi sonuca varmışlar (Balfour ve Wechsler, 1990) veya hiç fark bulmamışlardır (Steinhaus ve Perry, 1996).

İşe yönelik eğitimle ilgili değişkenlerle ilgili olarak, hizmet-öncesi, hizmet-içi ve mentör desteği kurum toplumsallaşmasında varyansın % 5'ini, bölüm toplumsallaşmasında varyansın % 6'sını ve görev toplumsallaşmasında varyansın % 4'ünü açıklamaktadır. Bu bulgular alanyazındaki diğer çalışma sonuçları ile tutarlıdır. Örneğin; Bauer ve diğerleri (2007) ve Saks ve diğerleri (2007) kurumsal toplumsallaşma değişkenlerinin arasındaki ilişkiyi inceledikleri iki ayrı meta analizde, yenigelenlerin toplumsallaşma sürecinde hangi yöntemle bilgi edindiklerinin iş doyumuna yönelik önemli etkisi olduğu sonucuna varmışlardır. İşe başlama sürecinde hangi yöntemle bilgi edinildiğinin, yenigelenlere verilen işe yönelik eğitimi içerdiği anlamına gelmesi doğru bir yargı olacaktır. Söz konusu her iki meta analizde, işe yönelik eğitim ve mentör desteğinin; iş doyumunu, kurumsal bağlılık ve işe devamlılıkta en güçlü yordayıcılar olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır. Bu çalışma sonuçları, mentör desteği almanın kurum ve bölüm toplumsallaşmasını önemli derecede yordadığını göstermektedir. Bu bulgu, Allen ve diğerlerinin (1999)

mentör desteğinin yenigelenlerin başarılı toplumsallaşmalarına katkısı olduğu bulgusu ile uyumludur. Chao ve diğerlerinin (1992) mentör desteği ve toplumsallaşmanın performans yeterliği boyutu arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmamasına rağmen, Allen ve diğerleri (1999) psikolojik-sosyal mentör desteğinin yenigelenlerin iş performansını arttırdığı sonucuna varmışlardır. Aynı çalışmada, mentörlerin yenigelenlerin etkin ve üretken bir grup üyesi olmalarına katkısı olduğu önerilmektedir. Diğer bir araştırmada, Ostroff ve Kozlowski (1992) mentör desteğinin kurumsal alanda toplumsallaşmayı kolaylaştırdığı sonucuna varmışlardır. Mentör desteği ve toplumsallaşma arasındaki ilişkiye yönelik diğer bir çalışmada, Cawyer, Simonds ve Davis (2002) mentörlük ilişkisinin toplumsallaşmaya olanak sağladığını tespit etmişlerdir. Diğer taraftan Louis ve diğerleri (1983), diğer toplumsallaşma uygulamalarına kıyasla işe yönelik eğitimin yenigelenin gelişimine orta derecede katkısı olduğu sonucuna varmışlardır.

Bu çalışmada elde edilen bulgulara göre, hizmet-içi eğitim bölüm ve görev toplumsallaşmasını önemli derecede yordarken, hizmet-öncesi eğitim, bölüm ve görev toplumsallaşmasını ters yönde anlamlı derecede yordamaktadır. Bu kapsamda ters yönde anlamlı ilişki için tek açıklama, okutmanların özyeterlik düzeyinin yüksek olmasıdır. Benzer şekilde, Gist ve diğerlerinin (1991) mesleki eğitim, özyeterlik ve toplumsallaşma konusunda yaptıkları çalışmada özyeterlik düzeylerine bağlı olarak, yenigelenlerin mesleki eğitiminin her birey için eşit derecede etkin olmayabileceği sonucuna varılmıştır.

Hiyerarşik regresyon modelindeki çalışma koşullarına yönelik değişkenler dikkate alınca, maaş ve özlük haklarının kuruma yönelik toplumsallaşmayı önemli derecede yordadığı; ancak, maaş ve kuruma toplumsallaşma arasında ters yönde anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu görülmektedir. Ayrıca, özlük hakları ve kurumun sağladığı sosyal olanaklar göreve yönelik toplumsallaşmayı önemli derecede yordamaktadır. Mali teşviklerin çalışanın işine ve kurumuna yönelik motivasyonunu arttırdığı gerçeği; kuruma ve bölüme yönelik toplumsallaşmayı açıklarken, bu durum maaş ve kuruma yönelik toplumsallaşma arasındaki ters yönde anlamlı ilişki ile uyumsuzdur. Bu kapsamda, daha detaylı araştırma yapılması gerekmektedir. Bu çalışmadaki katılımcıların çoğunluğu kadınlardan oluştuğu için, kurumda kreş-yuva hizmeti gibi sosyal olanakların bölüme toplumsallaşmayı önemli ölçüde yordadığı düşünülebilir. Ayrıca, kurumdaki spor olanaklarının göreve yönelik

toplumsallaşmayı anlamlı derecede yordaması, sağlıklı ve dinç yaşam tarzının yaygın şekilde benimsenmesi gerçeği ile açıklanabilir.

Bu çalışmada elde edilen sonuçlara göre, bilgi paylaşımı her üç boyuttaki toplumsallaşma için varyansın en yüksek yüzdesini açıklamaktadır ve dolayısıyla, bilgi paylaşımı; kuruma, bölüme ve göreve yönelik toplumsallaşmayı önemli derecede yordamaktadır. Diğer bir deyişle, okutmanlar kurum, bölüm ve görevleri hakkında ne kadar çok bilgiye sahip olurlar ise, bu boyutlardaki toplumsallaşmaları o kadar çok artmaktadır. Bu bulgu alanyazındaki diğer çalışmalarla tutarlıdır. Örneğin, toplumsallaşmayı etkileyen faktörler ve sonuçları hakkında meta-analitik bir inceleme çalışması yapan Bauer ve diğerleri (2007) bilgi paylaşımının toplumsallaşmayı önemli derecede yordadığını tespit etmiştir. Iqbal ve diğerleri (2011), Tidwell ve Sias (2005) da bilgi paylaşımının toplumsallaşma ile önemli ilişkisi olduğu sonucuna varmışlardır.

Modeldeki iş doyumu değişkenini ele alınca, hiyerarşik regresyon analiz sonuçları iş doyumunun her üç boyuttaki toplumsallaşmayı önemli derecede yordadığını göstermektedir. İş doyumunun zaman içinde değişmesi ile ilgili çalışmalarında Boswell ve diğerleri (2009), iş doyumunun değişiklik gösterme deseninin önceki iş deneyimi ve yükümlülüklerin gerçekleşmesi ile ilgili olduğu sonucuna varmış ve toplumsallaşmanın iş doyumu açısından olumlu etkisine dikkat çekmiştir.

Hiyerarşik regresyon modelindeki kurumsal bağlılık değişkenleri dikkate alınca, bu çalışmadaki bulgular duygusal bağlılığın; kuruma, bölüme ve göreve toplumsallaşmayı önemli derecede yordadığını göstermektedir. Alanyazındaki çeşitli çalışmalar duygusal bağlılığın toplumsallaşmanın sonucu olduğunu belirlemesine rağmen, bu çalışmada duygusal bağlılığın toplumsallaşmayı önemli derecede yordaması bulgusu anlamlıdır. Çünkü, duygusal bağlılık ölçeğindeki maddeler bireyin kendini kurumla özdeşleştirmesi derecesini ölçmektedir. Duygusal bağlılığı yüksek olan okutmanların; kurum, bölüm ve görev hakkında bilgi edinme motivasyonunun yüksek olacağı ve böylece toplumsallaşma düzeyinin artacağı düşünülmektedir.

Bu çalışma sonuçlarına göre, normatif bağlılık göreve yönelik toplumsallaşmayı ters yönde önemli yordamaktadır. Cladwell, Chatman ve O'Reilly (1990) güçlü bir kültür etkisi olan kurumlarda normatif bağlılığın yüksek olduğu

sonucuna varmıştır. Diğer kurumlara kıyasla, üniversiteler daha liberal çalışma ortamı sunduğu için kültürün empoze edilmemesi normatif bağlılıkla toplumsallaşma arasındaki ters yönlü ilişkiyi açıklayabilir.

Hiyerarşik regresyon modelindeki özyeterlik değişkeni dikkate alınınca, etkin ders anlatım yöntemleri ve sınıfı kontrol altında tutma boyutlarına ilişkin özyeterlik, göreve yönelik toplumsallaşmayı önemli derecede yordamaktadır. Öğrencinin ilgisini çekmeye ilişkin özyeterlik göreve yönelik toplumsallaşmayı ters yönde önemli derecede yordamaktadır. Ölçekte bu boyuttaki özyeterliğe ilişkin maddeler, öğrenciyi motive etmek gibi pedagojik becerilere ilişkindir. Göreve yönelik toplumsallaşma ile ters doğrultuda ilişki olmasının açıklaması, öğrencinin otonom olmasının beklendiği üniversite ortamında, okutmanların önceliğinin bu yöndeki özyeterliklerinin olmaması olabilir. Ancak, bu bulguya açıklık kazandırmak için daha detaylı araştırma yapılması uygun olur.

Etkin ders anlatım yöntemleri ve sınıfı kontrol altında tutma boyutlarına yönelik özyeterlik, bölüm toplumsallaşmasını önemli derecede yordamaktadır. Etkin ders anlatım yöntemleri boyutuna ilişkin özyeterlik ise kurum toplumsallaşmasını önemli derecede yordamaktadır. Bu bulgular alanyazındaki diğer çalışma sonuçları ile uyumludur. Örneğin, Bauer ve diğerleri (2007) özyeterliğin toplumsallaşma uygulamaları ve performans arasında mediatör rolü olduğu sonucuna varmışlardır. Aynı çalışmada; yeni gelenlerin özyeterlikleri yüksek ise, yeni rolleri hakkında kendilerine belli bir çerçeve çizilmiş olsa bile, rollerini kendilerinin belirlediği sonucuna varılmıştır. Bu sonuçtan yola çıkarak, özyeterliği yüksek olanların kuruma ve bölüme yönelik toplumsallaşmaların daha kolay ve yüksek olacağı düşünülebilir.

Toplumsallaşma sürecinin karmaşıklığı, bu süreci etkileyen faktörlerin detaylı incelenmesini olumsuz etkilemektedir ve bu alanda yapılan çalışmaların çoğu süreci etkileyen bireysel düzeydeki değişkenlere odaklanmıştır (Haser ve Kondakçı, 2011). Bu çalışmada toplumsallaşmayı etkileyen kurum ve birey düzeyindeki değişkenler birlikte ele alınmıştır. Kurumsal düzeydeki faktörlerden; bilgi paylaşımı ve işe yönelik eğitim ile bireysel düzeydeki faktörler arasında iş doyumunu, toplumsallaşmayı en güçlü yordayan değişkenlerdir.

### **Değerlendirme, Sonuç ve Öneriler:**

Üniversitede görev yapan öğretim elemanlarının toplumsallaşması, kurum ve birey düzeyinde değişkenlerden etkilenen dinamik ve karmaşık bir süreç olduğu için özenli bir şekilde ele alınmalıdır. Bu çalışmada okutmanların toplumsallaşmasını belirleyen değişkenlere yönelik ampirik kanıt elde edilmiştir.

Uygulama açısından ele alınınca çalışma sonuçlarına göre; kurumsal düzeydeki faktörler arasında hazırlık okullarında görev yapan okutmanların kuruma, bölüme ve göreve toplumsallaşmalarını en güçlü yordayan değişken, bilgi paylaşımıdır. Bireysel düzeydeki faktörler arasında ise; iş doyumunu, kuruma ve bölüme toplumsallaşmayı en güçlü yordayan değişkendir. Etkin ders anlatım yöntemlerine yönelik özyeterlik, göreve toplumsallaşmayı yordayan en güçlü değişkendir. Dolayısıyla, hem kurum, hem bölüm içinde bilgi paylaşımı desteklenmeli ve yaygınlaştırılmalıdır. Ayrıca, okutmanların iş doyumunu arttırmak amacıyla yönelik uygulamalar yapılmalı ki, okutmanların her boyutta etkin toplumsallaşması sağlanarak, çalışma ortamlarında daha fazla verimlilik göstermeleri sağlanabilsin (Kramer, 2010; Schein, 1985).

Okutmanların kendilerini öğretmen olarak daha yeterli, becerikli ve bilgili görmeleri için uygun eğitim programları düzenlenerek, etkin ders anlatım yöntemlerine yönelik özyeterlikleri artırılmalıdır. Hizmet-öncesi, hizmet-içi veya mentör desteği şeklindeki işe yönelik eğitim toplumsallaşmanın her üç boyutunu da önemli derecede yordamaktadır. Ancak, eğitim programları düzenlenirken, bireylerin özyeterlik düzeyleri dikkate alınmalı ve farklı eğitim programları uygulanmalıdır (Gist ve diğerleri 1991). Kurumsal bağlılığın duygusal bağlılık boyutu kurumsal toplumsallaşmayı önemli ölçüde yordadığı için, bu boyuta olumlu katkısı olacak şekilde yönetim ve liderlik yaklaşımları uygulanmalıdır.

Okutmanların kuruma toplumsallaşmaları, bölüm ve görev toplumsallaşmalarına kıyasla daha az olduğu için; okutmanların bölüm dışı, üniversite içindeki etkinlik ve paylaşımlara katılımları için olanak yaratılmalıdır ki, okutmanların kuruma uzak durmaları engellenebilsin. Mali boyutu olmayan teşviklerin toplumsallaşmaya olumlu katkısı nedeniyle, okutmanların çalışmaları farklı yöntemlerle onurlandırılmalı, üniversite ortamında çalışmanın ve öğretmenlik mesleğinin saygınlığı ön plana çıkarılmalıdır. Bölüm başkanları ve üniversitenin

ilgili bölümleri; bu önerileri dikkate alarak okutman alımı ve eğitimi ile ilgili program ve politikalarını gözden geçirebilirler.

### **Çalışmanın Sınırlılıkları:**

Bu çalışmanın sınırlılıklarından ilki, verilerinin kümeleme yöntemi ile toplanmış olmasıdır. Kümeleme yöntemi nedeniyle dış geçerlik azaldığı için, sonuçlar Türkiye'deki üniversitelerin hazırlık okullarında görev yapan tüm okutmanları temsil etmemektedir.

Çalışmanın diğer bir sınırlılığı ise, verinin 16 farklı üniversitede, farklı fiziksel koşullar ortamında toplanmış olmasıdır. Dolayısıyla, lokasyon çalışma için iç geçerlik hatası yaratabilir. Çalışmadaki katılımcıların yaşlarının 21 ila 66 arasında değişmesi, ve öğretmenlik deneyimlerinin 6 ay ile 43 yıl arasında değişmesi de ayrı bir iç geçerlik hatası oluşturabilir. Ancak, yaş ve deneyim süresindeki bu farklılığa rağmen, tüm katılımcıların hazırlık okullarında görev yapan okutmanlardan oluşması nedeniyle örneklem homojen bir grup oluşturmaktadır ki, bu da iç geçerlik hatası yaratabilir.

Çalışmanın bir diğer kısıtlılığı, elde edilen verilerin sadece kişisel beyana dayanmasıdır. Bu durum birinci tip hatayı ve katılımcıların sosyal beğenirlik yönünde cevap vermesi olasılığını arttırabilir. Ayrıca, bağımlı ve bağımsız değişkenlere ilişkin verilerin aynı zaman diliminde toplanmış olması da birinci tip hatayı arttırabilir.

Çalışmanın son kısıtlılığı ise, katılımcılar tarafından ölçek cevaplanırken araştırmacının ortamda bulunmamış olmasıdır.

### **İleriye Yönelik Öneriler:**

Bu çalışmanın sınırlılıklarını dikkate alarak, ileriye yönelik öneriler aşağıdaki şekildedir:

Öncelikle, bu çalışma verileri Türkiye'de dört şehir ve KKTC'de bir şehirde yerleşik üniversitelerden toplanmıştır. İleride yapılması düşünülen çalışmalarda veri, Türkiye'deki doğu ve kuzey bölgelerindeki üniversiteleri de kapsayacak şekilde daha geniş bir coğrafi alandan derlenebilir ve böylece toplumsallaşmanın yordayıcıları hakkında daha derinlemesine bilgi elde edilebilir.

Bu çalışma nicel bir araştırma olarak tasarlanmıştır. Ancak, toplumsallaşmayı yordayan değişkenleri daha detaylı incelemek için nicel araştırma sonuçlarının nitel araştırma ile desteklenmesi yararlı olacaktır.

Bu çalışma da kurumsal toplumsallaşmayı yordayan, çeşitli kurum ve birey düzeyinde değişkenler ele alınmasına rağmen, diğer farklı değişkenlerin de toplumsallaşmaya etkisi olabilir ve bunların da farklı bir çalışmada ele alınması önemli olacaktır; örneğin, üniversitede öğretim dilinin İngilizce veya Türkçe olması, okutmanların sınıflarının bir öğretim yılı içinde hangi sıklıkla değiştiği gibi.

Bu çalışmada bireysel ve kurumsal düzeydeki çeşitli değişkenlerin kurumsallaşmayı yordaması incelenmiştir. Değişkenler arasındaki sebep-sonuç ilişkisini açıklamak amacı ile yol analizi yapılması daha açıklayıcı sonuçlar elde edilmesini sağlayacaktır.

Son olarak, Türkçe adaptasyonu yapılan Kurumsal Toplumsallaşma Ölçeğinin geçerliğini sağlamak amacı ile, farklı popülasyonlardan toplanan veri ile ilave çalışmalar yapılması önemli olacaktır. Ayrıca, kurumsal toplumsallaşmanın kendine özgü içerik alanlarının birbirinden bağımsız olarak ölçüldüğü farklı toplumsallaşma ölçekleri kullanılarak benzeri çalışmalar yapılması faydalı olacaktır.



## APPENDIX F

### CURRICULUM VITAE

#### PERSONAL INFORMATION

Surname, Name: Ataman, Fatma  
Nationality: Turkish (TC)  
Date and Place of Birth: 23 June 1959, Eskişehir  
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#### EDUCATION

Degree	Institution	Year of Graduation
MS	METU Educational Management	1999
BA	Hacettepe University Linguistics	1981
High School	TED Ankara College, Ankara	1977

#### WORK EXPERIENCE

Year	Place	Enrollment
1998- Present	METU Dept. of Basic English	Instructor
1988-1998	TED Ankara College High School	English Teacher
1983-1985	METU Dept. of Basic English	Instructor

#### FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Advanced English, Average German

#### PUBLICATIONS

1. Ataman, F., & Kondakçı, Y., (2012, May). *İngilizce hazırlık okullarındaki okutmanların mesleki toplumsallaşmaları*. VII. Ulusal Eğitim Yönetimi Kongresi'nde sunulmuş bildiri. Malatya, Türkiye.
2. Ataman, F., Gulsen, B. G. (2005, October). *Standardizing a university level English proficiency exam*. Proceedings of the 13th Annual KOTESOL International Conference. Seoul, Korea.

#### HOBBIES

Swimming, Mountaineering, Scuba Diving.