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Student Leadership and Student Government

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Abstract

Student leadership is often misconceptualized as merely a pedagogical exercise revolving around simulated political arenas with little to no immediate real political consequence. Other scholarship normalizes students as political outsiders who have to resort to dangerous, exhausting activism tactics for even minute advocacy victories due to their lack of structural representation in education decision-making. An analysis of student leadership in research and practice is presented according to an identified spectrum of low to high student power. This article argues that student leadership has great potential for real political action. The best structure for student leadership is argued to be democratic student government, as well as students having standing roles within education leadership structures. Furthermore, effective conceptions of student leadership must not only acknowledge its developmental aspects, but also account for the real politics inherent in student leadership activities. To conclude, a more political conception of student leadership and student government is advocated for so student leaders' real political activities can be recognized and studied as such in education leadership discourse to prevent student exploitation and tokenism.

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Student Leadership and Student Government

Fostering student leadership is integral to not just political education, but student representation, advocacy, and activism. To encourage non-student education stakeholder groups and education researchers to contribute to meaningful student leadership that avoids exploiting or tokenizing student voices, there needs to be a literature shift towards recognizing student leadership activities as real politics and ensuring that education institutions and societies provide education decision-making structures sufficient for effective student leadership to take place. For the purposes of this article, real politics is defined as political decision-making that inherently has direct, consequential, and lasting implications for some aspect(s) of human existence, which I hold to be compatible with if not an expansion of Doron Navot's understanding of real politics as "actual political processes, local norms, public discussions, self-interpretations of agents, and public opinion" (2015, p. 544-545). Without effective avenues to exercise leadership and advocate for their interests, students are exposed to exploitation, injury, and, in some cases, death, as has been exemplified in numerous cases around the world, with some notable examples including Kent State University in the United States where students were gunned down by the military (Boren, 2001), Canadian residential schools that exploited Indigenous students (Bear Chief, 2016), student massacres by the government in Mexico (Hodges & Gandy, 2002) and Brazil (Gould, 2009) in the 1960s, Soviet oppression of students in Czechoslovakia during the Cold War (Stolarik, 2010), the manipulation of student governments during the

Cold War by both superpowers (Burkett, 2014), recent deaths of student protesters in Hong Kong (Ramsay & Cheung, 2019) and Nigeria (Maishanu, 2021), as well as prevailing systemic racism and other forms of oppression in contemporary education systems (George, 2020).

Student leaders should not have to risk their lives to have a say in education decision-making. They should not be restricted to the margins or have to negotiate at massive disadvantages with other education stakeholders. A fundamental challenge unique to student leadership is a lack of structures to foster effective leadership activities. Without a legitimate place in education decision-making and organizational structures to discern the collective student voice, student leadership risks being relegated to isolated efforts of individual students, rendering it less effective than the structural power and organized lobbying efforts of other education stakeholder groups. A new paradigm is needed that recognizes student government as integral to effective student leadership that can be sustained over a multi-year period, and on a more conceptual level, emphasizes the importance of structure in fostering student leadership.

This structure-cognizant conception of student leadership would challenge literature and practices that hinder student leaders' efforts to advocate for student interests and not get hurt or killed in the process. Understandings of student leadership purely as leadership training for the future instead of real leadership in the present, especially when taken to the lengths of creating fake leadership simulations that distract from real political arenas where student leadership is desperately needed, are among these misconceptions. Similarly detrimental are certain perspectives on where and how

student leadership should take place, such as normatively framing student leaders as inherent outsiders to education decision-making or as leaders of interest groups in political arenas where the other education stakeholders have vastly superior resources and structural advantages. To meet non-student stakeholders on a fair playing field, student leaders need collective structures sufficiently robust to make up for these disadvantages so student leaders' efforts to enact change within education systems are not set up to fail. Analyses and critique of the above misconceptions of student leadership are outlined to make a case for subsequent recommendations on how structure-cognisant conceptions of student leadership can break new ground toward answering the question of how student leadership can be best conceptualized and implemented to be effective at influencing education decision-making while mitigating risk to student leaders' safety and wellbeing. Cases and literature are presented on a spectrum starting from examples that offer or advocate for the least amount of student power and concluding with those that have the most.

Student Leadership is Real

One mischaracterization of student leadership is that it is a form of leadership practice instead of leadership in practice. This causes students to be viewed as future leaders instead of present leaders in their current capacity as students. This contributes to student advocacy being disregarded as illegitimate and sidelined. Regarding how this may have occurred, perhaps the etymological origins of words describing roles in education institutions helped initiate such conceptualizations of students. The first European universities referred to educators as masters who designed curriculum, pedagogy, and strict punishments to indoctrinate students in ways satisfactory to religious and secular benefactors (Pegues, 1977). The masters designed

pedagogical practices that served to be mainly a process of indoctrination revolving around dictation and recitation of canonical texts (Janin, 2008). Students who did not adhere to the elites' strategic visions were severely chastised and subjected to reprimand by not only the masters, but by local religious and secular authorities as well, which often led to a range of corporal punishments (Haskins, 1975). Any master or student who tried to resist this trend, be it by writing a nuanced paper or teaching new ideas, was charged as a heretic and of corrupting the youth, with notable examples being the condemnations of radical scholars in 1277 (Wilshire, 1997), as well as ruling authorities' staunch opposition to the unconventional teachings of Siger of Brabant (Bukowski, 1990). Students were viewed as not only subordinate, but inferior. Thomas Aquinas, a scholar and intellectual during the thirteenth century who taught at the University of Paris, a school known for its top-down approach (Scott, 1992), believed that students "do not know to judge about such difficult matters" of independent intellectual thought (Bukowski, 1990, p. 75). While these practices took place a long time ago, they key takeaway here is that the very foundation of higher education as we know it today is rooted in attempts to stifle the student voice. These perspectives continued to influence education for centuries after, including well into the nineteenth century in the United States through non-student control of extracurricular life (Caple, 1998), control and suppression of student governments (Crane, 1969), and detrimental biases toward youth (Katz, 1968). Their effects persist into the twenty-first century, with students largely having little say in education decision-making compared to other education stakeholders and debates ongoing as to whether students are capable of representing themselves (Klemenčič, 2018).

The rise of student affairs as an area of study and practice as educational institutional structures expanded in the twentieth century provided grounds to recognize student leadership as something to be cultivated for student development and as part of the learning experience. In the United States, in what is known as student affairs' "first philosophical statement" (Hevel, 2016, p. 254) referred to as "The Student Personnel Point of View," emphasis was placed on "the student's well-rounded development physically, socially, emotionally and spiritually, as well as intellectually" while regarding the student "as a responsible participant in his own development and not as a passive recipient of an imprinted economic, political, or religious doctrine, or vocational skill" (Williamson et al., 1949, p. 2). While this is a step above outright delegitimization of the student voice, and while political education and individual student development in a number of areas is advocated for in the document, student leadership is viewed as something to be cultivated for application post-graduation instead of being enacted while an individual is still a student, with student activities being designed by student affairs personnel for encouraging development (Williamson et al., 1949) instead of more recent approaches that recognize the importance of advocating for students' interests (Croft & Seemiller, 2017).

A purely developmental view of student leadership sidelines the real politics of leadership activities students engage in to advocate for themselves. It also implicitly stigmatizes political arenas such as student governments where student leadership takes place to a realm of political simulations and pedagogical exercises. This contributes to research on student leadership downplaying advocacy accomplishments and challenges student leaders encountered in favour of obtaining information about what students learned from the experience, such as in Kuh & Lund's (1994) analysis of student

government representatives, Koller & Schugurensky's (2011) study on Ontario student trustees, and Archard's (2012) study on student leadership in Australian secondary girls' schools, all of which focus primarily on what student leaders learned instead of the advocacy work that they undertook. In other cases, researchers have selected small, disproportionate groups of appointed, token students and youth to contribute to decision-making in generally limited ways within the context of youth participatory action research instead of consulting with democratically elected student representatives, such as in the cases of Griebler & Nowak's (2012) study on health promoting schools and Berman et al.'s (2020) study on youth violence in Canada. A review of the latter work raises concerns that student and youth in the advisory body being offered paid positions over the course of the study risk a system of patronage that can undermine the authenticity of student feedback in the research process (Patrick, 2021). In practice, the exclusively developmental view of student leadership has led to student governments being delegitimized as representative bodies for student advocacy, resulting in policymakers relying on appointed student and youth advisory councils for input instead of student democracies. Some notable examples of this include the Prime Minister of Canada's Youth Council (Canadian Heritage, 2018), the National Youth Council of Pakistan (Dunya News, 2020), the Government of Virginia's Student Advisory Committee (State Council of Higher Education for Virginia, 2020); the United Nations Youth Delegate Programme (United Nations, 2015), and the United Nations Youth Advisory Panel formed in Belarus in 2015 (United Nations Office of the Secretary-General's Envoy on Youth, 2015). These appointed bodies do not only risk cultivating student leaders primarily loyal to those who appointed them, but also risk tokenizing student leadership, leaving student leaders with little means to enact change through initiating

collective action, and rendering student leaders vulnerable to manipulation by unelected, non-student actors (Coffey & Lavery, 2018; Hart, 1992).

This is taken a step further in political simulations like model parliaments and Model United Nations (MUN), which are by nature fake politics. MUN politics are fake because they take place inside simulated political environments within which decisions made do not directly impact political life, thus directly contravening the definition of real politics provided above (United Nations, 2019). Calossi & Coticchia (2018) outline that though literature exists that argues MUN is beneficial in teaching students about international relations and global political issues, there is a lack empirical evidence to reinforce these arguments. Calossi & Coticchia (2018) go on to conduct their own study of MUN participants to attempt to provide tangible evidence supporting MUN's pedagogical value, and they conclude that MUN is helpful in increasing participants' factual knowledge. However, they also observe to their surprise that participating in MUN made their subjects increasingly view states' primary international goals to be to gain power rather than security or welfare, as well as placing more importance on inter-state conflict (Calossi & Coticchia, 2018). Given Brown, Gordon, & Pensky's (2018) analysis of authoritarianism that warns of the incursion of neoliberal market structures on socio-political life that are ruthlessly zero-sum and exacerbate societal inequities, is an international relations perspective that focuses on gaining power through perpetual conflict really the best approach to instill in the next generation of leaders? Perhaps MUN participants increasingly adhered to such perspectives over the course of Calossi & Coticchia's (2018) study because the simulated politics taking place in MUN were of no real consequence, which may have limited

participants' ability to visualize the cost of their decisions had they taken place in actual international politics.

While these simulations can help teach students about parliamentary procedures, when used to excess they can divert student participation from the real politics of student government (Gordon, 1994). To put this into perspective, the United Nations estimated in 2019 that over "400,000 students worldwide participate every year in MUN at all educational levels" (United Nations, 2019, n. p.) with students' preparations for MUN conferences lasting over six months each year (United Nations, 2020). Can students who have to prepare for over six months for MUN conferences each year also meaningfully contribute to the real politics of student government activities and accomplish advocacy goals? Observed retrenchment, collapse, and participations shortages of student governments around the world thus far in the 21st century suggest that they cannot, or at least MUN is not doing real student leadership any favours. For example, the Commonwealth Students' Association reported in 2016 that "51 per cent of Commonwealth member countries do not have a national student organisation (NSO) of any kind," (Commonwealth Secretariat, 2016, p. iii). Furthermore, the Global Student Government coalition (2021), the International Association for Political Science Students (IAPSS) (2021), and IAPSS Asia (2020) have each raised alarm bells about the collapse of the International Union of Students in the early 2000s, the collapse of the United States Student Association in the late 2010s, and limitations placed on student governments in Afghanistan and Pakistan, respectively. Moreover, regarding the professional development potential of MUN, there are a lot less than 400,000 spots in real UN delegations that require directly exercising UN parliamentary procedures; in fact, as of 2012, even the total employees of all UN agencies numbered only 32,417 (United Nations

System Chief Executives Board for Coordination, 2012). The technical, procedural knowledge of political simulations' fake leadership activities may thus not be as crucial as transferable leadership experience in real political arenas. What the UN does offer are opportunities for student governments to have direct input on international policy resolutions that can directly impact students around the world, with one notable example being the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)'s consultation group for non-governmental organizations pertaining to education (UNESCO, 2019). Instead of just participating in simulated international politics, student leaders can also directly participate in UN decision-making spaces and have an impact on consequential policies. That way, they will not only be able to develop technical knowledge about how UN processes work through MUN, but they will also be able to directly apply their knowledge in real-world political contexts. Only doing MUN leaves a substantial missed opportunity for political education and student advocacy.

Where and How Should Students Exercise Leadership?

Literature that intersects with student leadership provides different perspectives on the arenas in which student leadership takes place and should take place. While these bodies of literature tend to move beyond student leadership as purely developmental, they normalize structures that leave student leadership restricted, ineffective, and detrimental to student wellbeing. One of these perceived student leadership arenas are student-led social movements. In addition to being leadership learning experiences, student movements offer potential to enact real political change, with some recent examples being the Chilean student movement's impact on budgetary policy in the 2010s (Carvallo, 2020), the #FeesMustFall

movement in South Africa to lower school fees (Cini, 2019), and Taiwan's Sunflower Movement that involved occupations of key political offices (Rowen, 2015). However, student movements on their own have severe limitations to fostering real student leadership in the long-term, since their often informal structures result in them usually being sporadic; representing a miniscule fraction of the total student populations they draw from; short-lived due to high turnover rates of student populations given annual new enrolments and graduations; run by a small group of core organizers who tend to be from elite social stations while most participants "are sympathetic to the broad goals of the movement but who are rather vague about the specific aspects and who are only sporadically, if at all, directly involved;" and do not have to be democratic (Altbach, 1989, pp. 99, 103-107, p. 103). Consistent observations are outlined in Thierry Luescher-Mamashela's observations on student movements (2012) and reflections on Altbach's contributions to student movement scholarship (2015), as well as Snider's (2018) historical case study on the student movement in Brazil during the military dictatorship of the mid-to-late twentieth century. Furthermore, student movements have often had to resort to tactics that put their lives at risk, including going up against societal authorities and armed forces of oppressive regimes. Some examples of this are evident in twentieth century student movements in the United States as illustrated by Boren (2001) and in Ayers' (2013) autobiographical reflections as a US student leader in the 1960s and 70s, Gonzalez, Vaillant, & Schwartz's (2019) global overview of student movements, and Snider's (2018) research on the student movement in Brazil under the dictatorship.

The structural problems student movements pose for student leadership when used on their own render students at substantial disadvantages when competing with other education stakeholder

groups, let alone societal authorities (Rheingans & Hollands, 2013). When students do not have places at education decision-making tables but are rather outsiders looking in, dangerous physical demonstrations, tactics which should be a last resort, may seem to be the only feasible option to effect real political change, since conventional tactics that other education stakeholders can use are not available to them. Unfortunately, instead of advocating for allowing for more avenues for real student leadership within education institutions, a number of student movement literature works implicitly or explicitly advocate for normalizing student movements as the main bodies for student leadership and representation, as well as the last resort activism tactics that could put students at risk. An early example is Seymour Martin Lipset's (1968) research at the height of the student movement in the United States that conflates student governments with student movements. Altbach's revulsion at the competing superpower-manipulated international student governments of the Cold War (1970) led to an insistence that student movements are more optimal for activism despite his admittance of student movements' limitations mentioned above, especially in countries where student protests have become normalized (1989). Altbach remains skeptical of student governments' potential and advocates for student movements in his historical work on US student politics (1997), responses to twenty-first century student movements (2016), and in recent commentary on student movement scholarship (Altbach & Luescher, 2020). Boren (2001)'s analysis of US student movements, Eagan's (2004) guide for student activism, and Lemay & Laperriere's (2012) study on the Quebec student movement of the early 2010s all focus on student movements within conflated contexts akin to Lipset that do not cover the interrelated nature of student governments and student movements. Johnston's (2015) blissful account of rising student

movements in the United States in the twenty-first century appears oblivious to the backdrop of the United States Student Association's decline that is indicative of retrenching student voice in the US (International Association for Political Science Students, 2021). Normalizing student movements as the main or only avenue through which student leadership can be exercised is also problematic because it tacitly frames students as decision-making outsiders, delegitimizes democratic student governments, and relegates students to play on a perpetually disadvantaged playing field with little or no opportunities to influence the rules. In other words, the lack of a place at decision-making tables forces students to risk their lives protesting, and to write that off as a normal part of political life or as the ideal way to do activism ignores the inherent power differentials between students and non-student education stakeholders and sets students up to fail when it comes to enacting policy change. Even in countries where there is not direct threat of violence, mass protests require much more time and effort than participating in conventional decision-making processes, and can thus pose risks to students' curricular activities, economic livelihoods, and social spheres. Students should not have to risk injury and death to make their voices heard. Perspectives that over-glorify student movements risk perpetuating the political ostracization of students and normalizing violence committed against student activists.

Another body of literature expands upon the student movement arena to view students as an interest group within education decision-making. Determining where these perspectives sit on the spectrum of student power can be determined by assessing how much power and agency is given to the student interest group. At the low end, students are relegated to providing feedback on surveys that may or may not influence education decisions (Gosling & D'Andrea, 2001). While these

practices can be beneficial to improving education systems when used in combination with other opportunities for real student leadership, when used on their own, these methods individualize student feedback and do not require students to deliberate and engage in student leadership activities as a collective (Thune, 1996). A rationale for these kinds of approaches is that future students can individually use survey data to when selecting schools and programs (Brennan & Shah 2000). However, this rationale does not offer much benefit to current students who are providing the feedback. As the level of recommended student power increases along the spectrum, calls for student feedback to trigger tangible actions gradually grows stronger, which range from student feedback being implemented occasionally (Harvey, 2002) to being a regular, structural part of the evolution of educational institutions (Williams, 2014).

Eventually the spectrum moves beyond student surveys to give rise to calls for students and/or student representatives to collaborate or negotiate with other education stakeholders. While the issues of appointed student advisory councils referenced above intersect here, there are also works that recognize the potential of student governments and other democratic student organizations to provide feedback based on students' collective will, which implicitly identify elected student representatives as real leaders in their own time (Golden & Schwartz, 1994). There are also cases where students are directly elected to positions on education institution governing bodies (Kouba, 2018). Analyses at this stage on the spectrum revolve around the question of how best non-student stakeholders can work with student leaders to improve education systems, ranging from consultations where student leaders express students' collective ideas and concerns to the other stakeholders that hold decision-making power (Klemenčič, 2012). The high end of the spectrum entertains the

idea of student leaders working in partnership with non-student stakeholders to implement projects together (Klemenčič, 2018). Roger Hart's (1992) Ladder of Participation theory illustrates this by envisioning student leadership and voice as ladder rungs, with the lower rungs being student manipulation and tokenization while the highest rung envisions students being able to lead initiatives and work with non-students in the context of a fair partnership power-wise to accomplish student advocacy goals.

The issues with the students as interest groups conception stem from not fully accounting for the steep power advantages non-student stakeholders have over student leaders. This power gap poses substantial obstacles for student leaders to advance students' interests and can lead to an illusion of a fair playing field that ends up being tokenism in practice. For instance, apart from rare cases such as the medieval University of Bologna where students gained control over education decision-making (Haskins, 1975), in many university governing bodies where students have elected seats, student leaders do not have enough representation to effectuate meaningful change or be a decisive factor in education decision-making, as has been evidenced in examples in Australia (Naylor & Mifsud, 2019), Canada (Pennock et al., 2015), Chile (Núñez & Leiva, 2018), assorted European countries (Pabian & Minksová, 2011), and Norway specifically (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2019). Non-student stakeholders also have structural mechanisms of power over students that can be used to stifle student leaders, including control over grades (Godrej, 2014) and disciplinary procedures (Mugume & Katusiimeh, 2016), while students do not have as much of a say in the equivalent procedures pertaining to non-students (Sanchez, 2020). Even in instances where student leaders and non-student stakeholders engage in seemingly equal partnerships where duties and input are shared,

student leaders generally have much fewer resources at their disposal to dedicate towards project implementation elements including but not limited to research, capacity building, funding, and time than their non-student counterparts given the comparative disparity between the resource capabilities of student governments versus education administrations and non-student stakeholder organizations. This calls into question the extent to which the highest rung on Hart's (1992) ladder are actually being realized. Furthermore, Hart's focus is on children as opposed to all students (1992), which leaves room to theorize further levels of student autonomy at the postsecondary level, including the capacity for students to organize and implement initiatives on their own. While students as interest groups perspectives may give the impression of being able to theorize a fair playing field, the vast power differences between student leaders and non-student leaders largely stemming from the societal structures each stakeholder group has still set student leaders up to fail.

Attempts from within the students as interest groups conception to get around power imbalances student leaders are up against end up creating additional leadership barriers for students due to the conception's difficulties with holistically accounting for the extent to which the disparities are embedded within neoliberal societal structures. These attempts have generally involved efforts to professionalize student governments so student leaders can more effectively advocate for student interests and implement initiatives to improve the student experience (Cuyjet, 1994). This has led to the development of student government-administered services for students and the hiring of student government staff to assist with implementing student leadership activities (Stover & Cawthorne, 2008). However, without ample attention given to maintaining student government democracy, professionalization efforts have resulted in

the corporatization of student governments, which when combined with neoliberal conceptions of students as consumers (Luescher-Mamashela, 2012), has limited student leaders' autonomy. One example is the domination of unelected, non-student staff in student governments being potential determinants of the extent to which organizational knowledge is preserved, as well as using their longer time within student governments than elected students to undermine student democracy in favour of their own interests to the point of corruption, with notable examples including the imposition of staff dominance over certain aspects of the International Union of Students in the last years of its operation (International Union of Students, 2000), Sanchez's (2020) account of student government staff in the United States, and fears of the student press in Oregon being stifled as reprisal for reporting on alleged student government staff corruption (Byrnes, 2010). This corporatization issues appears to be particularly bad in Canada, with incidents of theft, misappropriation of funds, or other forms of mismanagement by staff alleged to have taken place in the Holland College Student Union in Prince Edward Island (Human Resources Director, 2014), the Student Federation of the University of Ottawa (Miller, 2019), and the Canadian Federation of Students (CFS) in the 2010s (Ziafati, 2017). Titus Gregory (2013) goes as far as to allege that CFS staff power undermines student voices within the organization. Another example involves student governments becoming dependent on funds from non-student stakeholders to develop and maintain a level of professionalism sufficient for implementing their service structures, which risks student governments and student leaders becoming beholden to these fiduciary interests before those of the students they represent (Warner, 1996). Moreover, student government professionalization has been used as a justification for policies to treat student governments as if

they were companies competing in a free market, which has in practice led to student governments being substantially weakened, such as in the implementation of voluntary student government membership in Australia (Jackson, 1999), New Zealand (Meads & Smith, 2018), and Sweden (Klemenčič, 2012). In these instances, student governments end up becoming like the very student leadership-limiting structures within education systems they were designed to oppose. For student government professionalization to be conducive to student leadership, it must be supported by legislation which allows for structures of incorporation that mitigate the risks of corporatization and allow student democracy to flourish. This requires a thorough understanding of student leadership, the obstacles it faces, and the importance of student government in providing structural supports to alleviate those obstacles and empower student leadership activities.

Student Leadership, Student Politics, & Student Government

For real and effective student leadership to be actualized and supported in education systems, structural avenues need to be created that allow students to meet other education stakeholders on a fair playing field. The ideal level of student power necessary for such real student leadership may be found higher on the student power spectrum than the students as interest groups conception but below the amount of student power exercised in the case of the medieval University of Bologna. While the medieval University of Bologna case poses interesting theoretical implications for student leadership that are beyond the scope of this analysis, such as whether it could be replicated in the twenty-first century and how beneficial such an education system would be, it is important to note that student leadership does not have to necessitate student domination of education to be effective. In fact, there are cases to be made without

resorting to ageism to argue that total student control of education would not be beneficial for students. For instance, it could be argued that complete student control over curricular affairs would not be in students' best interest since students cannot create what they have not yet learned. For student control of curriculum to be conducive to education, the fundamental meanings of what constitutes a student and an educator would likely have to be changed or merged together, though this would also be beyond the scope of this analysis. The problem is rather that student leadership is so structurally disadvantaged that students have had to resort to giving their lives in attempts to enact change. Student leaders thus need a fair playing field in relation to other education stakeholders that holistically addresses the disadvantages they face while avoiding the trap of student government corporatization. This would not only allow student leaders to challenge other education stakeholders when necessary but would also allow student leaders to collaborate with their school communities more effectively. As has been demonstrated during the COVID-19 pandemic, effective student leadership can be pragmatically beneficial to education institutions in times of crisis (Schuiteman et al., 2020).

A new paradigm conducive to student leaders needs to combine student leadership's developmental and real political aspects to emphasize that while student leadership helps create future leaders, it is also a form of real leadership that affects students' lives in the present. While political simulation activities can be beneficial learning exercises, too much emphasis on fake political arenas detracts from real leadership experiences that students must engage in to ensure that their interests are influential in education decision-making processes. A combined developmental and real political perspective would allow the developmental aspects to help students improve their real

leadership activities and achieve more student advocacy success. This reconciliation should be easy to implement in future research since real student leadership has been demonstrated to be more beneficial for students' leadership development than tokenism and simulations (Soria & Johnson, 2020). The idea of student leadership as leadership training has also been merged with a cognisance of students' immediate advocacy goals to suggest that student leadership experiences through student government not only prepare students for leadership post graduation but help them become better student leaders and improve student advocacy efforts while they are still students (Rosch & Collins, 2017).

Future student leadership research also needs to advocate for structures that ensure student leaders not only have a place at education decision-making tables, but also have sufficient power to ensure that the decision-making arena is equitable. Student movements should be viewed primarily as tactics student leaders can use instead of the main places where student leadership occurs, and activism tactics that put students at risk should not be accepted as simply the way things are, but instead should be highlighted as student leadership crises and signs that student governments are not strong enough. The students as interest groups conception needs to be expanded upon just as it expands on the student movements conception. This can be done by first understanding students as more than an interest group. In contemporary society, some level of education is a necessity for socio-economic survival and effective political citizenship. While other education stakeholders such as educators and administrators chose their professions, student status is often not a choice. Some perspectives advocate for students to be viewed as labourers (Brophy, 2017), which has been helpful in contextualizing phenomena the mid-twentieth century student

movement in France (Fields, 1970), unionizing graduate students and postdocs who do work for their universities (Cain et al., 2014), or forming the student union subtype of student government that focuses on service provision and coalitions with organized labour in activism (Seth, 2004). However, the students as labourers conception is too narrow on its own because it does not account for the social and political aspects of education. If student status is an unavoidable state of being that all citizens must pass through, conceptualizing student government as a distinct level of government may allow for a more holistic view of students than as an interest group. This would emphasize student government's political nature, which could promote professionalization while avoiding corporatization by likening student governments to governments instead of corporations and conceptualizing students as primary citizens instead of merely consumers or labourers. It would also promote understandings of student government having its own jurisdiction over certain aspects of the education experience and reinforce student government independence from non-student stakeholders. This could result in interactions between student leaders and leaders of education institutions being more horizontal, with each side having their own exclusive areas of control. Liaisons between supra-campus student governments and non-student governments could be viewed as a form of intergovernmental relations. Moreover, it would hopefully steer student government professionalization discourse in a similar direction as government and public service professional development instead of merely professional development for private companies, non-profit organizations, and labour unions.

For implementation, legislation would likely be needed that outlines the unique organizational nature of student governments with more democratic safeguards than mandated structures of non-

profit corporations. To resist the dangers of corporatization while preserving professionalism, such legislation would benefit from enshrining elected student leaders and their constituents as the primary wielders of power within student governments. Unelected staff working in student governments can be likened to public servants committed to non-partisanship regarding student government politics instead of simply business professionals. It may be beneficial to outline another class of student government staff that can be likened to political staffers that change with each elected administration to prevent staff loyal to previous regimes from filibustering newly elected student leaders who have different ideas than their predecessors. Such legislation should also outline student government jurisdiction to prevent encroachment by unelected, non-student actors into student government and student leadership activities. Student leadership would benefit from legislative clauses that outline minimum requirements for knowledge preservation to account for student population transiency and short term-lengths of student representatives.

In literature, this reconceptualization would place student leadership and student governments in the realm of the political, encouraging scholarship on these respective topics that bridges the developmental aspects of education research with research methods and practices from political science. More research is needed that is conducive to real student leadership, especially regarding democratic student governments through which student leadership is embodied through elected representatives of student populations. This involves recognizing student leaders as real leaders instead of just leaders in training. To accomplish this, student leaders should be studied not just as phenomena, but as consequential political actors, and the actions of student leaders and their student governments should be recorded as

political histories similarly to how non-student political leaders and governments are researched. A recent example that moves toward studying student leadership in this way is a case study on student leaders in South Africa that allows former student leaders to express their perspectives on student leadership not as anonymous subjects but as named political actors (Webbstock & Luescher, 2020). Once thorough histories of key student governments are established, it will be easier to pinpoint notable student leadership case studies for empirical research, since studies on student leadership as a phenomenon that do not tap into these histories risk being brief and disconnected snapshots of student leadership that miss out on long-term trends in student leadership practices and student government development that helped set the stage for what the studies observe. This will be an immense task, as student governments have existed for at least about a thousand years (Janin, 2008) and in education institutions around the world, but having an understanding of the larger contexts student leadership operates in will be invaluable in identifying the systemic power imbalances student leaders face when engaging in advocacy, as well as theorizing ways to empower student leaders and student governments in the future.

Conclusion

For student leadership to effectively advocate for students, student leaders need structures that empower them to have a fair chance to impact education decision-making and negotiations. The real and present political consequences of student leadership cannot be ignored or dismissed as merely a learning opportunity, since in certain contexts, the suppression of student leadership can endanger students' lives. While developing students' leadership skills for the future is important and political simulation activities have an inherent

learning value, these kinds of perspectives and activities should not be pushed to the point where they undermine real student leadership. Furthermore, students should not be tokenized through appointed advisory bodies that risk patronage, do not represent the student populations from which their members were drawn from, and offer students little to no potential to carry out real student leadership.

In addition, the avenues through which student leadership takes place must be effective, sustainable in the long-term, and conducive to student wellbeing. While student movements can be effective tools at student leaders' disposal, they should be but one tool in a multifaceted advocacy strategy. An overemphasis on student movements, especially when involving tactics that could cause students to be harmed, risks normalizing students as outsiders to education decision-making and ignores the temporal and democratic limitations student movements are prone to. While conceptualizing students as interest groups can encompass democratic student governments and the inclusion of student leaders in formal leadership structures of education institutions, it faces challenges accounting for the systemic power disadvantages students face in comparison to other education stakeholder groups that leaves student leaders limited to make change if not set up to fail in an illusion of an equal partnership. Attempts to professionalize student governments to alleviate the power disparities using students as interest groups lens can lead student governments into neoliberal snares of structural delegitimization and corporatization that create additional barriers for student leaders.

A way forward to foster real and effective student leadership would be to move beyond the students as interest groups conception by normatively theorizing student government as a distinct level of government with its own jurisdiction and inherently political

structure. This reconceptualization can help foster a more equitable balance of powers between student leaders and non-student education stakeholders while encouraging the development of legislation and professional development discourse that account for and support the sustainable professionalization of the inherently democratic and government-like features of student governments. It can also foster literature that frames student leaders as real political actors and student governments as real political institutions. Reconceptualizing student leadership in this way and emphasizing the important impact student government has on student leadership can help overcome ageist and anti-student biases in literature and practice. This would contribute towards empowering student leaders through a structural place within education decision-making that gives them the potential to create meaningful change without having to sacrifice their lives or their safety in the process. Student leadership needs to be as collective and representative of student populations as possible to avoid tokenism, and this requires equitable, democratic, and student-run structures that best encapsulate the nature and positionality of students' existence within education systems, similar to how other education stakeholders have their own structures to conduct their leadership activities and contribute to education decision-making. Students are not just leaders of tomorrow; they are also unavoidably leaders of today. Their structures need to support them as such.

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Predicting Teacher Organizational Silence: The Predictive Effects of Locus of Control, Self-confidence and Perceived Organizational Support

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Abstract

The purpose of the study is to examine the relationship between locus of control, self-confidence, perceived organizational support and organizational silence of teachers working in Anatolian high schools. The research is a study of relational survey model and it aims to determine the explanatory and predictive correlations between the specified variables. The sample of the research consists of 436 teachers selected by simple random sampling method from the public schools in central districts of Ankara in 2016-2017 academic year. In order to collect data Locus of Control, Self-confidence, Perceived Organizational Support and Organizational Silence scales were used. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients and path analysis were applied to determine the relationships among variables. Results show that the variable with the highest predictive effects on organizational silence and self-confidence levels is perceived organizational support. Locus of control and organizational support variables have direct and indirect predictive effects on organizational silence.

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Introduction

Organizational silence, as a very important concept in terms of the purpose, goal and success of the organizations is an up-to-date subject that closely concerns schools. Pinder and Harlos (2001) approached the concept of silence from the point of view of "reaction to injustice" and expressed silence as a purposeful, deliberate state of consciousness. Bogosian and Stefanchin (2018) emphasized that silence can prevent every stage of the information transfer process and the elimination of the information gap, and emphasized that managers should take into account the symptoms of silence and encourage sound culture. It is seen that silence provides both information and hides information, it can be a function of deep thought and not thinking at all, and it is an expression of both approval and rejection (Pinder & Harlos, 2001). Ignorance of employees' opinions and concerns about organizational problems poses a potential danger to creativity, organizational change, motivation to learn, development and progress, and impedes the reflection of differences and the expression of opinions (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Similar results are experienced in educational institutions, and the processes of taking initiative, decision-making and participation in innovative activities are negatively affected (Alqarni, 2015).

As long as employees, who vary in their values, beliefs, priorities and experiences, feel that they could not openly express their views on critical issues, organization cannot benefit from this pluralism as the

expressed viewpoints remain substantially uniform. Therefore, in order to understand how change and development can occur in pluralistic environments, it is an important issue to try to understand the organizational forces that do not systematically evaluate employees' own ideas and thus cause discouragement. The management's knowledge of implementation level developments and disruptions are closely related to establishment of a positive organizational climate based on trust, sharing feedback and suggestions (Morrison & Milliken, 2000).

Organizational silence is important for the development of the organization as well as its importance in terms of its impact on the employee (Kulualp & Çakmak, 2016). Unwillingness to share information, speak and provide feedback affect employee confidence and motivation negatively and block development and innovation (Liu, Zhu, & Yang, 2010). In recent years, studies are being done to conceptualize organizational silence as a different phenomenon beyond defining it only lack of the expression of thoughts or absence of opinions (Brinsfield, 2009). Evaluation of the messages given to the organization or manager by means of organizational silence is important as these messages have the potential of affecting employee attitudes and behaviors and they may change the results (Özdemir & Sarıoğlu-Ugur, 2013). It has been observed that organizational silence has a significant effect on employee effectiveness, affecting levels of commitment, trust and fear. It is thought that the inability to benefit from intellectual contribution, unidentified problems and the development of a negative organizational culture can also affect organizational learning. (Francis-Odii, Oduyoye & Asikhia, 2020).

Since the situation of conscious denial of opinions and concerns about organizational problems is experienced in many organizations,

issues such as when and how employees decide to remain silent, what they take into account when making this decision, what issues they show silence behavior, how they choose the people they share their thoughts with should be addressed (Milliken, Morrison & Hewlin, 2003). It is interesting that while some individuals remain silent in similar situations, some individuals show speech behavior. This situation emphasizes the role of individual differences in organizational silence behavior. Studies on individual factors have been conducted mainly on gender, internal psychological perception, personality traits, self-monitoring and self-esteem level (Lu & Xie, 2013). It has been suggested that individuals' specific personality traits such as locus of control, self-esteem or self-esteem, communication anxiety, risk-taking tendency, and group identification may be effective in keeping silent behavior, individuals with low self-esteem, high communication anxiety and external control-oriented individuals exhibit more silence behavior (Pinder & Harlos, 2001).

Although organizational silence is a known concept, research continues on the latent meanings of silence and the effects of organizations on performance (Slade, 2008). Silence is a vague and slippery behavior with multiple causes (Milliken et al., 2003). Therefore, understanding and interpreting silence is more difficult than speaking. In recent research on the topic of silence, it has been observed that concepts such as organizational learning (Köse & Güçlü, 2017), organizational culture (Parcham & Ghasemizad, 2017; Sholekar & Shoghi, 2017; Yalçınsoy, 2019), organizational commitment (Bayramoğlu & Çetinkanat, 2020; Çetin, 2020; Rayan, Ali & Moneim, 2020; Sadeghi & Ravazi, 2020; Vardarlıer & Akıner, 2020), organizational trust (Helmiati, Abdillah, Anita & Nofianti, 2018), school climate (Algarni, 2020) and the mediating effect of perceived stress and trust (Dong & Chung, 2020) were mostly discussed.

However, the main element that constitutes the organizational structure; organizational behavior, organizational culture, organizational learning and other organizational issues emerge as a result of the behavior of people working in organizations. According to the research conducted by Yıldızhan and Ağırbaş (2020), the level of organizational silence varies according to personal factors. In the studies conducted by Tokmak (2018) and Dağlar (2020), it has been found that people with high extroversion tend to remain silent.

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between locus of control, self-confidence, perceived organizational support and organizational silence. For this purpose, answers to the following questions are sought:

1. Are there any significant relationship between teachers' locus of control, self-confidence, perceived organizational support, and organizational silence perceptions?
2. Are the direct and indirect predictive effects of teachers' locus of control, self-confidence, and perceived organizational support perceptions on organizational silence significant?

This research shows that self-confidence and perceived organizational support level decrease as the belief in external locus of control increases, as it is thought that success and failure situations do not depend on their own behavior. Observations indicate that there is no relationship between locus of control and protectionist silence and as self-confidence and perceived organizational support level increases, accepting and defensive silence behavior decreases. It is critical to see that perceived the organizational support has the highest effect on teachers' perceptions of organizational silence and self-confidence and the organizational support perceived by individuals

with low internal locus of control affects silence behavior more strongly. It is also found that the self-control level affects the self-confidence level positively and that the external locus of control negatively affects the self-confidence level.

Theoretical Background

Predicting teacher organizational silence and the relationship between locus of control, self-confidence, perceived organizational support and organizational silence are active research areas concerning the schools. In this section, a brief summary of literature is given about organizational silence, locus of control, self-confidence and perceived organizational support as very important concepts that are studied a lot for the success of the school organizations.

Organizational Silence

The foundation of organizational silence, which negatively affects the development and change of the organization, is the practice of silence together. Employees who exhibit silence behavior do not intentionally express collectively their thoughts and knowledge about improving their work and organization (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). It is possible to come across some theoretical studies in explaining organizational silence behaviors. According to the theory known as cost-benefit analysis, individuals decide to speak by accounting for what they will gain or lose. It is thought that silence will be seen in the event that personal interests are prevented or losses are high (Milliken et al., 2003). The individual may have to pay direct costs such as loss of time and energy after the speech or indirect costs such as image damage, loss of reputation, conflicts, psychological pressures, loss of rank and dismissal (Çakıcı, 2010; Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003).

According to Vroom's Expectation Theory, which is another approach, the behaviors of the individual are shaped according to their personal characteristics and expectations (Eren, 2003). According to the theory developed by Noelle-Neumann that is known as the spiral of silence; the individual tends to join the majority, even though it is contrary to his own thoughts, with the need to avoid being isolated and be accepted. According to the spiral of silence theory, people hide their own thoughts and actions by thinking about the effect of the dominant thought on the majority around them and take part in the spiral of silence (Çakıcı, 2007).

Organizational silence is classified by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) as acquiescence silence, defensive silence, and pro-social silence for the benefit of the organization. In the study conducted by Çakıcı (2008), three types of silence were mentioned: acquiescent silence, quiescent silence and protective silence. Acceptive silence is defined as the belief that the idea of speaking is meaningless and will not make a difference, and is defined as the inability to express information, thoughts and opinions about any issue, problem or situation (Durak, 2012). Employees adopt the current situation of the organization and show the behavior of accepting the options offered instead of finding different solutions to the problems. Likewise, although their friends who show silence behaviors are aware, they do not try to change these behaviors (Pinder & Harlos, 2001).

Defensive silence refers to fear-based and deliberate hiding of relevant ideas, information or opinions in order to protect itself from external threats. One of the examples of protective silence is the silence effect. The silence effect can be defined as people avoiding being personally disturbed, receiving defensive responses or transmitting negative news to their superiors to avoid negative personal

consequences. Pro-social silence is about worrying about the well-being of others rather than fear of the personal consequences of negativity that may be encountered (Van Dyne et al., 2003). Individuals do not complain about their conditions, and avoid expressing their opposing views in order to maintain intergroup solidarity, unity and solidarity (Çakıcı, 2010).

The direction of silence can be bottom-up, top-down, or between workers on the same level. In literature, the state of being silent from the bottom up is most frequently mentioned and discussed. Accordingly, it is upper management rather than the top management which has a greater impact on the silence of the employees. In this sense, the leader and top management must be informed about the level of communication of hierarchical management with the employees (Brinsfield, 2009). In addition, it is not always possible to understand whether employees are deliberately doing this when they remain silent about an important issue. Therefore, being silent can be interpreted as an employee "not having anything to say" or a silent expression is that he/she is in agreement with the status quo. In fact, it is difficult to understand whether the employees are personally suppressing their opposing views even if they declare that they are generally in agreement with the opinions of others in the working group (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008).

Van Dyne et al. (2003) state that employees' motivation to talk about organizational issues and silence are not two opposite concepts, each of which is complex, multidimensional and can be explained with different dynamics. Silence is a more difficult concept that can be described based on non-verbal cues, thus attention is given to necessity of addressing its antecedents and consequences. Milliken et al. (2003) indicate the importance of searching why and how workers decide to

remain silent and prefer silence for the employees who sometimes prefer to talk and sometimes prefer to remain silent.

Locus of Control

Locus of control, which is thought to be associated with employee silence, is a property that individuals binding to the results, rewards, punishments, success and failure obtain to their own control or concentrate on the outside factors. Therefore, the concept of internal or external locus of control is an important personality dimension that shows people's perspectives on the world and the events around them. Individuals with internal locus of control are more resistant to attempts and factors to shape their behavior and try different solutions to face failures, are more active and responsible (Yeşilyaprak, 2006). In terms of locus of control, it has been revealed that individuals differ significantly from each other (Tümkaya, 2000). It is thought that a qualified education can only be provided by teachers who are focused on internal control. The locus of control is also of particular value in terms of creating a society consisting of individuals who are aware of their social roles and responsibilities and who have the ability to manage themselves (Tümkaya, 2000). The locus of control belief is thought to have a significant effect on teachers' classroom behaviors such as planning the teaching process, motivation, effective classroom management skills, and ensuring student participation in the classroom (Adu & Olantundun, 2007; Akiri & Ugborugbo, 2009). It is stated that as the organizational support perception of individuals with high internal locus of control increases, the tendency to remain silent will decrease (Kulualp & Çakmak, 2016). Teacher locus of control, as related variable to some personal and organizational factors, may be examined in relation to organizational silence behavior.

Self-confidence

Self-confidence is another variable that is thought to be related to organizational silence. Changes in the management approach make it necessary to work with individuals who have a critical perspective, who are open to cooperation, who have high self-esteem, and who care about team work (Çakıcı, 2010). Determining the level of self-confidence and related variables is also important in terms of ensuring their use in the learning and teaching process (Tezci, 2010). Individuals' self-confidence allows them to learn at a high level in learning environments (Ornstein & Lasley, 2000), to exhibit independent, creative and productive behaviors in interpersonal relationships, and to make changes by offering alternatives (Yıldırım, 2004). Their personal judgments and beliefs about their own abilities and skills are very important in terms of solving the problems teachers encounter in the teaching process, their approach to teaching responsibilities, their work in the classroom and their effects on students (Rubie-Davies, Flint, & McDonald, 2012; Ryan, Kuusinen, & Bedoya-Skoog, 2015). Organizational silence, which is worth examining by researchers in recent years, is considered among the factors that weaken the organization's operation and cause inefficiency that may prevent change (Arlı, 2013). It has been observed that some personality and demographic characteristics of employees are effective in exhibiting silence behaviors, and those who state that they do not hesitate to speak openly generally use concepts that express their style of struggling with life events such as self-confidence, determination, and combative personality structure (Uçar, 2016). The fear of losing self-confidence as a result of the managers giving negative feedback to their employees causes silence behavior (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Personality issue is an area that needs to be focused on in terms of

providing the opportunity to better understand employee behavior, analyze, interpret and examine the changes of behaviors with working life (Aytaç, 2001).

Perceived Organizational Support

The perception of organizational support, which is defined as the general belief of employees that their contributions to the organization are valued and their happiness is valued, may also be a premise shaping organizational silence behaviors (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Individuals with strong organizational support perception theoretically tend to behave in accordance with the benefit of the organization (Stamper & Johlke, 2003). In this sense, it is mentioned that perceived organizational support is an important variable in explaining and predicting employees' attitudes and behaviors (Yüksel, 2006). According to the organizational support approach, which is based on the theory of social change, employees develop a general perception and belief about how much they appreciate by the organization in return for their services and efforts. In line with this general perception, employees develop loyalty to the organization in proportion to the material and moral contributions provided by the organization and base their behavior on reciprocity (Eisenberger, Hungtington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). In the study conducted by Evren and Yengin Sarpkaya (2020), it is stated that the distance between the administration and the administration can lead individuals to a protective silence by causing situations such as not caring about the institution, being afraid of the administrators and being afraid of making mistakes.

Perceived organizational support realizes the social change process that employees feel obligated to help the organization. It is stated that perceived organizational support contributes to the

development of organizational commitment, increases willingness to help the organization, and improves consistent positive attitudes and behaviors by making more work-related efforts (James et al., 2015). Whether employees share their ideas for the benefit of the organization or remain silent for this purpose depends on how much support they receive from the organization. Giving importance to learning activities, encouraging new practices and methods and encouraging employees to question the status quo are effective in increasing the perceived organizational support. When employees feel that they are operating in an organization where they are supported, who value their well-being and happiness, they refrain from voicing their feelings and thoughts in order not to disturb the harmony and peace of the organization, to keep their colleagues and supervisors in a difficult situation, and to harm the spirit of unity and solidarity.

It can be claimed that there is a causal relationship between the perception of organizational support and prosocial silence behaviors (Kızrak & Yeloğlu, 2016). According to the research conducted by Rahimi and Zahari (2020), it is stated that organizational support leads to a decrease in silence, increases the general belief that their efforts are valued and well-being is important, and facilitates the communication of honest and genuine comments about organizational situations and events. The mediating effect of the trust variable in the relationship between perceived organizational support and silence was examined, it was found that there was a negative relationship between organizational support and trust and organizational silence, and a positive relationship between organizational support and trust. (Singh & Malhotra, 2015). However, there are also studies indicating that prosocial silence is not affected by organizational support (Kulualp & Çakmak, 2016; Yürür, Sayılar, Yeloğlu, & Sözen, 2016). Therefore, conducting research by including different premises with perceived

organizational support can provide the subject to be handled from different perspectives.

Method

Research Model

The research was carried out based on the relational survey model. Relational studies are research models that aim to determine the presence and / or degree of co-variation among two or more variables. Relational survey model does not give a real cause-effect relationship, but if the situation in one variable is known, it allows the other to be estimated (Karasar, 2006). In this research, structural equation model was used to determine the relationship between teachers' locus of control, self-confidence and perceived organizational support levels and organizational silence behaviors.

Structural equation models are comprehensive statistical techniques used to test causal relationships between directly observed variables and the unobservable variables associated with them. This model assumes that there is a causality structure among the variables that cannot be observed and that these variables can be measured through the observed variables (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993; Yılmaz & Çelik, 2009).

Structural equation models or relational models developed in a historical order as regression models, path models, confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). In this study, path analysis was used to model the explanatory relationships between the observed variables.

Population and Sampling

The population of the research was composed of 6030 teachers working in 119 Anatolian high schools in the central districts of Ankara, Turkey in 2016-2017 academic year. The teachers in the sample were selected from the simple sampling method, which is one of the random sampling methods. Random sampling methods are stronger than other sampling methods in providing representation, and the sample has a higher power to represent the population (Büyüköztürk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz, & Demirel, 2011; Karasar, 2006).

In line with this information, a sample of 450 people was selected from the teachers working in the official Anatolian high schools in the central districts of Ankara. As a result of outlier analysis 14 questionnaires are excluded, and the study continued with 436 samples. It is seen that more than half of the teachers participating in the research are women (59.0%), the majority are married (83.8%) and undergraduate graduates (78.5%). The age range of the participants ranged from 24 to 63, with an average age of about 44; professional seniority ranges from 1 to 40 years, while average professional seniority is about 20 years.

Data Collection Tools

In order to collect data, Locus of Control Scale, Self-confidence Scale, Perceived Organizational Support Scale and Organizational Silence Scale were used. In the data collection tool applied to teachers, other than these measures, questions were asked to determine the gender, marital status, educational status, age and professional seniority of teachers.

Locus of Control Scale. The locus of control scale developed by Rotter (1966) was adapted to Turkish by Dağ (1991). In this scale, which consists of 29 items, each item includes two options in the form of forced choice and aims to determine the possible position of the generalized control expectations of individuals on the dimension of internality-externality. To hide the purpose of the scale, 6 items (1, 8, 14, 19, 24, and 27) were placed as fillers. "a" options questions 2, 6, 7, 9, 16, 17, 18, 20, 21, 23, 25, and 29 and "b" options of questions of 3, 4, 5, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 22, 26 and 28 get 1 point. Thus, the options in the direction of externality are evaluated with 1 point, and the options in the aspect of internality are evaluated with 0 points, and points between 0-23 are taken. Rising scores show an increase in the belief in external locus of control.

According to Dağ (1991), this scale, which emerged with the adaptation of the J. Rotter's Locus of Control Scale to Turkish, yielded similar results with the original. Item-total score correlations of this scale, which is frequently used in researches, varied between .11 and .48; in a sample, the internal consistency coefficient was reported to be .77. Test-retest reliability coefficient is .83 (p<.001; df = 98). The reliability coefficient of the scale calculated with the KR-20 technique was found to be .68, and the Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficient was found to be .70. In the main study, the internal consistency coefficient over the data of the sample (n = 532) is .71. A correlation of .69 was obtained between the interview locus of control mean score and the Rotter's Locus of Control Scale scores of the subjects (Dağ, 1991). In this study, items 12, 22, 24 and 29 were excluded from the questionnaire since permission was not obtained from Ministry of National Education, and 25 items were included to the study. According to the results of Tetrachoric factor analysis performed on the locus of control scale developed by Rotter (1966), the

original factor structure of the scale could not be reached. The original structure of the scale was preserved in case the alternatives like item discarding negatively affect the scope validity and Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliability coefficient was calculated as .65.

Self-confidence Scale. The self-confidence scale, which consists of 44 items, developed by Akın (2007) on the basis of Bandura's self-efficacy theory, was written as a five-step Likert ("1" Never, "2" Rarely, "3" Often, "4" Usually, "5" Always) grading scale and validity and reliability analyzes were made on these items. Internal self-confidence sub-dimension consists of 17 items (1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10, 12, 15, 17, 19, 21, 23, 25, 27, 30, and 32) and evaluates features such as the individual loves and knows himself, setting clear goals. The external self-confidence sub-dimension consists of 16 items (2, 6, 8, 11, 13, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 26, 28, 29, 31, and 33) and is aimed at the external environment and social life of individuals. It is related with self-confidence and includes features such as easy communication, expressing yourself in a healthy way, controlling feelings and taking risks. The highest score that can be obtained from the scale is 165, and the lowest score is 33. The high score obtained from the scale with no negative items indicates a high level of self-confidence (Akın, 2007).

KMO coefficient and Bartlett's Sphericity test were calculated to determine the appropriateness of the research data to perform Explanatory Factor Analysis (EFA). The KMO value was determined as .88. When the literature is examined, it is stated that .50 or .60 KMO value will be the lower value. For example, Kaiser (1974) states that KMO value greater than .50 may be sufficient to perform factor analysis. In this case, the KMO value of .88 observed is higher than the recommended KMO value. Bartlett's Sphericity test is a statistical technique used to check whether research data comes from

multivariate normal distribution. Thus, the significance of the chi-square test statistic indicates that the data comes from a multivariate normal distribution. Bartlett test was found to be significant as a result of the analysis made within the scope of the study ($X^2 = 2507.59$, $p < .00$). In this context, it can be said that the scale data are suitable for EFA.As a result of the exploratory factor analysis, it was seen that the scale was grouped under two factors as internal self-confidence and external self-confidence with an eigenvalue greater than 1. The variance explained by these factors regarding the scale is 54.63%. Factor load values for self-confidence, .48 to .86; Factor load values for external self-confidence are between .54 and .84. The Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficient value of both factors is .93. With this aspect, it can be said that the construct validity and reliability of the scale has been ensured. As a result of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) applied for the self-confidence scale, goodness of fit indices was calculated as acceptable levels (X^2/df=1597.108/492=3.25; RMSEA= .039; GFI=.81; AGFI= .79; CFI = .83; NFI = .77). According to the values obtained, it is seen that the model is compatible.

Perceived Organizational Support Scale. In this study, Perceived Organizational Support Scale, which was created in 1997 by Eisenberger et al. is used. The original 8-item, one-dimensional scale was translated into Turkish by Akalın (2006), validity and measurement reliability studies were performed, and as a result of reliability analysis Cronbach's alpha was found as .87. The answers were obtained by using the 5-point Likert scale as "1 = never agree" to "5 = strongly agree". The 6th and 7th are the reverse scoring items, and the high scores obtained from the scale indicate that the perception of organizational support is high (Tuna, 2015). In this study, the 6th item of the scale was not included in the application because it was not deemed appropriate by the Ministry of National Education.

KMO coefficient and Bartlett's Sphericity test were calculated to determine the appropriateness of the research data to perform Explanatory Factor Analysis (EFA). The KMO value was determined as .88 Bartlett's Sphericity test was found to be significant (X^2 = 1801.27, p< .00). In this context, it can be said that the scale data are suitable for EFA. As a result of the exploratory factor analysis, it was seen that the scale was collected under a single factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1. The variance explained by this factor regarding the scale is 67.09%. Factor loadings range from .53 to .90. The Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficient value of the scale was calculated as .91. With this aspect, it can be said that the construct validity and reliability of the scale are provided. As a result of CFA for Organizational Support Scale, goodness of fit indices was found to be acceptable (X^2/df=18.65/11=1.70; RMSEA= .039; GFI= .99; AGFI= .97; CFI = .99; NFI= .99).

Organizational Silence Scale. In order to measure organizational silence, the organizational silence scale developed by Van Dyne et al. (2003) and adapted to Turkish by Taşkıran (2010) was used in the scope of this study. The scale measures organizational silence in three different dimensions: accepting silence, defensive silence and protectionist silence. The scale, which consists of 15 items, allows to determine three different types of silence from 5 items. Employees were asked to answer the statements on 5-point Likert. Cronbach's alpha for the overall 15-item organizational silence scale was found to be .81. When the sub-dimensions are analyzed, it is seen that the accepting silence subscale is .86, the defensive silence subscale is .90 and the protectionist silence subscale is .83. In this case, it is possible to say that the reliability levels of the scales are high (Ünlü, 2015).

KMO coefficient and Bartlett's Sphericity test were calculated to determine the appropriateness of the research data to perform Explanatory Factor Analysis (EFA). The KMO value is set at .80. Bartlett's Sphericity test was found to be significant ($X^2 = 669.06$, $p < .00$). In this context, it can be said that the scale data are suitable for EFA. As a result of the exploratory factor analysis, it was seen that the scale was collected under three factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1. The variance explained by these factors regarding the scale is 60.63%. Acceptable silence factor load values, .53 to .79; defensive silence factor load values range from .59 to .72 and protective silence factor load values from .63 to .79. Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficients of the scale factors were calculated as .79 for accepting silence, .89 for defensive silence, and .74 for protective silence. With this aspect, it can be said that the construct validity and reliability of the scale are provided. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted to see whether the three-factor structure of the scale was confirmed. As a result of the CFA, it was understood that the model related to the three-factor structure of the scale fit well with the data (X^2/df=128.500/86=1.49; RMSEA= .039; GFI= .86; AGFI= .80; CFI = .93; NFI = .83).

Data Analysis

Before the analysis, the data set was examined in terms of missing values, outliers and distribution normality. Appropriate values have been assigned to the missing values through the EM algorithm. Also, univariate outliers outside the standard range of +3 to -3 were excluded from the analysis. Data analysis was carried out using SPSS 20, LISREL 8.8 and AMOS programs. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to determine the relationships between variables. Whether teachers' locus of control,

self-confidence and perceived organizational support levels are significant predictors of organizational silence behaviors, direct and indirect effects of variables were investigated by path analysis.

Results

Correlation Coefficients between Variables

Findings related to the locus of control, self-confidence, perceived organizational support and the perception of organizational silence perceptions of teachers by age and seniority are given in Table 1.

Table 1.
Correlation Coefficients among Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Locus of control	1	-.21*	-.12*	-.10*	.26**	.19**	.03
2. Internal self-confidence		1	.85**	.24**	-.25**	-.34**	.05
3. External self-confidence			1	.28**	-.24**	-.35**	.04
4. Perceived organizational support				1	-.28**	-.39**	.08
5. Accepting silence					1	.63**	-.01
6. Defensive silence						1	-.03
7. Protectionist silence							1

* $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$.

When Table 1 is analyzed, it is seen that there is a negative and significant relationship between locus of control and internal self-confidence (r = -.21), external self-confidence (r = -.12) and perceived organizational support (r = -.10). However, while accepting silence (r = .26) and defensive silence (r = .19) were positively associated with the locus of control, the locus of control was not related to the protectionist silence (r = .03). Internal and external self-confidence and perceived organizational support variables were similarly negatively associated with accepting and defensive silence variables. An interesting finding

of the research is that the protectionist silence variable has no relation with any variable in the scope of the research.

Predictive Effects of Organizational Support and Locus of Control on Organizational Silence and Self-confidence

Path analysis was carried out to determine the level and direction of organizational support and locus of control of the Anatolian high school teachers' organizational silence and self-confidence perception levels. With path analysis, the predictive effects of independent variables on dependent variables were observed. In this study, fit indices calculated for the fit of the model are shown in Table 2.

Table 2.

Fit Indices for the Model

X^2	*df*	(X^2/*df*)	RMSEA	CFI	NFI	GFI	AGFI	RMR
30.014	10	3.00	.068	.98	.97	.98	.95	.05

In this study, the fit indices calculated for the fit of the model show that the model fits the data wellX^2/*df*= 3 < 5, RMSEA = .068 < .08, RMR = .05, CFI = .99 > .95, NFI = .99> .95, GFI = .98 > .90, AGFI = .95 > .90). In structural equation models, it is examined whether a previously defined and restricted structure is verified as a model. Many confirmatory fit indexes are used in this analysis. A Chi-square / degree of freedom fit index below 5 indicates a medium level, and a lower than 2.5 indicates perfect fit (Çokluk, Şekercioğlu & Büyüköztürk, 2010). If the RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) fit index is less than .06, it shows that the model is perfectly fit, and if it is less than .08, the fit level is good. If the NFI (Normed Fit Index) and CFI (Comparative Fit Index) fit indices are

equal to or greater than .95, the model's fit is good (Thompson, 2004). Having GFI (Goodness of Fit Index) and AGFI (Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index) indices of .90 and above is considered as an indicator of good fit (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000). The fact that the RMR (Root Mean Square Residuals) fit index is less than .05 is an indicator of a good fit (Çokluk et al., 2010).

The standardized path coefficients regarding the level and direction of organizational support and locus of control of the Anatolian high school teachers' organizational silence and self-confidence perception levels are given in Figure 1. Direct effects of independent variables on self-confidence and organizational silence are given in Table 3.

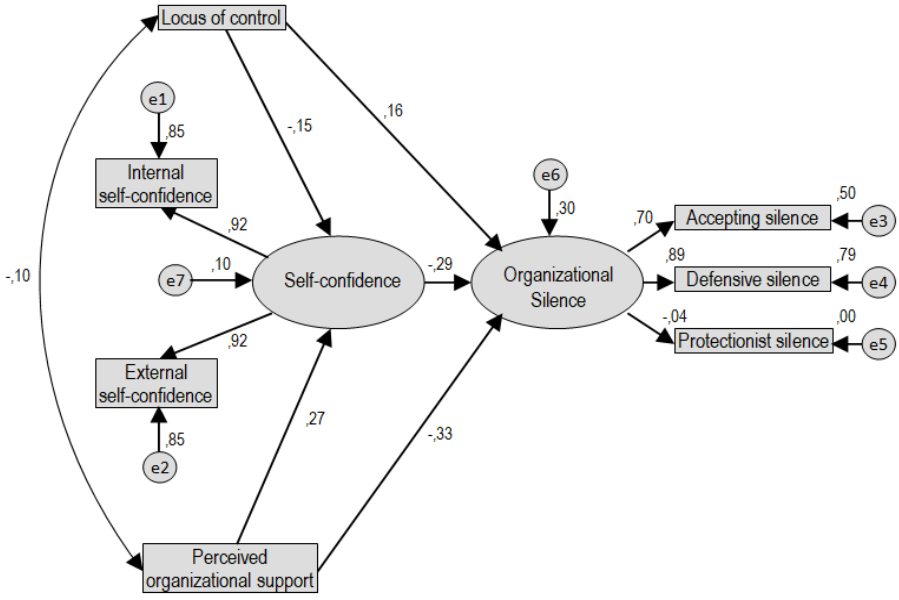

Figure 1. Standardized path coefficients.

The standardized path coefficients in Table 3 show that the variable with the highest impact on the perception of organizational silence is organizational support (β = -.33). The perception of organizational support also has the highest impact on teachers' self-confidence (β = .27). While the locus of control variable predicts self-confidence negatively (β = -.15), it is seen that the organizational support variable is a positive predictor of self-confidence. However, while there is a negative relationship between organizational support (β = -.33) and self-confidence (β = -.29) and organizational silence, locus of control (β = .16) positively predicts organizational silence.

Table 3.

The Predictive Effects of Independent Variables on Self-confidence and Organizational Silence

Dependent variable	Effect	Independent variable	Standardized Estimation *(Estimate)*	Standard Error *(SE)*	Critical Rate *(CR)*
Self-confidence	←	Locus of control	-.15**	.01	-3.15
	←	Organizational support	.27***	.03	5.47
Organizational Silence	←	Locus of control	.16***	.01	3.31
	←	Organizational support	-.33***	.04	-5.98
	←	Self-confidence	-.29***	.06	-5.15

** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

The standardized path coefficients in Table 3 show that the variable with the highest effect on the perception of organizational

silence is organizational support (β = -.33). Organizational support perception has the highest effect on teachers' self-confidence (β = .27). While the locus of control variable predicts self-confidence negatively (β = -.15), it is seen that the organizational support variable is a positive predictor of self-confidence. However, while there is a negative relationship between organizational support (β = -.33) and self-confidence (β = -.29) variables, and organizational silence, locus of control (β = .16) positively predicts organizational silence. Direct, indirect and total predictive effects of independent variables on organizational silence are given in Table 4.

Table 4.

Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Independent Variables on Organizational Silence

Variables	Predictive Effects on Teacher Organizational Silence (Standardized Path Coefficients)		
	Direct	Indirect	Total
Locus of control	.16***	.04**	.20***
Organizational support	-.33***	-.08**	-.41***
Self-confidence	-.29***	-	-.29***

** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

According to Table 4, the locus of control and organizational support variables have direct and indirect predictive effects on organizational silence. Locus of control has a direct and indirect predictive effect on organizational silence (β = .04). Similarly, the direct effect of perceived organizational support on organizational silence

and indirect (β = -.08) predictive effect over self-confidence were found significant.

Discussion, Conclusion, and Suggestions

At the end of the research, it was observed that there was a negative and significant relationship between locus of control and internal self-confidence, external self-confidence, and perceived organizational support. Self-confidence and perceived organizational support level decrease as the belief in external locus of control increases, as it is thought that success and failure situations do not depend on their own behavior. However, as the belief in external locus of control increases, accepting silence and defensive silence behavior also increase. In the study conducted by Şekerli (2013), it was stated that organizational silence behaviors decrease as the locus of control shifts from outside to inside. This situation can be explained by the ability of self-confident individuals with internal locus of control to express their thoughts and feelings and to have problem-solving skills. Individuals focused on internal control who believe that they can affect events are able to express their ideas, requests, suggestions and criticisms more easily, and exhibit a more willing attitude to change the conditions in the environment. Therefore, it can be said that teachers with a focus on internal control will affect students positively.

There is no relationship between locus of control and protectionist silence. As self-confidence and perceived organizational support level increases, accepting and defensive silence behavior decreases. The results of the research conducted by Erenler (2010) were found to support the results of this study, and that the employees with high perceived organizational support levels show less silence behaviors, the inner locus of control affects employee silence behavior

significantly and adversely, and as the belief in the locus of internal control increases, the employee silence behavior decreases. It has been reached that the organizational support perceived by individuals with low internal locus of control affects silence behavior more strongly. In a safe and comfortable school atmosphere based on positive relationships between administrators and teachers, ensuring teachers' participation in educational decision-making processes, appreciating their efforts and paying attention to their happiness enable them to participate voluntarily in activities and show high performance (Korkmaz, 2006). Teachers' possibility of attending meetings, helping their colleagues, making suggestions for improvement and performing useful activities are closely related to the organizational support they feel, and negative organizational behaviors direct them to give negative reactions (Özdemir, 2010).

Öztürk (2019) states that teachers prefer accepting silence and protective silence. In the study conducted by Kulualp and Çakmak (2016), it was stated that perceived organizational support should be increased in order to reduce the accepting silence, and organizational support did not have a significant effect on prosocial silence. Akçin, Erat, Alnıaçık and Çiftçioğlu (2017) also revealed that as perceived organizational support increased, defense silence decreased. Hu, Zhu, Zhou, Li, Maguire, Sun, and Wang (2018) emphasized the importance of the belief that thoughts will not be harmed and faced with a risky situation so that they can be expressed easily. Employees' ability to express themselves comfortably in their competent areas is affected by the communication based on trust at the horizontal and vertical levels (Doğan& Yılmaz, 2020).

Highly perceived organizational support can help achieve a balance between the positive support received by the institution and

the contributions of the individual (Rhoades &Eisenberger, 2002). It can be said that employees respond to the motivation created by organizational support with their superior performance (Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo & Lynch, 1998).

An interesting finding of the study was that the protectionist silence variable was not related to any variable in the scope of the research. The results of the research show that the variable that has the highest effect on teachers' perceptions of organizational silence and self-confidence is perceived organizational support. The finding, which indicates that the locus of control variable predicts self-confidence negatively, shows that the self-control level affects the self-confidence level positively and that the external locus of control negatively affects the self-confidence level. It is seen that the organizational support variable is a positive predictor of self-confidence. It was concluded that as the level of organizational support and self-confidence increased, organizational silence behaviors decreased and the locus of control variable predicted organizational silence positively. Individuals who are valued and cared for by the institution they work for experience feelings such as positive thinking, taking responsibility, taking risks and not being afraid of making mistakes and this may increase their self-confidence level. By expressing their innovative ideas and suggestions in a supportive work environment, teachers can improve their performance and keep up with the rapidly changing world of science and education. School principals need to know how to support teachers as organizational support has many dimensions and changes (Singh & Billingsley, 2001).

Locus of control and organizational support variables have direct and indirect predictive effects on organizational silence. It has been observed that locus of control has a direct and indirect predictive

effect on organizational silence through self-confidence. Similarly, the direct and indirect predictive effects of perceived organizational support on organizational silence and self-confidence were found to be significant. Since a high level of organizational trust eliminates organizational silence, management should carry out more activities to develop organizational trust. To this end, a culture that promotes multilateral communication and dialogue among employees should be adopted first. Employees' sense of justice should be handled with strong corporate values by rewarding individual and team work, and transparent and competitive reward systems should be developed for this. It is important to make the workload manageable. Preparing employees through planning and personnel development programs and giving them the opportunity to realize their potential will increase their loyalty to the institution.

In this study, the relationship between organizational silence and locus of control, self-confidence, perceived organizational support was examined. In studies conducted in Turkey it has been found that the Rotter's Locus of Control Scale is widely used. In this study, the version adapted to Turkish by Dağ (1991) was used. It has been observed that the recently translated or developed locus of control scales are more directed at children and adolescents. Another limitation of the research is related to the generalization of the results obtained. The sample of the research; It includes teachers working in Anatolian high schools in the central districts of Ankara. Conducting the research only in the public sector is also among the limitations of the study. In addition, it was observed that the participants were partially hesitant to express their views on the issue of organizational silence.

There is a need for further studies on whether the personality traits that shape the behavior and attitudes of the teachers are effective in their silence behaviors. This reality is very more important for the schools as being synergistic institutions. All other stakeholders in the school, especially the policymakers, administrators and teachers, have to create a wealth of thoughts, ideas and opinions, provide effective feedback in the learning and development process, and internalize different perspectives by synthesizing them.

In order to improve the managerial skills of school administrators and to increase peer learning and solidarity among teachers, teachers should be professionals who can generate ideas, share their opinions, solve problems and express themselves. Policymakers should examine the variables associated with organizational silence in order to create such a school culture and climate that is open to communication, thinking and generating synergy. It can be said that researchers examining different personal, social and organizational variables that explain organizational silence will contribute to the field.

It is necessary to carry out studies to increase the awareness level of teachers about organizational silence and negative consequences of silence, to determine the type of support needed, to ensure participation in the activities and decision-making process in the school, and to create a healthy school climate where ideas and opinions can be expressed openly. Considering that behavioral cycles and personality traits leading to organizational silence cannot be directly observed and are the result of a long process starting from childhood, it is necessary to emphasize the concept of perceived organizational support. As it is understood from the results, perceived organizational

support increases teacher self-confidence and decreases teacher organizational silence.

In future studies, the effects of managers' locus of control tendency and self-confidence levels on organizational silence behavior can also be addressed, and studies on factors affecting protective silence behavior can be conducted. Further studies can be performed on the functions of protective silence, which expresses silence by considering the well-being of the employees and the organization rather than fearing the negative consequences of expressing their opinions.

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The Academic Home of Turkish Higher Education Research: A Demographic, Thematic and Methodological Examination of Doctoral Dissertations

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Abstract

This study elaborates on the epistemological foundations of Turkish higher education research drawing on data from 854 doctoral dissertations with an analytical framework based on the institutional organization of researchers and knowledge, the object of study, and the object of knowledge. The results imply that the long-established state higher education institutions (universities) have been the power engines of Turkish higher education research, which gained momentum with the millennium. Male gendered, full professorship, single supervision, and local PhDs were the salient features of advisors. The primary objects of study were topics related to student experience, institutional management, and teaching and learning. As for the object of knowledge, Turkish higher education research was found to be descriptive, regardless of the adopted research methodology. The doctoral dissertations

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within a maximum of ten different universities and 600 respondents, based on random sampling, had a commanding lead. Undergraduate students and state universities were also fertile components. The paper concludes by proposing the establishment of a dynamic resource database and the incorporation of certain theories and approaches in Turkish higher education research.

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Introduction

The worldwide massification of post-secondary education has led to higher education research focusing on the output of universities (Rumbley, et al., 2014; Tight, 2012a). The leading countries for establishing mass higher education systems were the first to develop higher education research as a scientific activity (Tight, 2007). The history of higher education in developed countries is already chronicled on its own, as demonstrated by Teichler (2020). It has now expanded beyond the developed world (Chan, 2019), albeit with a stark geographic divide (Rumbley, et al., 2014), to countries having divergent levels of social, cultural, and economic capital. Despite their scarcity (Tight, 2019), reviews of knowledge and research may be useful in depicting the overall picture locally.

Higher education is now the object of research as an interdisciplinary field of study (Brennan & Teichler, 2008; Kehm & Musselin, 2013). Accordingly, Altbach (2014a, p. 1308) indicated that "*the study of universities is an interdisciplinary endeavour based on the social sciences*". Although this has been welcomed for providing researchers

with the opportunity to work with other disciplines, the multi-disciplinary nature of higher education research is argued to have resulted in an ambiguous base of academic discipline (Altbach, 2014b). As such, Kehm (2015) highlighted that interdisciplinarity is the only common feature of higher education research, which exploits methodologies and theories from various social science-related disciplines to a great extent. Teichler (2015) suggested that national focus, fuzzy borderlines between research and evidence, heterogeneity, a small field of research, and the lack of self-identification are some common characteristics.

As can be understood, higher education research has a unique nature, experiencing both the advantages and disadvantages of heterogeneousness with interdisciplinarity. However, the issue of whether higher education studies is a discipline or a field of study is still open for debate. Altbach (2014b) concluded that higher education research is not a scientific discipline as it does not rely on an established methodology or a set of specific concerns to study. On the other hand, Bath & Smith (2004, p. 13) argued that it is a full-blown discipline based on its being *"a well-developed, multi-strand, complex collection of research agendas"*. Harland (2012) opted for the definition of an open-access discipline, as it welcomes interested parties from a great variety of disciplines. Tight (2020, p. 417) used Krishnan's framework in his literature review to address assertions that higher education studies are a discipline, which includes these six characteristics (or criteria): "(1) A particular object of research, (2) a body of accumulated specialist knowledge, (3) theories and concepts, (4) specific terminologies, (5) specific research methods, and (6) some institutional manifestation." He concluded that the jury is still out on the status of higher education studies, despite underlining the limited use of specialist terminology. It may be inferred that being a discipline

is the vision of higher education research, and not the destination but the journey that matters, in the words of Ralph Waldo Emerson.

Higher education studies can be traced back one and a quarter century. The first lecture on higher education studies was given by Dr. Hall in 1893 at Clark University (Ewing & Stickler, 1964). In the 1920s, higher education undergraduate programs started to open (Goodchild, 1991). In 1956, *The Center for Studies in Higher Education* was established by the University of California-Berkeley (Akbulut Yıldırmış & Seggie, 2018). The 1960s introduced early graduate programs (Hendrickson, 2013). The pioneers of research were *The Association for the Study of Higher Education (ASHE)*, which was incorporated in 1976 in Washington, D.C., *The European Higher Education Society (EAIR)* in 1979, and *The Consortium of Higher Education Researchers (CHER)* was founded in 1988 in Kassel, Germany (Fulton, 1992). Since then, higher education research has flourished. Rumbley, Stanfield & de Gayardon (2014) identified 217 research centers, and 277 academic programs in addition to 280 academic journals worldwide. It could be inferred that they will increase exponentially in our knowledge-based society, thanks to technology.

Countries have had different legacies of higher education research. Although countries in North America were the front runners, others in Western Europe, Australasia, and parts of the Asian Pacific Rim subsequently enthused over higher education research (Tight, 2007). Today, the main actors in the USA, China, and UK host two-thirds of higher education programs & centers (Chan, 2019). However, vast differences in higher education research can be observed across countries (Teichler, 2015). Kehm (2015) argued that higher education research as a field of scholarship was flourishing two or three decades earlier in the US than in Europe. Some other variations are emergent.

To illustrate, higher education research in Europe is mostly concentrated on national higher education policies and system policy with a lesser focus on academic research and practice, both individually and institutionally (Teichler & Sadlak, 2000). While student affairs, multiculturalism, and vocational & technical education are the preeminent themes in the United States; financing, teaching & curriculum, and international comparative studies are salient in other countries (Rumbley et al., 2014). Understandably, higher education research is dependent on the overall policies of countries as well as their history of mass education.

The preceding paragraphs imply that higher education research is on a firm footing. In this regard, attempts have been made to clarify the extent, content, and boundaries. Teichler (2005, p. 450-451) classified four spheres of knowledge within higher education research: "Quantitative-structural aspects, knowledge and subject-related aspects, person-related or teaching and learning-related aspects, and the aspects of institution, organisation, and governance." Kehm (2015, p. 66) added two more, namely, "the relationships between higher education institutions, society, and the economy; and the competition and market behaviour of higher education institutions." Another classification based on the CHER (Consortium of Higher Education Researchers) members' thematic interests include "higher education system; access, students and graduates; study programmes, teaching and learning; knowledge, research, transfer; quality, evaluation, accreditation; academic profession and work; internationalisation, mobility; higher education policy, reforms; governance, management, organisation; funding, resources; higher education research, theory, methods" (Kehm & Teichler, 2013, p. 30).

On the other hand, Teixeira (2013, p. 114) proposed an eight-dimensional typology of themes based on the analysis of articles in top higher education journals, namely, "system regulation, government, and higher education institutions; institutional analysis, governance, management; quality, evaluation, assessment; funding and economic issues; access and equity; student satisfaction, performance, evaluation; academic profession; and other themes". Chen (1999) suggested eight themes within higher education research in China, as follows: "Theory of higher education, curriculum and teaching, administration and management, the economics of higher education, reform and development, moral education, comparative higher education, and history of higher education" (Chen & Hu, 2012, p. 660). Tight (2012a) also opted for another eight themes: "Teaching and learning, course design, the student experience, quality, system policy, institutional management, academic work, knowledge and research" (p. 22).

The themes and topics within higher education research have been elaborated over time. However, scientific method requires both analysis and synthesis. Accordingly, two thematic areas - teaching and learning, and higher education policy and organisation - have been distinguished (Horta & Jung, 2013; Macfarlane, 2012; Tight, 2008). Moreover, some themes stand out or remain in the background during certain frames of time. As higher education research is sensitive to the issues of higher education policy and practice, future-conscious higher education researchers should reveal the *zeitgeist* to steer the field of study (Teichler, 2003). Tight (2019) described this as the third phase of research "*which examines higher education research, partly to assess what has been studied, by whom, and how, and partly to identify where more research needs to be targeted*" (p. 133). Therefore, literature

reviews/analyses, systematic reviews, or meta-analyses may well be exploited to identify possible changes in thematic areas.

Turkish Context of Higher Education Research

The expansion of higher education has paved the way for higher education research. In an attempt to meet the ever-growing demand for higher education, Turkey followed an aggressive expansion strategy between 2006 and 2008 and established new public (state) universities across the country (Özoğlu, Gür & Gümüs, 2016). While the number of public universities almost doubled from 53 in 2005 to 104 in 2014, and amounted to 129 in 2021, the non-profit private higher education institutions were 24, 61, and 78 in number, respectively. The number of faculty members increased correspondingly from 79,555 in 2005 and 141,521 in 2014 to 181,420 as of mid-November 2021. While the number of undergraduate students enrolled at Turkish universities was 1,942,995 901 in 2004-2005 academic year, 5,642,562 in 2014-2015, and 7,791,280 in 2020-2021, the number of graduate students in Turkish universities was 119,901 in 2004-2005 academic year, 410,767 in 2014-2015, and 449,717 in 2020-2021 (Higher Education Information Management System, 2021). Meanwhile, the whole Turkish higher education system was being challenged by the issues of limited autonomy, low level of internationalization, accountability and flexibility, data-based planning and policy development, qualified academic staff, high student-to-faculty ratio, funding and financial resources, physical and social infrastructure, the collaboration between industry and academia, personnel benefits for academicians and vacant quotas (Tekneci, 2016). Investment in the field of higher education is of great significance for the productivity of higher education systems in order to achieve planned, programmed growth

and to carry out expansion policies (Akbulut Yıldırmış & Seggie, 2018). It is assumed that this expansion strategy is the factor that has triggered the diversity of activities in higher education studies in Turkey.

The legacy of Turkish higher education research in 2021 includes eight *Centers for Higher Education Studies*; these are in Istanbul (4), Ankara (1), Çanakkale (1), Sakarya (1), and Zonguldak (1). Besides, a master's degree program on the *Management of Higher Education* has been maintained in Eskişehir Osmangazi University and one on *Higher Education Studies* in Sakarya University (Aypay, 2015; Gök & Gümüş, 2015; Higher Education Information Management System, 2021). Two distinct non-governmental organizations, namely, *Higher Education Strategy and Research Association* (YÖSAD) and *Association for Higher Education Studies* (YÖÇAD), were established after 2013 (Akbulut Yıldırmış & Seggie, 2018). Moreover, four thematic journals, namely, *Journal of Higher Education (Turkey), Journal of Higher Education and Science, Journal of University Research,* and *Higher Education Governance and Policy* publish higher education studies, mostly in the TR Index (a full-text database containing articles in the fields of Science and Social Sciences, developed by TUBITAK ULAKBIM). Undoubtedly, all these efforts have magnified the number of higher education researchers in Turkey and *Higher Education Studies* was included in the social sciences, humanities, and administrative sciences in 2015, as one of the basic fields of associate professorship by the Inter-university Board (UAK, 2021). This is particularly crucial as it signifies the scholarly recognition of higher education research as a field of study.

The Turkish context for higher education research deserves a comprehensive literature review. An analysis of doctoral theses may provide an overview of the status of research in higher education while

equally helping in understanding trends, methods, developments, and gaps in a specific area (Drysdale, Graham, Spring, and Halverson, 2013). The data of the Turkish National Thesis Center database could well be exploited to learn about the nature of doctoral dissertations in Turkish higher education. The relevant literature provides us with two corresponding data; for April 2014 by Gök & Gümüş (2015) and for August 2017 by Akbulut Yıldırmış & Seggie (2018). The number of Master or PhD theses in higher education rose from 245 in April 2014 to 358 in August 2017, and 627 in mid-November 2021 (CHE, 2021). The number of Master or PhD theses in the field of education increased from almost 26,000 to 36,496 and 57,279, respectively. The number of Master or PhD theses expanded from almost 350,000 to 460,190 and 681,176, consecutively. Although the accumulation of Turkish higher education studies is limited in nature considering the total number of theses, it has great potential to reveal the overall picture.

Method

The methodological approach of the present study consists of the research design, criteria for data collection, data collection, and data analysis.

Research Design

The study examined the Turkish National Thesis Center database provided by the CHE to explore the field of Turkish higher education research. Doctoral dissertations were analysed in terms of their demographic, thematic, and methodological aspects. Answers were sought to the questions of (1) What are the characteristics of Turkish higher education research and researchers? (2) How is the research classified in terms of Tight's (2012) typology of themes in research on higher education? (3) What are the methodologies (research design,

data sources, data analyses, sampling) utilized by the research? Tight (2013) suggests that tightly-structured and methodologically-explicit literature analyses/reviews in higher education research give information about the data collection procedures, such as the time frame, databases referenced, and keywords, following the declaration of the topic of concern. Clarifications regarding the methodological issues are given below.

Criteria for Data Collection

The authors intended to study the evaluative or judgemental elements rather than the main content areas in the doctoral dissertations (Clement et al., 2015). Therefore, the parameters used for screening in July 2020 consisted of searching the title, access type (authorized or not), and whether it was a thesis-type doctorate. The search in the parameters also included the author, supervisor, subject, keywords, and abstract. Although other options could be obtained in some studies, they inclined to weaken the research focus. The access type parameter provided us with the opportunity to uncover 177 more studies without requiring authorization. These consisted of old studies and/or theses restricted by their authors. The examination of abstracts compelled us to exclude them as they mostly lacked the essential data for this study. Besides, the efforts to gain access might extend the data collection procedure unpredictably. Lastly, the thesis-type parameter offered the most options of all: master's, doctorate, specialization in medicine, proficiency in art, specialization in dentistry, and minor specialization in medicine. Understandably, covering doctorate theses as the highest-level for knowledge production was opted for in addressing the research objective. At the end of the data collection procedure, 854 doctoral theses completed between the years 1967-2020 were obtained (based on the search terms of “university” and

"universities") in both Turkish and English. This should be regarded as both the originality and limitation of the present study. The data collection procedure is illustrated below.

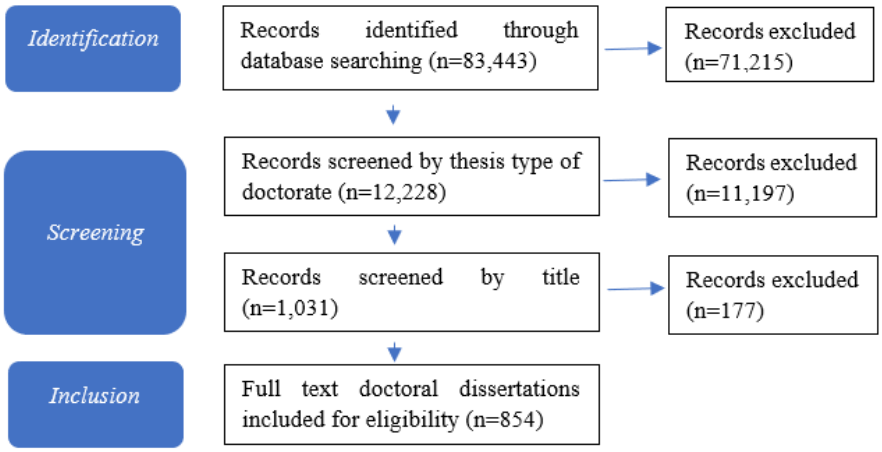

Figure 1.

Identification of Sample

Data Collection

Microsoft Excel™ and SPSS 23™ software were used to address the research data. The demographic, methodological, and thematic aspects of Turkish higher education research were collected under 44 distinct clusters of knowledge. The aspects included both quantitative information such as thesis records, the author, the advisor, departmental affiliation, the adopted theories, methodological approaches, instruments, variables, effect sizes, general topics and sub-topics, and qualitative information about the titles, keywords, and abstracts. We were unable to submit all research data, not because of the number of academic papers but because of poor reporting, especially of the adopted theories, effect sizes, and some elements of

sample selection. While the demographic and methodological aspects were categorized independently by three doctoral candidates enrolled in departments of educational sciences, thematic aspects were open-coded by the authors. The consensus was found to be high, owing to the use of the explicit frameworks of Tight's (2012a) typology of themes and Biglan's (1973) model.

Data Analysis

The frequencies and percentages were primarily used to scrutinize the demographic, methodological, and thematic aspects of Turkish higher education research. In addition, the distribution by department/school, period, theme, research method, and data sources were created. Due to its exceptional place, the school or faculty of education was given special attention in terms of its departments. The departments of public administration and business administration were also treated distinctively. Turkish higher education research was explored within five-year terms. However, all the doctoral studies before 2000 were aggregated as the millennium was found to be the year of momentum for the rapid growth of Turkish higher education research (Soysal et al., 2019). Tight's (2012a) typology of themes was adopted for the construction of the topics or themes in Turkish higher education research. It acknowledges eight distinct themes within research on higher education, as follows:

1. *Teaching & learning:* Student learning, different kinds of student teaching in higher education, the how-to genre;

2. *Course design:* The higher education curriculum, technologies for learning, student writing, assessment, postgraduate course design;

3. *Student experience:* Accessing higher education, on-course experience, success and non-completion, postgraduate experience, experience of different student groups, transition from higher education to employment;

4. *Quality:* Course evaluation, grading and outcomes, national monitoring practices, system standards;

5. *System policy:* The policy context, national policies, comparative and historical policy studies, funding relationships;

6. *Institutional management:* Higher education management practice, institutional leadership and governance, institutional development and history, institutional structure, economies of scale and institutional mergers, relations between higher education, industry, and community;

7. *Academic work:* Academic roles, academic development, academic careers, the changing nature of academic work, academic work in different countries;

8. *Knowledge & research:* The nature of research, disciplinarity, forms of knowledge, the nature of a university.

Our research methods comprised three major paradigms; namely, quantitative, qualitative, and mixed. A five-dimensional frame of reference suggested by Forsberg & Geschwind (2016) was used to identify data sources, which involved interviews, surveys, observations, documents, and reviews. We incorporated the mixed use of data sources as the sixth alternative. Moreover, clarification of the type of method and research design was included to highlight the content of the categories. Several procedures were considered to

address the selection of the sample. It was decided that the areas of exploration would be the sampling of universities and their participants, the unit of analysis, the sample selection procedure, and preferences.

Findings

We adopted the term academic home, inspired by Forsberg & Geschwind (2016), as a metaphor *"to elaborate the epistemological foundations of Turkish higher education research and the institutional background of researchers"* (p. 72). Three levels for structuring research proposed by Askling (2004, cited in Forsberg & Geschwind, 2016), were found to be not only informative but also inclusive and explanatory. Firstly, the institutions and researchers contributing to Turkish higher education research were explicated from different perspectives under the heading *The Institutional Organization of Researchers and Knowledge*. Secondly, the topics or themes studied by researchers were explored under the heading *The Object of Study*, concerning certain variables. Finally, the methods, research approaches, and sample selection were aggregated under the heading *The Object of Knowledge*. Conceptual mapping of higher education research included:

- *Methods*: Interviews, surveys, observations, documents, reviews, mixed data sources;
- *Research approaches*: Descriptive, correlational, experimental, case and field studies, questionnaire and scale development, content analysis, causal-comparative, narrative analysis, action research, discourse analysis, database search, ethnography, developmental and phenomenography;

- *Sample selection*: Sampling of universities and participants, sample selection procedures and preferences, unit of analysis.

Institutional Organization of Researchers and Knowledge

The authors and advisors of doctoral dissertations are introduced first as they deserve equal attention. Males authored 407 (47.7%) dissertations while female authors produced 437 (51.2%) of the dissertations. However, the gender of the authors of ten theses could not be determined (1.2%). An overwhelming majority of dissertations (n=719, 84.2%) were written in Turkish, while a considerable number of dissertations (n=124, 14.5%) were in English. Moreover, three out of the four English PhD theses (n=92) were completed after 2011. There were also six dissertations in German, four in French, and one in Russian, among the total of 854.

A total of 532 (62.3%) PhD theses were supervised by male advisors, and 319 (37.4%) by female advisors. We were unable to determine the gender of three advisors. 555 (65.0%) theses were supervised by full professors, 194 (22.7%) by associate professors, and 99 (11.6%) were supervised by assistant professors. A high number of theses (71%) among the 854 were supervised by an advisor of only one higher education thesis. On the other hand, 99 advisors supervised two to five different higher education theses, with a total number of 239. 759 advisors (88.9%) had PhD degrees from Turkish universities among 795 dissertations, with 59 missing from the system. The USA and UK were the foreign homes of advisors' graduate degrees with 16 (1.9%) and 15 (1.8%), consecutively. Only two of them had PhD degrees from France; and this was followed by one degree holder each from Germany, Netherlands, and Japan.

The research sample consisted of 854 doctoral dissertations from 156 distinct departments. The top five departments responsible for 40% of the total PhDs were *Educational Sciences*, *Business Administration*, *Counselling & Guidance*, *Physical Education and Sports*, and *English Language Teaching*. Some of the others were *Disaster Medicine*, *Security Management*, *Clinical Psychology*, *Sociology of Institutions-Associations*, *Zootechnics*, *Oral & Maxillofacial Radiology*, *Genetics & Bioengineering*, *Geophysical Engineering*, *Parasitology*, and *Management Information Systems*. One-fifth were approved by 125 departments with less than five PhDs. Figure 2 depicts the overall Turkish higher education research by department (n=836).

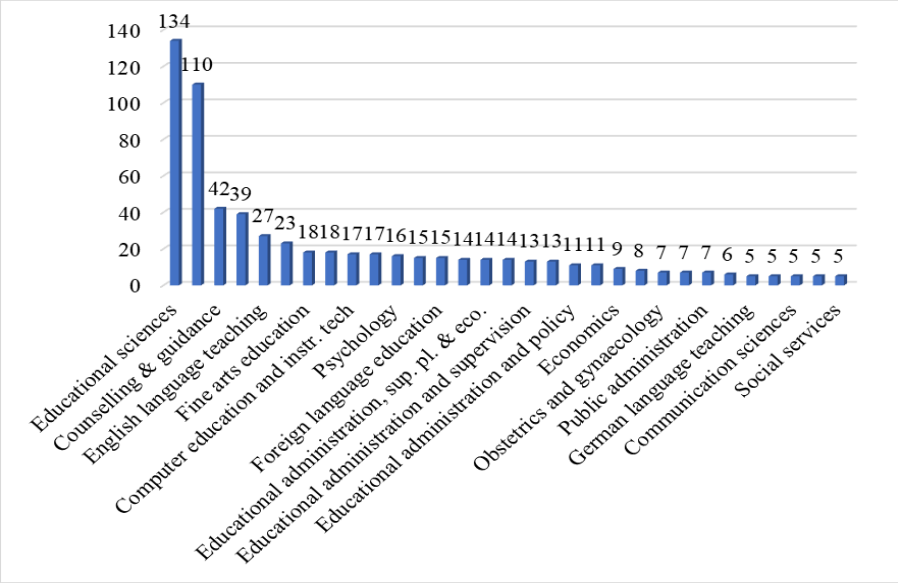

Figure 2.

Turkish Higher Education Research, by Department PhDs

Figure 2 indicates that the impact of the top department was much wider because educational sciences is an umbrella term in the Turkish Higher Education context, including such departments as *Counselling & Guidance, Psychological Services in Education, Curriculum & Teaching, Educational Administration,* and *Educational Administration & Policy*. From this point of view, at least 30% of Turkish PhD dissertations were conducted by the Department of Educational Sciences alone. Figure 3 depicts the academic home of Turkish higher education research by institution (n=848).

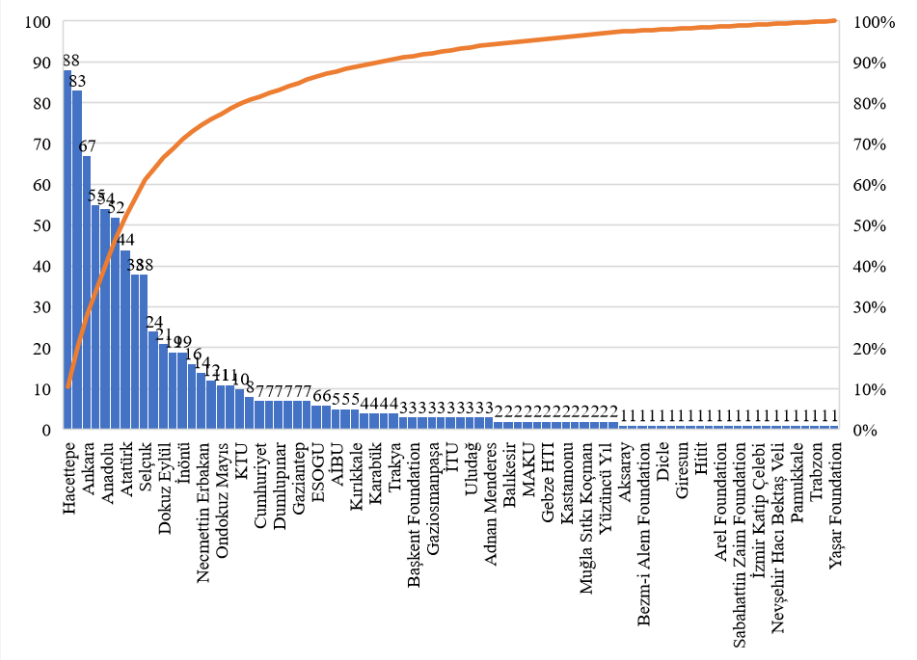

Figure 3.

Academic Home of Turkish Higher Education Research, by University

A total of 82 higher education institutions contributed to a total of 848 studies. More than 64% of the output was created before 1975 by the leading ten state universities located in Ankara, Eskişehir, Istanbul, Erzurum, Konya, and Izmir; namely, Hacettepe, Gazi, Middle East Technical, Ankara, Anadolu, Marmara, Atatürk, Istanbul, Selçuk and Ege universities. Thus, it can be inferred that the long-established state higher education institutions were the power engines of Turkish higher education research; while 17 different non-profit private universities published only 30 dissertations between the years 1967-2020. Samara State University in Russia is the only one abroad. This finding points to the field being shaped by the leading universities (Saunders, Kolek, Williams, & Wells, 2015). Figure 4 demonstrates the production of theses from 1973 to 2018 on a clustered bar chart (n=854).

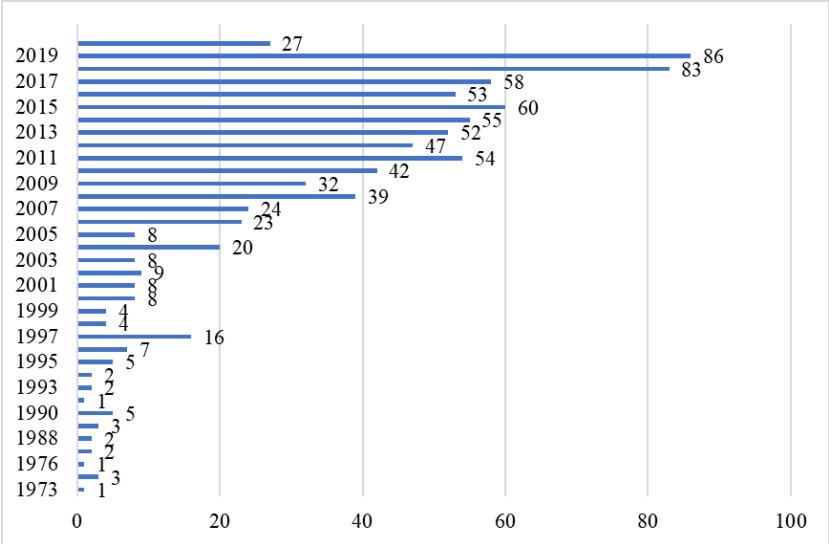

Figure 4.

Number of PhD Theses about Higher Education in study period (1967-2020)

The first doctoral thesis in Turkish higher education appeared in 1967 and gained momentum with the millennium. Only 66 of the total 854 studies were completed within the 33 years between 1967-2000. However, 54 studies were conducted between 2001-2005, 159 of them between 2006-2010, and 267 between 2011-2015. Eventually, Turkish higher education research expanded to the extent that 308 theses were completed during the period between 2016 and2020. Although the research sample solely comprised the PhDs with full text available in the Turkish national thesis center database, the increase could well be attributed to the expansion of the Turkish higher education system.

Object of Study

Table 1 represents the topics in Turkish higher education research (n=854) in the studied period, based on Tight's (2012a) typology of themes in research on higher education.

Table 1.
Distribution of Topics in Higher Education Research, by years

Themes within Research on Higher Education	Up to 2000	2001-2005	2006-2010	2011-2015	2016-2020	Total (n)
Teaching & learning	1.1	1.1	4.3	5.3	6.3	154
Course design	0.9	0.9	1.6	2.5	2.8	75
Student experience	2.1	2.2	7.1	11.0	13.0	303
Quality	0.5	0.2	0.8	1.4	2.5	46
System policy	0.4	0.2	0.6	0.8	0.7	23
Institutional management	1.9	1.3	2.3	6.2	6.4	155
Academic work	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.9	0.5	16
Knowledge & research	0.8	0.2	1.5	3.2	3.9	82
Total (%)	7.7	6.3	18.6	31.3	36.1	854

With a growing interest over time, the frequency of studies was inclined to ascend for all the themes. However, the top theme of student experience during all periods amounted to nearly one-third of the total Turkish higher education research. The subsequent themes were institutional management and teaching & learning. All three topics made up nearly three out of four studies in the relevant literature. The themes of course design and knowledge & research were closer to 10% on par. All the doctoral theses in the remaining themes of quality, system policy, and academic work hardly corresponded to 10%. Table 2 illustrates the distribution of topics in Turkish higher education research by the scientific domain (n=843), based on Tight's (2012) typology of themes within research on higher education.

Table 2.

Distribution of Topics, by Discipline

Departments & Schools	T&L	CD	SE	Q	SP	IM	AW	K&R	Total (n)
Educational administration, leadership & policy	0.8	1.8	3.6	0.5	1.1	2.8	0.4	0.6	97
Curriculum, teaching & learning	7.9	3.6	7.9	0.8	0.0	1.4	0.6	3.6	218
Guidance & counselling	0.7	0.4	7.7	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	80
Public administration	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.7	0.0	0.0	13
Business administration	2.3	0.2	3.2	1.8	0.8	6.3	0.6	1.5	141
School of health	1.4	0.7	4.3	0.5	0.1	1.5	0.0	0.7	77
Social sciences	0.8	0.2	5.0	0.0	0.5	1.7	0.1	1.3	81
School of law	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	2
Agriculture	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.2	0.0	0.0	11
Communication & language	0.9	0.0	0.8	0.4	0.0	0.4	0.2	0.2	25
Medicine	1.1	0.5	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	18
Engineering	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.1	17
Arts & sciences	0.5	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.0	0.4	21

Others	0.7	0.2	2.4	0.5	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.5	42
Total (%)	17.9	8.5	35.8	5.3	2.7	18.3	1.9	9.5	843

Although it was previously established that student experience was the leading theme for scholarly study, Table 2 shows the widespread disciplinary focus of Turkish higher education research based on PhD theses. Accordingly, it is apparent that student experience and institutional management were the main aims in the department of *Educational Administration, Leadership & Policy*, while the department of *Curriculum, Teaching & Learning* had versatile objectives, such as teaching & learning, course design, student experience, and knowledge & research for each discipline and specific subjects; to illustrate, the teaching and learning of science, biology, chemistry, business, health, etc. Thus, they produced the largest number of doctoral dissertations on the theme of teaching & learning.

On the other hand, the department of *Guidance & Counselling* mainly focused on student experience, and almost neglected the rest. While *Public Administration* primarily aimed at researching institutional management, *Business Administration* included both institutional management and student experience. Both the *School of Health* and *Social Sciences* highlighted student experience and institutional management alike but had different focal points regarding teaching & learning and knowledge & research. The main aim of the faculties/schools of *Agriculture* and *Engineering* was institutional management, and the rest was almost negligible. While *Communication & Language* attached importance to teaching & learning and student experience, *Medicine* mostly researched teaching & learning, and *Arts & Sciences* concentrated on course design. The remaining studies in Turkish higher education research were found to

focus on student experience to a large extent. However, data for the *School of Law* was insufficient to make a judgment.

The Object of Knowledge

Table 3 delineates the distribution of methods in Turkish higher education research by the scientific domain (n=840).

Table 3.

Distribution of Doctoral Thesis Research Methods, by Discipline

Biglan Model	Departments & Schools	Quantitative	Qualitative	Mixed	Total (n)
Soft-life-applied	Educational administration, leadership & policy	6.8	2.0	2.7	97
	Curriculum teaching & learning	13.1	4.8	7.7	215
	Guidance & counselling	8.5	0.4	0.7	80
Soft-life-pure	Public administration	0.6	1.0	0.0	13
	Business administration	12.4	2.5	1.9	141
	School of law	0.0	0.2	0.0	2
Soft-non-life-pure	Social sciences	5.5	2.9	1.3	81
	Communication & language	1.3	0.6	1.1	25
	Arts & sciences	1.3	1.0	0.2	21
Hard-life-applied	School of health	6.8	1.0	1.4	77
	Agriculture	1.3	0.0	0.0	11
	Medicine	1.5	0.5	0.1	18
Hard-non-life-applied	Engineering	1.1	0.5	0.5	17
	Others	3.2	1.2	0.6	42
	Total (%)	63.3	18.5	18.2	840

Table 3 signifies that the quantitative research paradigm was overwhelming for all disciplines in Turkish higher education research except for the department of *Public Administration*, which primarily adopted the qualitative paradigm. The case was exclusively hegemonic for the department of *Guidance & Counselling* and the *School of Agriculture*. On the other hand, the departments of *Educational Administration, Leadership & Policy* and *Curriculum, Teaching & Learning* were found to welcome both qualitative and mixed-method studies to a great extent. The schools of *Communication & Language, Engineering*,

and *Arts & Sciences* also had a balance between quantitative research and the other two methods. Sociology did not emerge as an abundant theme of doctoral theses and ranked 6th, along with other social science departments. However, the data of the *School of Law* were inadequate to make a judgment. The distribution based on Biglan's (1973) clustering of academic task areas implied that Turkish higher education research comprised only five (soft-life-applied, soft-life-pure, soft-non-life-pure, hard-life-applied, hard-non-life-applied) out of eight academic areas and excluded the rest (soft-non-life-applied, hard-life-pure, hard-non-life-pure). Table 4 clarifies the type of method most employed in doctoral dissertations in Turkish higher education research (n=805).

Table 4.

Clarification of Type of Method Employed in Doctoral Dissertations

Method	**Clarification**	**n**	**%**
Interview	Structured and semi-structured interview data Scenario Role-playing exercises	57	7.1
Survey	Survey data Questionnaire data Enrolment data Experimental intervention	408	50.7
Observation	Auto/biographical data Observation data	13	1.6
Documents	Policy and reform texts Informant-produced texts (teaching material, student texts, websites, guidelines, reports)	42	5.2
Review	Literature reviews Research reviews Evaluation data	56	7

Mixed	Interview-observation Interview-observation-document analysis Survey-questionnaire-interview	229	28.4

Table 4 presents an extensive picture of the methods. Although there was a strong emphasis on quantitative approaches, differences in the adopted methods could be observed. As indicated by the clarifications, a great many methods in the social sciences were exploited, even in combination in some cases. However, the use of such methods as observation, scenario, role-play, auto/biography, and evaluation were found to be inadequate. Triangulation in pure quantitative or qualitative studies was proven by the overuse of mixed types of methods in comparison with the amount of mixed-methods research. Table 5 shows a clarification of the type of research design adopted in doctoral dissertations in Turkish higher education research (n=770).

Table 5.

Clarification of Type of Research Design Employed in Doctoral Dissertations

	Quantitative	Qualitative	Mixed-methods	Total (n)
Descriptive	229	49	73	351
Correlational	101	1	10	112
Experimental (complete randomization)	48	2	9	59
Case & field study	13	12	13	38
True experimental	29	0	2	31
Questionnaire development	18	6	4	28
Quasi-experimental (randomization used)	15	1	10	26
Scale development	16	2	6	24
Phenomenology	0	15	4	19
Content analysis	4	13	1	18
Causal-comparative	12	1	4	17
Quasi-experimental (no randomization)	7	1	4	12
Narrative analysis	3	6	2	11
Action research	1	5	2	8
Discourse analysis	0	5	1	6
Database search	2	4	0	6
Ethnography	0	2	0	2
Phenomenography	0	1	0	1
Developmental	1	0	0	1
Total (%)	64.8	16.4	18.8	770

Table 5 adds another dimension to the discussion. It could be inferred that Turkish higher education research was mostly descriptive, regardless of the use of qualitative or quantitative methodologies or a mix of the two. Accordingly, it was found that almost one quarter (27.9%) of the research sample was about the formation and change of higher education students' attitudes. Besides, a considerable number of studies used correlational designs, experimental research, and case & field studies. On the other hand, action research, discourse analysis, database search, ethnography, developmental, and phenomenography research seemed almost

peculiar to the literature. Incidentally, phenomenography is addressed as "*the only methodology to have been substantially developed by higher education researchers*" (Tight, 2020, p. 424). Nevertheless, these methods can be considered to be a source of wealth in research designs. Unfortunately, the Turkish context lacks a database to follow trends over time in higher education research. A huge amount of information is collected by the CHE and Student Selection and Placement Center (SSPC), but it was not made available to researchers to study inequalities or inefficiencies in the system, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally. Figure 5 renders the number of sampled universities in Turkish higher education research (n=747).

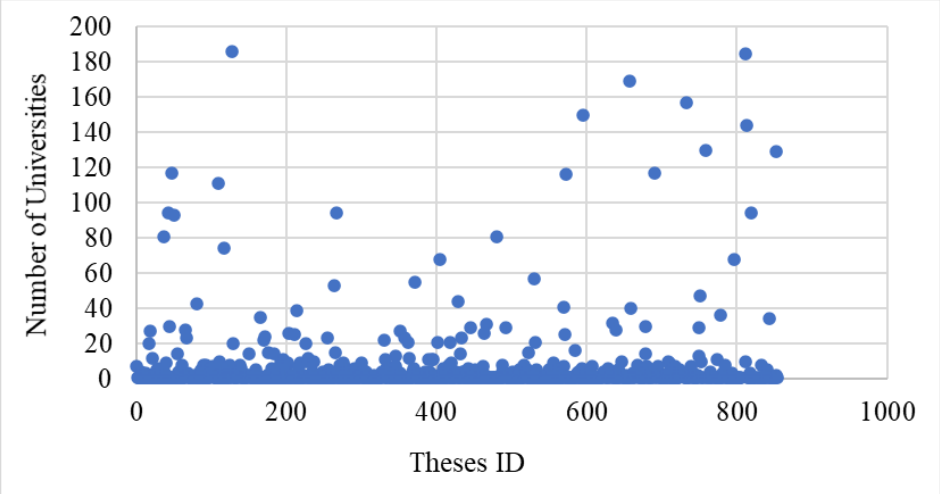

Figure 5.

Scatter Diagram for Sampling of the Universities

The PhDs produced at a maximum of ten divergent universities comprised 89% of the total Turkish higher education research. A

scatter diagram for the sampled universities suggests that a large majority of them (n=483, 65%) were conducted on a single university. The remaining dissertations included from 11 to 186 universities. Numerically, 2-5 universities were sampled by 108 theses, 6-10 universities by 74, 11-50 universities by 58, 51-100 universities by 58, and 51-100, and 101-186 universities were by 12 each equally. Figure 6 displays the number of participants/respondents in Turkish higher education research (n=758).

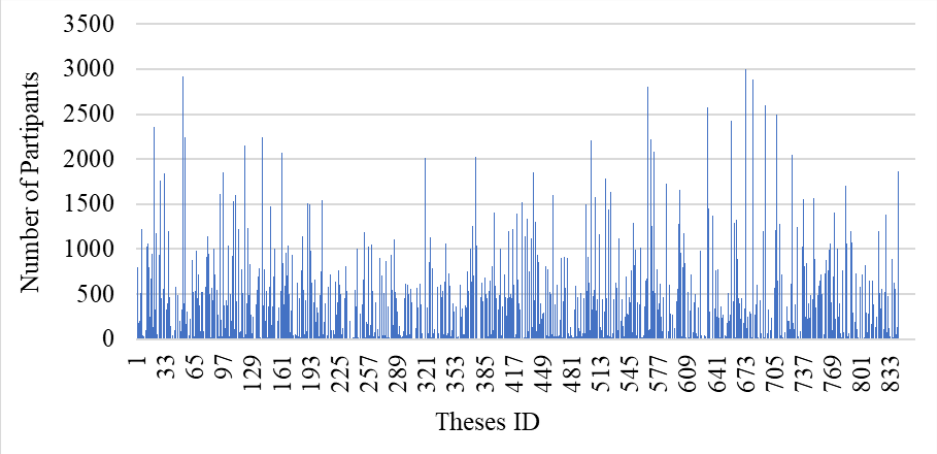

Figure 6.

Clustered Column Chart for Participant Sampling

The above Figure 6 implies that the studies were mostly carried out with the involvement of under 200 (38%) participants. Almost three out of four studies were conducted with a maximum of 600 individuals. Only 13 doctoral dissertations included over 3001 respondents. Considering that 314 studies were designed qualitatively or used mixed methods research, it can be claimed that at least 200 distinct quantitatively-designed PhDs had up to 600 respondents,

which comprised nearly 40% of the total quantitative studies. A pinpoint remainder was that 566 (74.7%) of 758 PhDs used random sampling, contrary to those with purposeful sampling (n=192, 25.3%).

Table 6 shows the distribution of the units of analysis by university type in Turkish higher education research (n=687).

Table 6.

Distribution of Unit of Analysis by University Type

Units	State	Private	Unknown	Both	Total (n)
University	10.3	0.6	0.6	1.9	92
Faculty Members	11.9	0.7	1.0	3.5	118
Undergraduate Students	56.8	2.5	1.7	5.7	458
PhD Students	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	1
Rectors	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	2
Heads of departments	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.4	7
Reports	0.9	0.0	0.3	0.0	8
Members of the CHE	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	1
Total (%)	80.8	3.8	3.6	11.8	687

The above table suggests that undergraduate students and state universities were the fertile soil for Turkish higher education research. They both created the background for nearly two-thirds (62.5%) of total studies. Research on the university itself, and faculty members, also amounted to over 10% each. The good news is that another 10% was comprised by both state and non-profit private universities. Unfortunately, the remaining studies by PhD students, rectors, heads of departments, reports, and members of the CHE were negligible. This finding points to the lack of a critical eye on the most important control issues in higher education: the administration and selection of

future faculty members, for whoever has control over the entrance to the profession will be the future professors. A pinpoint remainder was the 117 (13.7%) research studies that had no specific unit of analysis.

Conclusions & Discussion

The results of our research were threefold. The first concerns the institutional organization of researchers and knowledge. A gender balance was observed while female authors led by a slight margin. English medium dissertations increased exceptionally after 2011, despite the overwhelming majority of dissertations being in Turkish. Male gendered, full professorship, single supervision, and graduating with local PhDs were the salient features of advisors. This suggests that the advisors specialized in higher education research have made a limited contribution to the Turkish context. The USA and Europe were the foreign homes of advisors' graduate degrees, albeit with negligible rates. The long-established state higher education institutions and a small number of schools of education have been the power engines of Turkish higher education research, which gained momentum after the year 2000. Unfortunately, non-profit private universities constituted a tiny share of the knowledge production in higher education research. Nearly one-third of Turkish higher education research was conducted between 2016-2020, which is consistent with the common trend. It has already been discussed that 2015 was a milestone for the legacy of Turkish higher education.

The second result of our research is about the object of study. The themes of student experience, institutional management, and teaching & learning were predominant in Turkish higher education research, despite some variations by department and period. While themes of student experience, institutional management, and teaching &

learning boomed after the 2010s, the share of system policy and academic work seemed to have remained stable for almost 50 years. The distribution by department revealed that different departments within similar faculties may have different foci, depending on the unique requirements and objectives of the discipline. Based on Biglan's (1973) model, accounting, finance, economics (soft-non-life-applied areas); botany, entomology, microbiology, physiology, zoology (hard-life-pure areas); astronomy, chemistry, geology, mathematics, physics (hard-non-life-pure areas) had a negligible share in the development of Turkish higher education research.

The third result is about the object of knowledge. The quantitative research paradigm was found to be excessively exploited in Turkish higher education research, albeit with some variations by departments. One may argue that doctoral dissertations use functional perspectives extensively. The departments of *Educational Administration, Leadership & Policy* and *Curriculum, Teaching & Learning* strikingly welcomed qualitative and mixed-method studies, which may well be attributed to academic acculturation mechanisms as well as the academic objectives unique to the disciplines. However, the clarification of research designs revealed that Turkish higher education research had a descriptive nature regardless of the use of qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methodologies. It may be the result of the studies regarding the formation and change of higher education students' attitudes. The studies within a maximum of ten universities and 600 respondents based on random sampling had a commanding lead in Turkish higher education research. The undergraduate students and state universities were also fruitful for Turkish higher education research.

The paper analysed 854 doctoral dissertations entitled "university" from 156 departments of 82 Turkish higher education institutions. It could be inferred that our results portrayed Turkish higher education research from a broader perspective and time frame. Admittedly, the examination of doctoral dissertations on higher education research/studies are available in some other contexts, such as Canada, Sweden, and the USA (Forsberg & Geschwind, 2016; Melendez, 2002; Rone, 1998). Additionally, academic journals have been more commonly used as data sources by scholars globally (Chen & Hu, 2012; Hutchinson & Lovell, 2004; Jung, 2015; Tight, 2004, 2007, 2012b, 2012c, 2013, 2014, 2015a; Ritter, 2012). Both doctoral dissertations and academic journals were also exploited by Turkish scholars (Aydın, Selvitopu & Kaya, 2018; Karadağ, 2018; Kıranlı Güngör & Güngör, 2020; Soysal, Radmard, Kutluca, Ertepınar, Ortaç, Akdemir & Türk, 2019). From a more specific perspective, Şenay, Şengül & Seggie (2020) reviewed the legacy of Turkish higher education studies over three thematic journals and two international conferences between 2015-2018. Apart from 794 published conference proceedings, all five reviews included a total of 939 doctoral dissertations and articles. This partly stemmed from the over-restriction of higher education research by the products of the departments of *Higher Education Administration/Studies*.

It was determined that the themes of student experience, institutional management, and teaching & learning were predominant in Turkish higher education research, based on Tight's (2012a) typology of themes in research on higher education. Some other comparable results are available internationally. Forsberg & Geschwind (2016) concluded that the aforementioned three themes were also accompanied by course design in Swedish higher education

research. The themes of student experience, teaching & learning, and system policy were reported to be salient among Korean higher education publications in international refereed journals (Jung, 2015). Tight (2007) compared the articles in three major North American thematic higher education journals with another three in the non-North American context. According to the results, the North American case highlighted the themes of student experience, course design, institutional management, and academic work, respectively, while the themes of course design, academic work and system policy were salient in the non-North American journals. The themes of system policy, course design, and academic work were front runners based on a pool of 406 articles published in 17 specialized higher education journals in 2000 (Tight, 2004). The themes of course design and student experience were found to be overwhelming in almost all disciplines in other reviews by Tight (2012b, 2012c, 2013) on 567 articles published in 15 major international higher education journals.

A two-clustered model for the themes within higher education research was proposed by Tight (2008). The *Clark Cluster* covers quality, system policy, institutional management, academic work, knowledge, and research, while the *Ramsden Cluster* encompasses teaching and learning, course design, and student experience. This is quite congruent with Macfarlane's (2012) higher education research archipelago highlighting teaching-learning and policy studies as two thematic areas of research. Our results for the lack of focus on the themes of course design, academic work, and system policy imply that Turkish higher education research has overlooked the underlying mechanisms beneath the tangibles of higher education. This is especially important considering that the main issues of the Turkish higher education system have been associated with higher education

policy and organisation (Akbulut Yıldırmış & Seggie, 2018; Özoğlu, Gür & Gümüs, 2016; Tekneci, 2016).

Remarkably, three themes were at the centre of attention, regardless of North American or non-North American contexts. This may partly stem from the fact that the existing Turkish higher education research is mainly concentrated on the description of current issues and improving specific undergraduate programs in teacher education and health education (Şenay, Şengül & Seggie, 2020). However, we will have to wait for accumulation of the knowledge base to discuss our findings locally. Yet, it can be asserted that the dataset of Turkish doctoral dissertations implied close similarity with the North American context in terms of an overwhelming focus on student experience. Moreover, the course design, system policy, and academic work foci in a non-North American context also seems to be absent here.

We were unable to find any study in Turkey with which to compare our findings regarding the object of study. However, studies mostly overlapped regarding the institutional organization of researchers and knowledge, and the object of knowledge. Similarities were mostly about the overwhelming use of the quantitative research paradigm, the rise of qualitative and mixed-methods studies, limited use of triangulation, state higher education institutions and schools of education as the power engines of Turkish higher education research, the dominancy of dissertations in Turkish, the distribution of the advisor's rank, the descriptive nature of studies, the millennium as the year of momentum, the boost of higher education research over time, sample size, and unit of analysis (Aydın, Selvitopu & Kaya, 2018; Karadağ, 2018; Kıranlı Güngör & Güngör, 2020; Soysal, Radmard, Kutluca, Ertepınar, Ortaç, Akdemir & Türk, 2019; Şenay, Şengül &

Seggie, 2020). However, minor disagreements were observed regarding the unit of analysis, sampling procedures, and use of research methods.

The descriptive nature of Turkish higher education research together with the overwhelming use of quantitative research methodology may partly be attributed to the recent emergence of the discipline, as well as the research traditions of educational sciences in Turkey (Erdem, 2011; Göktaş et al.,2012; Selçuk, Kandemir, Palancı & Dündar, 2014). Besides, the clarifications regarding the types of methods adopted in doctoral dissertations yielded that the researchers tended to exploit prevalent social science research methods, such as surveys, interviews, and documentary analysis, with a reduced interest in auto/biographical, observational, and conceptual methods. This is not extraordinary, as "*higher education researchers have adopted a great deal of terminology – as well as theoretical perspectives – from other disciplines, particularly across the social sciences*" (Tight, 2020, p. 423). However, phenomenography, the unique methodology of the field, seemed almost to be a stranger to the methodology of doctoral dissertations in Turkey.

Our findings indicated that Turkish higher education research is descriptive, regardless of the use of qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods. The rate of studies regarding the formation and change of higher education students' attitudes seems to be the usual suspect. However, higher education research is also supposed to be both exploratory and explanatory to a certain extent. Teichler (2003, p. 172) pointed out that it "*has to predict key issues of debates about five years in advance as individual higher education issues tend to be in the forefront of debate and of readiness for action*". It can be claimed that Turkish higher education research needs a shift from the bird's eye perspective to a

closer look, depending on empirical data. Areas of interest for higher education studies and researchers may include "comparative or international studies; administration, management or leadership; economics, financing or funding of higher education; quality assurance, assessment, or accreditation; curriculum and instruction, or teaching and learning; student affairs or student development" (Rumbley et al., 2014; p. 27). Local adaptations may also be required by the political, social, and economic context of Turkey over time.

Limitations & Implications

Although higher education is not an academic discipline, the study of higher education is an interdisciplinary field that utilizes social science theories (Altbach, 2014). The development of an interdisciplinary field requires conferences, journals, theses, professional organizations, centers, books and publishers, social media accounts, and academic fields with committed staff. Higher education in Turkey has achieved many of those requirements, except an academic department with staff who solely focus on higher education studies. However, this may prove to be crucial. Doctoral dissertations indicate research and socialization capacity while the development of institutional research capacity supports research capacity. In the Turkish case, it could be claimed that we have reached a certain research capacity with low socialization and low institutional capacity. There is also the problem of grey literature, for knowledge that is not readily available and one needs to search carefully to obtain (Altbach, 2014b).

Practical implications should be considered with the limitations of the present study based on a review of the Turkish National Thesis Center database. The authorities of the CHE and the SSPC need to

discover new ways of access, rather than treating PhD theses as bits of information (even though theses are considered as a contribution to knowledge), which they have been collecting for almost a century. They should convert them into databases and make them available for researchers to examine in every field or discipline. This will help researchers to explore new frontiers with a focus on longitudinal and comparative studies rather than just carrying out descriptive and cross-sectional studies. Methodological individualism leads faculty to *Homo Academicus,* assuming individual human beings as rational actors and as the main unit of analysis. These theses have been treated as data, physical or online, for quite some time. However, information is relational. Information makes a difference for a certain period in time. As a result, theses are regarded as technical problems. Technical problems are handled at Level 1. Level 2 is a semantic problem, and is open to more subjective interpretations. Information is just interpreted based on well-defined rules. People try to make sense (Weick, 2001) with limited rationality. Level 3 is an effectiveness problem, and deals with desired behavioural change. Both Level 2 and Level 3 are identified with knowledge. In order to create knowledge, one needs to employ effective cognitive and behavioural approaches. This is more likely to be achieved in Shannon's Level 2 & Level 3 (Boisot, MacMillan & Han, 2007, p. 29).

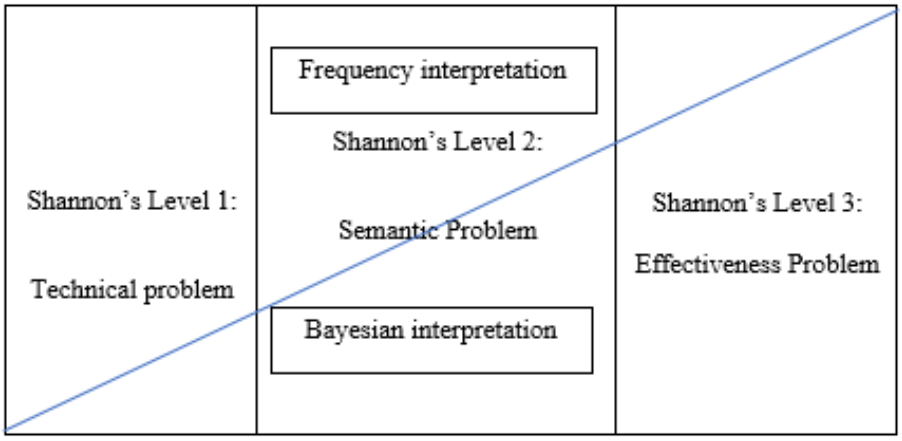

Figure 7.

Frequency and Bayesian Interpretations in Communication based on Shannon's Mathematical Theory of Communication

Thus, the CHE may transform the static thesis center (which is merely a listing) to a dynamic resource database where students and scholars may analyse content and meaning, such as Scopus and WoS, with a further pool of information (including the addition of the research data in the theses) so that researchers may conduct bibliometric, science mapping, and content analyses of doctoral theses. In that case, the scope may shift from local to universal. This will allow researchers to conduct faster/better literature reviews while they will be better positioned to identify gaps in the research.

We also suggest that the Turkish Scientific and Technological Research Council's (TÜBİTAK) JournalPark (DergiPark) should develop a dynamic database because some of the articles produced based on doctoral dissertations were published in those journals. It will help researchers to build their work on previous research while they

may also re-visit some systemic issues, such as inequalities. Moreover, these measures may lead to more interdisciplinary research in higher education as well as in other fields. These are all normative aspects of scientific openness, control, quality, and cumulative nature. As indicated by Aittola (2008, p.175), "*the quality issues revolving around doctoral dissertations concern not only academia or national higher education practices but also the international context of doctoral education, which seems to have a trend towards uniform demands and global academic markets.*" These measures are likely to help researchers to socialize into the academic profession better as the thesis center includes 681,176 theses from 1900 to 2021 (CHE, 2021). This is an enormous corpus, but it was not utilized effectively in the past as it currently is doing so. Finally, this may reduce ethical issues in the doctoral process and manuscript review procedures.

Suggestions for Future Research

Higher education has been an object of higher education studies (Brennan & Teichler, 2008; Kehm & Musselin 2013), and the study of universities is now an interdisciplinary endeavour (Altbach, 2014a). Therefore, the research examining higher education research – as the third phase following the expansion of higher education and higher education research (Tight, 2019) – should include all the outputs of divergent departments and schools. Tight (2012b) revealed that Educational Sciences and Social Sciences were the most prominent data providers globally on higher education studies. However, a huge potential was discovered, apart from the Faculty of Education, as the contributor of Turkish higher education studies. Nevertheless, we were stunned to observe that sociology, one of the major sources of theoretical perspectives in higher education around the world, did not emerge as one of the major departments concerning doctoral theses.

The relevant literature lacks research on doctoral thesis examinations in terms of relevance, critical approach, theoretical approaches, and results (Mullins & Kiley, 2002; Aittola, 2008; Smith, 2013). The depiction of the overall picture requires a greater effort on the 7,722 Master of Arts theses completed by November 2021. This may lead us to explore the tribes and territories (Tight, 2015a) in Turkish higher education research by mapping the borders, interactions, and knowledge they occupy. Also, the notion of the scholarship of teaching and learning (Tight, 2018), the teaching-research nexus (Tight, 2016), and the theory of academic drift (Tight, 2015b) should be incorporated into Turkish higher education research in order to deepen our understanding. The field should be enriched through critical studies, action research, discourse analysis, and phenomenography using auto/biographical, observational, and conceptual methods. Last but not least, Turkish higher education research is mainly functional. Turkish higher education theses need to be both epistemologically and methodologically open to different perspectives. The doctoral students need to consider - How do we know what we know? - and keep this in mind while conducting their theses.

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Leadership for inclusion and special education: Novice teachers walking the walk.

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Abstract

Expectations of teacher leadership for school improvement have gained increasing currency in recent years. While extensive research on teacher leadership and practicing teachers exists, comparatively little research exists at pre-service level and there is little empirical data regarding leadership experiences and practices of novice teachers particularly in the context of leadership for inclusion. This paper draws on empirical data from six primary teachers in the Republic of Ireland who had undertaken a leadership for inclusion and special education module in their pre-service education and evidenced their willingness and readiness to practise leadership in schools. During their first year of teaching the teachers were engaged in a community of practice to help bridge the knowledge practice gap related to leadership for inclusion. A visual ethnographic research approach was used to track the teachers as they transitioned from 'talking the talk to walking the walk'. Analysis of results indicates teachers' ability to exercise leadership in their own classrooms, in collaboration with others within and beyond their schools. This paper extends the knowledge base on how leadership development in pre-service education evolves in the experiences and practices of a group of novice teachers and subsequent implications for teacher educators.

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Introduction

The expectations of teacher leadership (TL) for school improvement and enhanced student learning continues to gain attention (Leithwood et al., 2004; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2012). Teacher leadership has its roots in the 1980s but there remains little consensus on an agreed definition. Some key literature reviews undertaken (Nguyen et al., 2019; Poekert, 2012; Wenner & Campbell, 2017; York-Barr & Duke, 2004) reveal varied conceptualizations of TL. Many focus on TL as *positions* with the term 'teacher leader' being used interchangeably with TL. Less clear is whether these are limited to the school improvement agenda or if TL is understood in a more democratic and organic manner where teachers develop a collective responsibility for the learning outcomes of all learners (King & Stevenson, 2017; OECD, 2005). This is especially important with leadership for inclusion and special education (King, 2011) a variant of teacher leadership, where schools strive to achieve equity and excellence for all (European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education (EADSNE), 2013; OECD, 2012).

While there may be extensive research on supporting TL of practicing teachers there is a dearth on TL at pre-service level and in the first years of teaching (Forde & Dickson 2017; Pucella, 2014) and especially in the context of leadership in inclusive and special education (Billingsley, 2007). Building upon a previous research

project which explored pre-service teachers' potential to exercise leadership for inclusion (King, 2017) this paper focuses on the leadership experiences of six newly qualified teachers (NQTs).

The initial study employed Bond's (2011) theoretical framework for leadership development of pre-service teachers. As pre-service teachers they were encouraged to articulate their values and a vision for inclusive education (Bond, 2011) and develop core expertise of inclusive pedagogy (Pantic & Florian, 2015), which was enhanced and shared through many collaborative and leadership experiences (Author, 2017). This expertise was not equated with experience but rather tacit knowledge (Forde & Dickson, 2017) developed over the course of their university education. A focus on continuing professional learning and reflective practice was also central to their leadership development (Forde & Dickson, 2017; King, 2017) Results showed pre-service teachers' willingness, readiness and efficacy for exercising leadership for inclusion (King, 2017).

To support the NQTs exercising leadership for inclusion in their first year of teaching they engaged in a community of practice (CoP) (Wenger, 2008) to "build their expertise collectively as pedagogues in order to lead the change needed to address the needs of diverse learners" (Forde & Dickson, 2017, p. 95). This paper reports on this longitudinal element as six NQTs embarked on exercising leadership for inclusion in practice. It uniquely provides empirical data about how leadership development in pre-service teacher education evolves in the shared lived experiences and practices of six early career teachers. Findings from this project aim to answer a call to bridge the gap between knowledge and practice (Hick et al., 2017) to prevent the wash out effects of teacher education (Forde & Dickson, 2017; Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1981) and to provide teacher educators with

insights for supporting TL for inclusion and special education at pre-service level.

Teacher Leadership

Teacher leadership is an elusive concept (Forde & Dickson, 2017), "rarely defined" and often lacks a deep theoretical basis (Wenner & Campbell, 2017, p.134). In this paper TL is considered as practice, an "organic form of leadership" from below where teachers have the autonomy to focus on what matters most to them (King & Stevenson, 2017, p. 661). Within this TL is collaborative and reciprocal (Ainscow & Sandhill 2010; Forde & Dickson, 2017) a part of professional practice and moral duty (Bond, 2011; King, 2017). Teacher leadership is centred on continuing "professional learning and pedagogical activity, focused primarily on student needs" (MacBeath et al., 2018, p. 3) and allows for all teachers to lead within and beyond the classroom, collaborating and influencing school culture and practice (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001).

Teacher leadership may be reflected in being able to "facilitate broader professional learning within the school community" as a result of individual teacher professional development and learning (Poekert et al., 2016, p. 308). It may begin with teachers influencing colleagues, sharing expertise (Angelle & DeHart, 2016) or it may involve individual teachers "confront[ing] barriers to the education of students with disabilities, rather than accepting the norms and values of the status quo" (Billingsley, 2007, p. 166).

Teacher leadership for inclusion is a variant of TL and conceptualised as within the remit of all teachers to use individual and collective agency to address issues of inequality and social justice (Pantic & Florian, 2015) and to empower special educators as

informal leaders or non-positional leaders (Woods & Roberts, 2019; York-Barr et al., 2005) collaborating and advocating for students with disabilities.

Teacher motivation and self-efficacy (Yeo et al., 2008) are important for inclusion as many teachers feel they lack the necessary skills, knowledge and expertise to meet the needs of all learners (Hick et al., 2017; O'Gorman & Drudy, 2010). Normalising differences (Florian & Spratt, 2013), developing relationships with students and including learner voice (Flynn, 2018) are also pivotal for inclusion.

Method

This paper reports results from a qualitative study exploring NQTs' experiences and practices of TL for inclusion in their first year of teaching. The study sought to answer the following research questions:

1. How did the NQTs conceptualise TL?
2. To what extent did they exercise leadership for inclusion in their first year of teaching and how did they do it?
3. What factors supported them in exercising TL for inclusion?

Twenty-four NQTs, in a university in the Republic of Ireland, who had undertaken a leadership for inclusion module as part of a major specialism in special and inclusive education were invited to engage in a CoP in their first year of teaching to explore TL for inclusion. Six volunteered and four face-to-face meetings were held over the course of their first year as NQTs. (Table 1). The study was approved by the ethics review panel of the university.

Table 1

Participants and Settings

CODE NAME	SCHOOL SETTING	CLASS AGE GROUP(S)
Aisling	Designated disadvantaged mainstream primary school	7-8 year-olds
Emily	Designated disadvantaged mainstream primary school	9-10 year-olds
Marie	Mainstream primary school	4-9 year-olds
Liz	Designated disadvantaged mainstream primary school	5-6 year-olds
Edel	Mainstream Primary school	8-10 year-olds
Lucia	Mainstream Primary school	7-8 year-olds

A visual ethnographic exploratory approach was adopted to understand the lived experiences of the participants utilizing visual tools (Buch & Staller, 2014). Images are "part of how we experience, learn, know as well as how we communicate and represent knowledge" (Pink 2013, p. 1) and provided a rich, or 'thick' description of the leadership experiences of the participants (Robson, 1993). The use of image-based research created reflective spaces contributing to understandings that were transformative for the participants (Moss et al., 2007; Prosser, 1998).

At the first CoP meeting the focus on TL for inclusion and group expectations were clarified. Given that these were NQTs and four were undergoing probation in their first year, it was important

that this work supported rather than added to their workload. Taking photographs was less cumbersome than writing reflections and adding captions supported individual critical and reflective thinking (English, 1988). At meeting 1, the NQTs were invited to take photographs illustrating their leadership for inclusion. There was no limitation on the number of photographs to be taken or guidance in terms of what should be included as it was important that they represented the teachers' own perceptions and experiences of TL. The only stipulation was that there were no photographs of children. Most participants took between 5-8 photographs for meetings two and three. The real insights came from the collaborative discussions at the meetings where participants chose a photograph, shared the caption and thinking behind it, followed by all others in the group asking clarifying questions (Moss et al., 2007) or commenting in a way that pushed thinking into "critical conversations" (Ryan, 2014, p. 371) about leadership for inclusion. The study was conceptualized as a participatory research project within which the NQTs who might be considered relatively powerless and without voice within school structures would be supported and facilitated in documenting, reflecting on and analysing their experiences of TL for inclusion thus harnessing "their collective power, to create knowledge about their experience, and to take action" (Bernard, 2000, p. 168).

Data Collection & Analysis

Various sources of data (transcripts of meetings, photographs and captions) were collected which enhanced trustworthiness allowing for data triangulation (Hammersley, 2007). As themes emerged, the researchers were noting these and seeking disagreements and outliers. Data analysis followed Miles and Huberman's (1994) six moves; affixing codes, noting reflections,

identifying patterns, confronting generalizations in the form of theory, identifying a small set of generalizations; and isolating patterns/differences (8). This involved the three components of data analysis as suggested by Miles and Huberman; data reduction, data display and drawing and verifying conclusion. A process of inductive data analysis was undertaken, and the data were reduced to a small number of themes from which the conclusions were drawn and verified following discussions around points of convergence and divergence (Moss et al., 2007): understanding of TL; experiences of leadership; and supporting factors.

Results and Discussion

This paper will now explore how leadership development evolved in the work and experiences of these six NQTs in their first year of teaching. It will firstly look at any changes in their understanding of TL followed by their experiences of exercising leadership both within and beyond the classroom. Finally, the supporting factors for exercising TL will be outlined.

Understandings of Teacher Leadership

As pre-service teachers they defined TL as having a vision and being committed to that, collaborating with others, having courageous conversations, an ability to foster change, to influence others, to engage in reflective practice, ongoing learning and to make a difference (King, 2017). During their first-year teaching when the NQTs were grappling with these understandings in situ, there was evidence of a continued focus on maintaining a vision, on collaborative dialogue and on professional learning.

For example, Liz said TL is "...trying to keep what you believe to be important…don't give up on it...despite the difficulties." (Meeting [M] 1). Some difficulties noted by Aisling (M1) included entering a "classroom with literally nothing in it" and feeling "so overwhelmed" at not being able to address individual needs…

> *that was something that really, REALLY [stressed in tone of voice] bothered me every single day… literally waking up first thing in the morning thinking 'OMG, am I going to be able to give them something meaningful to do today.*

Dealing with a gap between her values and practice (Hick et al., 2017) was challenging. However, Liz subsequently demonstrated leadership by enacting these values (Brown, 2006) through getting to know the individual learners, collaborating with her mentor and other teachers to devise a plan for what she could do within the classroom.

> *I suppose what I learned from that, was that, it has to take that time at the start; you can't know from day one, how to help every single child in your class that has a special need. (Liz, M1)*

Interestingly Liz noted how as a pre-service teacher, school placement was "all about me and what I need to do" by comparison to teaching in her first year where she is very aware of the children and their needs, it's such a big part of everyday...the full picture of the child is so much more complicated" (M1). This plausibly reflects high levels of efficacy which are deemed central to having better relationships with learners (Yeo et al., 2008). Giving the learners a voice (Flynn, 2018) and allowing them to exercise leadership in their own learning and behaviour was valued by all NQTs. Aisling sought

their views and was "willing to negotiate, to be fair, because, you know, I always talk about being fair with the children, I'll ask them do you think this is fair…" (M1). This example also evinces her commitment to inclusion (Yeo et al., 2008).

A focus on collaborative dialogue (MacBeath et al., 2018) was highlighted by all as central to TL as exemplified here:

> *being a leader in communicating with parents… some parents...can't read or write...I sent the note [letter to all parents] home so that the child isn't being excluded in getting the note, and then I just ring… tell them what the note says. (Edel, M1)*

Marie noted the importance of collaboration (Ainscow & Sandill, 2010) for enhancing teaching and student learning (Poekert et al., 2016).

> *It's great to be involved in the meetings…invited to give some ideas and it even helps with the maths lessons that I teach in class...you get different ideas of how you might teach a certain topic. (M3)*

Lucia also talked about "when you're straight out of college, there's an awful lot of going next door, saying 'will I do this or this way or what do you think? What way is it normally done?" (M4). However, as the year progressed Lucia felt "but now you can say, no in this room it works better if I do it this way, and going with it, and not being afraid to try it, and if it doesn't work, it doesn't work" (M4). She equated this to "having the confidence that you know what you're talking about, trusting that, you know what you're doing" (M4) reflecting a growing sense of efficacy (Yeo et al.,, 2008).

However enhanced professional learning was also noted by Emily as central to TL.

> *I would definitely be still asking questions, and I still will be in 20 years' time, but it's just knowing that I can still ask questions... it doesn't just stop just because we've been out of college. (M4)*

The NQTs exercised TL for inclusion to enact their values despite a sense of being 'new. Their experiences will now be explored first in terms of their experiences within and then beyond their own classrooms and schools.

Experiences of Teacher Leadership for Inclusion Within the Classroom

Regarding their own classroom practice, all six teachers talked about the importance of focusing on diverse needs, what learners can do and normalising differences (Florian & Spratt, 2013) and on the development of collaborative relationships. As evinced by Aisling (M1)

> *everyone's different but everyone has something to contribute to the class or to the lesson… there's a child in my class who can't read or write but he's an amazing artist, and in drama he does amazing things that nobody else does, so to point that out... show, that everyone's good at different things...*

Liz reflected on her time as a pre-service teacher on school placement when she felt her emphasis was "curriculum based" whereas as an NQT she had the confidence to get to know the learners better, to take "a long-term view of them" and focus on "[pupil] effort put in "as distinct from "results" (M2). Aisling also

emphasized developing relationships, "to meet them, see them, teach them, be with them, get to know them…see the children as they are, in front of you...who they are and what they might need (M1). For example, she talked about a learner who struggled with spellings and "who was very conscious of being different" (M2) by not having a spelling test copy like his peers. Aisling included this learner by ensuring "when the test copies were handed out, they would receive their own copy just like everybody else". However, his copy had "a little label [inside] to show which page he was on…" and the activities to do using his personalised spelling list (see Figure 1).

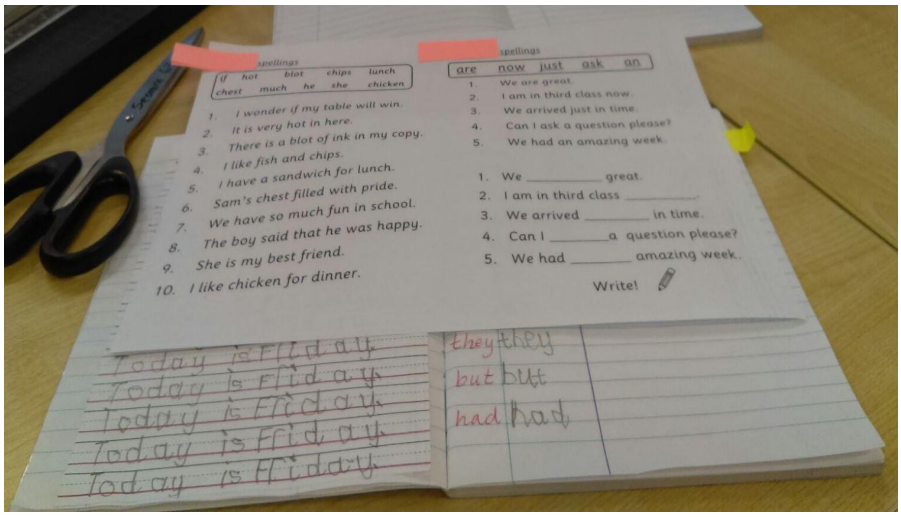

Figure 1
Personalised Spelling List

Edel demonstrated leadership through collaborating with the SEN team and the parents of a learner struggling with spelling tests. Edel's belief in all learners being able to progress (Florian & Spratt, 2013) was reflected in getting to know the learner's significant preference for visual approaches. In response, Edel introduced

"flashcards with her spellings, a picture and the word…" and also made this available to others, thus normalising differences (Florian & Spratt, 2013).

Emily exercised leadership for inclusion with a learner with ADHD who struggled with adhering to school rules while on recess. She collaborated with the learner (Flynn, 2018) and the SEN teacher to devise a list of "good choices" (M2) to make the school rules more accessible. A problem-solving approach was also adopted by Lucia who observed a pupil with an individual behaviour chart which was drawn up by a previous teacher in consultation with the parents. Lucia felt the learner did not need this individual chart.

> *I explained to the child that, you know, you're doing really well…with your behaviour, so I think we're ready to move on from the star chart…We'll give this a go and if we have to, we'll call your parents in and we'll go back to the star chart... he was kind of like, happy nearly to get rid of it" [individual chart]. (M2)*

Lucia had the confidence to make changes to prevent this learner being singled out as different (Florian & Spratt, 2013) and use the same system for positive behaviour as other learners. On reflection Lucia stated:

> *I was kind of afraid, the teacher planned the last one, the individual chart it's [removal of chart] working well so far - but we're only 3 weeks in [using it]… I was going to keep up exactly what the teacher had in place, for the first week, because I couldn't have arrived in and changed everything…but I didn't see a need for it, so…*

Other examples of commitment to inclusion highlight the tension these NQTs experienced between acknowledging their own expertise and being 'new' to their career. Edel felt TL was about sharing this expertise and not being "afraid to make suggestions as a new teacher and feel like you have enough knowledge" (M1). Similarly, Liz stated:

> *coming in as a new teacher, you don't know it all, but you might know some things that other people haven't heard about... be humble in the fact that you are a new teacher and you've a lot to learn but at the same time, when you do know, or when you do have an idea, to really put it out there and see if it can help. (M1)*

Their commitment to sharing expertise (Angelle & DeHart, 2016) was also evinced by Lucia who commented that

> *I had to meet the school psychologist the first week, and I recognised all the language they were talking about…IEPs [individual education plans]… but I was in the school only a week…is this my place yet to suggest things, but the meeting with the psychologist, the next one isn't until after Christmas when it's nearly too late, so I just…had to bite the bullet and go for it… I felt like I was talking for most of the meeting. (M1)*

The above examples arguably demonstrate the NQT's commitment to inclusion prioritising learner voice (Flynn, 2018), collaborative dialogue (MacBeath et al., 2018) and normalising difference (Florian & Spratt, 2013). While it might be suggested that this is just good practice, "the complexity and "messiness" of classroom life challenges us to resolve the discontinuity between the aspirational and the lived reality" (MacBeath et al., 2018, p. 88)

particularly as NQTs. While many of the above examples are related to the teachers' classrooms the teachers also demonstrated leadership for inclusion by using their individual agency to enact their values outside of the classroom (Florian & Spratt, 2013).

Experiences of Teacher Leadership for Inclusion Beyond the Classroom

While leadership is often built on experience and credibility the NQTs were able to seize opportunities to share their expertise within and subsequently beyond their schools. Aisling demonstrated leadership in the development of a sensory room in her school.

> *A small team of people were collaborating on it… fallen apart and nothing was getting done...I got really excited with the thought of this because I had seen the sensory room, in operation in the ASD unit where I was on placement... (M3)*

Aisling tried to use Onenote, a collaborative tool that allows you to share pictures, links, ideas and "research papers on why this would be a good idea". However, the teachers did not engage with this but were nonetheless open to all her suggestions. This didn't deter Aisling who reflected,

> *in terms of collaboration, that Onenote didn't work…but the sensory room is wonderful and I've contributed…I've got some supplies for it from my previous employer, and fundraising a lot…my little contribution outside the classroom, and I do feel really confident to lead that because I would feel that I have a lot of knowledge, not experience, experience is not needed in setting it up…I think being excited and being driven and motivated is much more important in getting a project like that done. (M3)*

Aisling's distinction between knowledge and experience is interesting in light of literature focusing on leadership as sharing expertise (Angelle & DeHart, 2016). Aisling drew upon tacit knowledge gained during pre-service education to influence change (Forde & Dickson, 2017) and shows her increasing efficacy as a 'new' teacher.

Liz also noted that as an NQT calling other professionals was "hard and it takes a bit of like building up your confidence" (M1). Grappling with exercising leadership in situ as an NQT was also challenging for Emily who was asked to give her opinion on the development of a classroom for students with autism spectrum disorder (ASD) during a grade level meeting with the Principal and Deputy Principal. While Emily said she had a voice in this she found it 'hard', despite having done a 2-week placement in an autism class as a pre-service teacher. She was conscious that placement and being the teacher in an ASD class were very different and felt her contributions could influence decisions being made at a school level.

> *I didn't want to be giving an opinion, like, an uninformed kind of opinion, that mightn't be as important as teachers in the school that have gone through the experience of having the ASD pre-school in the school…so I was not afraid, but I was conscious of giving a decision… I wanted to make sure that before I even spoke to anyone that I knew what I was thinking myself. (M3)*

Aisling and Marie (M3) understood Emily's dilemma in terms of the distinction between having knowledge of ASD and experience of working in an ASD class, evidencing the tensions experienced by the NQTs as they transition from pre-service teacher to NQT. Marie

said, "it's their experience, we're still, you know, only starting out, I know we've come through teaching practice, but there's still a lot we probably haven't experienced" (M3). Aisling and Marie agreed that while they should contribute it was important to respect the experience of others once again reflecting the debate between expertise as experience and expertise as knowledge and skills (Forde & Dickson, 2017).

Of significance is that, towards the end of their first year of teaching, Emily and Edel presented their photographs on exercising TL for inclusion at a professional conference, evincing their ability to "facilitate broader professional learning" (Poekert et al., 2016, p. 308). The Director of the Teaching Council of Ireland was present and the feedback they received from him was very empowering for them "…he seemed very hopeful for his grandchildren being in a school and going into schools with teachers like us" (Emily, M4). This surprised the NQTs who felt "it was norm for us, and what we felt we were doing was obviously to benefit the children…for us it's not a big deal… [it was] "putting [our] knowledge into practice" (Emily, M4). The Director subsequently invited them to present their work at various Teaching Council workshops.

Interestingly, at the time of writing (three years on) all six teachers have now presented at conferences. Noteworthy here is the importance of such wider experiences being available to these NQTs as part of the CoP in their first year of teaching. Given the dearth of research on TL for inclusion at pre-service level (Forde & Dickson 2017; Pucella, 2014) it is important to now explore the factors that supported these NQTs to exercise leadership and the implications for teacher educators.

Factors that Supported NQTs in Exercising Teacher Leadership for Inclusion

This section provides insights for supporting teacher leadership development especially in the context of inclusion, equity and/or special education (Billingsley, 2007; Wenner & Campbell, 2017). A number of key themes emerged from the data; community of practice; reflective practice; top-down support and efficacy.

Community of practice (CoP).

The CoP meetings aimed to bring the teachers together in collaborative dialogue (MacBeath et al., 2018) to support them in exercising TL for inclusion. All mentioned support from the CoP, how it affords a time to reflect on practice (Edel, M1), to talk with others who focus on leadership for inclusion (Aisling, M1)). Liz talked about the specialism enabling her to focus on "the kind of teacher that you want to be" and the CoP enabling her to "stay in touch with the teacher that I'm wanting to be" as it would be easy "to slip into bad habits" (M1). She later argued "the reality is just re-light the fire" (M4) and highlighted the importance of the CoP as a support for this. Thus, the CoP may act as a means of preventing the wash out effects of university teacher education (Forde & Dickson, 2017; Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1981) as it appears to provide a sense of belonging and connectedness as teachers work to build a community with others who share their values and interests (Wenger, 2008). Arguably the CoP afforded the teachers wider experiences, for example, presenting at a conference and reflective practice, which may have helped them to crystalize and possibly confirm their experiences exercising leadership for inclusion.

Reflective practice.

Taking photographs was reported by all six NQTs as influencing them to reflect on their practice in a transformative manner (Moss et al., 2007; Prosser, 1998). Photographing the activity "requires you to stop and think about your practice" (Aisling, M4). Having to put a caption on the photographs to share with others at the CoP meeting required a purposeful reflection (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999) and meaningful consideration (Schon, 1991) of practice. Such conscious and reflective practices are deemed essential for teachers engaging in TL (Forde & Dickson, 2017).

The CoP provided a supportive atmosphere for critical conversations (Ryan, 2014) about leadership for inclusion. The teachers liked taking the photographs, and felt it wasn't extra work as it was photographing and reflecting on what they were already doing. They began using photographs in various ways. Aisling stated "it's useful to just snap it, something that you do, something you see someone else do…the picture will make everything come back to you…it's a lot more efficient" (M4). Edel cited another example where all teachers in her school were obliged to submit a personal reflection with their monthly planning to their principal and submitted her reflection using a picture and caption instead of a narrative. Of significance here is the top-down support for teachers to exercise leadership.

Top-down support.

The principal is "happy for people to put in pictures now...to reflect using the picture" (Edel, M4) evidencing both the importance of top-down support for leadership from below (King, & Stevenson, 2017) and teachers from below influencing school culture

(Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001) regardless of their role, authority or position in a school (Woods & Roberts, 2019; York-Barr et al., 2005). Interestingly some NQTs experienced a tension around peer acceptance for exercising leadership. Liz expressed her concerns about support from colleagues

> *I do think there are teachers in my school that are a bit cynical but then in ways I can see why... it's just… trying to keep what you believe to be important keep your mind that it's the kids that you're kind of focussing on. (M1)*

Despite NQTs growing confidence in their first year of teaching and their commitment to leadership for inclusion there is a role for support from above within schools where principals conceptualise TL as something that is collaborative and shared across all teachers (Woods & Roberts, 2019).

All six NQTs reported high levels of self-efficacy in exercising leadership for inclusion in their final year of teacher education (Author, 2017). However, "a teacher's competence has meaning only within the context of real-world teaching duties and demands" (Yeo et al., 2008, p. 193). Within their first year of teaching, confidence was cited as both a support and an issue. Liz reported

> *confidence is an issue, like raising an opinion about things because sometimes people in the staff room make a comment like…'oh once you're here a few years you won't be saying that' but sometimes I think 'maybe I'll keep a little bit quieter' you know, you just won't be as inclined to speak up… not that you wouldn't say what you think, but it's just a little bit of insecurity. (M1)*

However, lacking confidence seemed to be more related to exercising leadership beyond the classroom. This may be reflective of having high levels of self-efficacy related to inclusion but feeling a lack of support at times. Regarding leadership within the classroom, their commitment to inclusive practice and high levels of efficacy gave them the confidence (O'Gorman & Drudy, 2010) despite difficulties as reflected by Aisling

> *I'm nearly even more motivated when I see how important this is for children that, really, really need the support, and even if you don't have time, you're going to*
> *have to give it to them, or even if you can't do it and you don't know how to do it, you're still going to have to try, because, you just have to... there's no point in getting your experience dampened, that's why you're there, you're there to help them and you're there to draw on whatever you have and the people around you to make it work for them. (M2)*

This is particularly important given that TL has been linked with efficacy beliefs and collective efficacy linked with a positive impact on student learning (Angelle & DeHart, 2016). Enhancing individual efficacy within teacher education along with enhancing collective efficacy within schools is arguably of great significance.

Conclusion

What is evident is the importance of unlocking the potential for leadership for inclusion and special education at pre-service level as NQTs can 'walk the talk' even in their first year of teaching highlighting some key issues for consideration. Results from exploring the lived experiences of NQTs, who had engaged in leadership development in their pre-service education, suggest that

despite tensions around being 'new' these teachers did exercise leadership for inclusion and special education in their classrooms and beyond. It is important to acknowledge that this sample may not be representative of larger numbers given their subsequent engagement in a CoP as NQTs. There is a dearth of empirical data exploring TL at pre-service level and into the first year of teaching (Forde & Dickson 2017; Pucella, 2014) and a dearth of data exploring teacher leadership for inclusion and special education (Billingsley, 2007). This article provides in-depth analysis of the work and experiences of six NQTs and allows us to consider some implications for teacher educators and principals in schools.

Their understanding of TL for inclusion built on their experiences within pre-service education where the NQTs talked about enacting their values and maintaining their commitment to inclusion and special education despite difficulties. They emphasized the importance of collaboration with colleagues, parents and the child with less emphasis on themselves as teachers and more on the children and their needs.

The NQTs reflected on examples of leadership for inclusion within and beyond the classroom by focusing on the diverse needs, normalising difference and focusing on the child and not themselves. As they grappled with their new role as an NQT, the teachers enacted their values by seizing opportunities within the school and leading on projects, sharing their expertise and having the confidence to speak up when needed. Noteworthy are the experiences afforded to them within the CoP during their first year of teaching which arguably helped them consolidate their values and practices related to inclusion. Central to this was the use of photographs to aid

reflection on experiences. All of these supported the development of the NQTs efficacy during their first year.

Since efficacy appeared to play a key role in supporting teachers to enact their values, developing this needs to be considered by teacher educators at pre-service level as evidenced in Author (2017). Providing lived experiences of TL through experiential learning (Brown, 2006) can support pre-service teachers in entering the profession with high levels of efficacy (King, 2017). The use of photographs and captions to support conscious and reflective practices (English, 1988) may be a useful tool for supporting critical conversations (Ryan, 2014) around leadership for inclusion.

It is incumbent on teacher educators to explicitly identify for pre-service teachers the necessary supports for TL within and beyond schools, for example, top-down support, peer acceptance, collaborative practices such as CoPs and reflective practice to further enhance their individual self-efficacy in their early years as teachers. What may be required at school and system level is a deeper understanding of the need for top-down support and collaborative cultures in schools to support NQTs to exercise leadership and develop collective efficacy around student learning. Furthermore, a more nuanced discussion of what is meant by TL at all levels of the system may provide further clarity for all involved.

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Bridges To The Future: Mobility Experiences Of Early-Career Researchers[1]

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Abstract

The aim of the study is to investigate the meaning attributed by early-career researchers to academic mobility, the sources of motivation for mobility, and the difficulties and opportunities faced by these researchers during their academic activities. The present study employed the qualitative research method in order to understand the participants' experiences more deeply. A semi-structured interview form was used for the study, and was carried out on 11 early-career researchers. The participants expressed their motives for mobility, their research experiences, and the difficulties they faced. The findings revealed the early-career researchers' sources of motivation for mobility and the difficulties and opportunities they encountered in this process.

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[1] In this study, the concept of " early-career researcher" was used for academicians who completed their PhD in the last five years.

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Introduction

Internationalization in higher education is becoming more important every day. In academic life, a researcher's international qualifications are greatly appreciated (Bauder et al., 2017). Mobility in higher education is one of internationalization's most important dimensions (Radloff, 2016), and mobility for research purposes has increased significantly in the last few years (Yang, 2020). At universities, it is more important than ever for academics to be mobile and international for their career prospects (Nikunen & Lempiäinenfile, 2020). International academics are more likely to participate in international teaching and research activities (Teichler, 2017), and most universities are willing to encourage internationalization (Altbach & Knight, 2007).

In many countries around the world, higher education institutions encourage early-career researchers to conduct research abroad as part of internationalization. In recent years, international mobility has become more crucial, especially in master's and doctoral studies, as many PhD candidates seek an academic career (Lambert et al., 2020; Skakni, 2018). Undoubtedly, international early-career researchers who strive to produce material through original research are at the center of the research process at universities (Kehm, 2008). For instance, trans-border mobility is thought to be parallel to career success (Enders, 1998); working in an internationalized institutional environment and regular contact with academics abroad increase the

likelihood of developing academic mobility plans (Netz & Jaksztat, 2014).

In this context, factors such as employment opportunities and research support (facilities and funding) play an important role in attracting highly qualified academics (Bennion & Locke, 2010). In connection, international doctoral or master students are encouraged and supported through higher education policies (Bauder et al., 2017).

On the other hand, the ultimate goal of competing for international early-career researchers is to increase a country's competitive advantages in scientific research. International experience is assumed to support transnational knowledge networks (Jöns, 2011) and contribute to the reputation and opportunities of early-career researchers (Nerdrum & Sarpebakken, 2006; Welch, 1997). Thus, the emphasis put on international mobility is getting stronger (Ackers, 2008; Franzoni et al., 2014). In this context, education politicians need to focus on the question, "How can international early-career researchers' mobility be further expanded?" Understanding the factors and experiences fostering early-career researchers' motivation for mobility is important because such mobility affects all aspects of society, from economics to science policies (Moed & Halevi, 2014).

The existing literature primarily focuses on researchers' sources of motivation for mobility (Ackers, 2005; Ackers et al., 2007; Pasztor, 2015). According to Ackers (2005), sources of motivation for mobility are related to employment opportunities, economic prospects, and personal development. Similarly, Ackers (2005) argues that the driving forces behind academic mobility are professional, in

other words, career-related (Conchi & Michaels, 2014; Delicado, 2010; Ivancheva & Gourova, 2011).

There are studies in the current literature investigating the sources of motivation that affect mobility experiences (Franzoni et al., 2014; Kim, 2017; Lee & Kuzhabekova, 2018; Morley et al., 2018), mobility models (Bauder et al., 2018; Hoffman, 2009; Kim, 2009), challenges to international mobility (Eisemann & Märdian, 2018; Harzing et al., 2013), career decisions of the students studying abroad (Jon et al., 2020), and the "research process" of doctoral students (Lezzerini & Hanks, 2016).

International experience is of great importance if pursued as part of personal scientific and cultural development and as the first step of an academic career (Avveduto, 2001). At the beginning of their profession, the international mobility efforts of academicians or early-career researchers are becoming more crucial in terms of academic specialization (Appelt et al., 2015). This suggests the need to take into account the factors (Guthrie et al., 2017; Lee, 1966; Lee & Kuzhabekova, 2018; Li & Bray, 2007; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002) affecting the mobility of international early-career researchers and to identify strategies to encourage greater researcher mobility.

However, it is seen that the academic mobility of international early-career researchers has largely been ignored. Very little is known about the mobility of researchers and academics expressed in the literature (Maadad & Tight, 2014; Teichler & Cavalli, 2015). More importantly, academic mobility is considered to increase scientific productivity in the early stages of a career (Horta, 2013).

Unfortunately, there is very little research on the academic mobility experiences of early-career researchers. Some researchers focus on short-term doctoral mobility (visits shorter than three

months) (i.e., Roberts, 2021), yet there is a need for further research to investigate the long-term mobility of early-career researchers. In particular, little is known about the experiences of Turkish international academicians who went abroad.

Moreover, the mobility of early-career researchers affects and shapes their careers as this plays an important role in scientific research. More research is needed in order to gain a deeper understanding of the motivations and experiences of international early-career researchers in higher education. In particular, the limited number of studies involving international early-career researchers' mobility makes the need for this research even more essential. For this reason, the main aim of the present study is to investigate the meaning attributed by early-career researchers to academic mobility, the sources of motivation for mobility, and the difficulties and opportunities faced by these researchers during their academic activities.

Theoretical Background

Human Capital and Migration Theory

International mobility is not a new phenomenon in the academic world. Scholars have been on the move internationally for centuries, but international mobility has become a rapidly growing phenomenon with spread of globalization. There is a varying degree of 'mobility expectation' in research careers depending on country and discipline (Yang, 2020).

The sociological roots of international student mobility originate from the phenomenon of "migration" (Taşçı & Aslan, 2019). Lee (1966) formed his theory of migration in 1966 with his article "A Theory of Migration." Lee says that push-pull factors are influential

in the decision-making process for people immigrating. When the factors affecting the process of immigration and the decision-making of immigrants are listed, location, destination, and obstacles come to the fore (Lee, 1966). Also, international migration theories are significant in that they take into account the country of destination, the characteristics of the country of origin (homeland), and the high quality of a country's academic institutions.

Moreover, early-career researchers' migration is an important component of knowledge migration. The benefits of immigration (pull factors) for students range from learning English (Baláž & Williams, 2004) to career development (Wiers-Jenssen, 2008). According to human capital theories, it is possible to explain this demand for international education not only by pull-push factors but also by the opportunities provided by international mobility. More importantly, early-career researchers involved in mobility accept that there is a strong correlation between the desire to acquire a variety of skills and the knowledge of the value of mobility and the ability to finance this mobility. In this context, early-career researchers' migration has begun to be considered within the context of migration, defined as the departure of individuals from their country for different purposes and going to another country for a certain period or permanently.

Push-pull factors affect motivation for mobility, an theories of international migration have often been used in the study of mobility motivations (Kondakçı, 2011; Li & Bray, 2007; Mazzarol & Soutar 2002; Wilkins et al., 2013). In order to understand the sources of motivation for mobility in higher education, the push-pull theory is often used as a reference. Researchers in higher education prefer the push-pull theory to explain the motivations and choices of

international researchers. For example, while political stability, economic development, and social welfare in a country are pull factors in international mobility (Barnett et al., 2016), negative developments such as social problems, political conflicts, and economic crises such as war in the country appear as push factors (Kondakçı et al., 2016). Furthermore, identified models show the importance of understanding academic mobility as a 'process' (Ackers et al., 2007).

Another significant point is that human capital migration theory shapes the international research mobility of early-career researchers. The idea of human capital has preferred migration theories (Emilsson & Mozetič, 2021). In human capital migration approaches, the focus is on the decision of the individual to migrate and this decision depends on what is to be gained from mobility (Khwaja, 2002). According to the human capital theory, mobility in this sense consists of the knowledge, skills, and experiences of the individual (Mention & Bontis, 2013; Schultz, 1961).

Additionally, international mobility is thought to be a human capital and increased productivity in economies (Emilsson & Mozetič, 2021). Also, it is often seen that early-career researchers' mobility is explained by the human capital theory of educational investment (Marginson, 2018).

Turkish Context

The demand for higher education is increasing with each day, which gives rise to various demographic consequences for all types of countries (Gürüz, 2011). Especially in countries where the economy is driven by knowledge, qualified labour force cannot be provided at the desired level, and constant updating is required to adapt to

changing demands and the creation of new knowledge (Gürüz, 2011). Therefore, researchers travel internationally for their research or study with international mobility. Around the world, higher education institutions are trying to get a share of international mobility, which is thought to have significant economic, social, political, and academic contributions to higher education institutions and individuals. One of these countries is Turkey.

Turkey has been sending students to foreign countries for them to receive higher education for a long time and thus, is one of the source countries (Kondakçı, 2011). On the other hand, it has also accelerated its efforts to attract more international students to its universities in recent years (Çetinsaya, 2014; Özoğlu et al., 2016).

According to Barblan, Ergüder, and Gürüz (2008);

> *This demand/supply imbalance is the major driver for the student outflow from Turkey, which has become a major country of origin for foreign students, or alternatively, a major importer of higher education services from the international higher education market (p.75).*

Today, the number of international students in Turkey, which was 21,948 in 2010, reached 185,047 in 2020, which is almost nine times higher (Study in Turkey, 2021). Özoğlu et al. (2015) point out that when a general evaluation of international mobility within the context of Turkey is made, it is seen that it has gained momentum with the higher education policies implemented in recent years. On the other hand, according to Kondakçı et al. (2017), argue that Turkey urgently needs policies at the national and institutional level in order to benefit from mobility economically, academically, socially, and

politically. However, there is very little research on the international academic experiences of early-career academicians at universities in Turkey. In the study conducted by Güngör and Tansel (2004), it was determined that the participants see universities abroad as much better quality than the ones in Turkey.

The literature briefly summarized here reveals that the mobility of researchers in the context of Turkey has not been studied extensively. Investigating the meaning attributed to mobility by researchers, why they prefer developing countries, and their experiences abroad will contribute to the international literature. Studies so far tend to focus more on international student mobility. In this connection, the current study was carried out to reflect the mobility experiences of the participants who went abroad from Turkey. The results are expected to contribute to both national and international literature, theoretically and practically.

Method

Research Design

The qualitative research method phenomenology design was used in this study to gain a deeper understanding of the researchers' international experiences regarding the phenomenon of mobility (Creswell, 2013). The purpose of phenomenology is to understand the human experience (van Manen, 2007). The phenomenology pattern is a method that will help the researchers to understand the effects of mobility more deeply throughout this process. Phenomenological research is divided into interpretive, existential, and transcendental. The interpretive phenomenological research design was used for this study (Heotis, 2020). The main point of this study is to focus on the

participants' international mobility experiences and the meanings these experiences have for them.

Preparation of the Data Collection Tool

As the data collection tool, a semi-structured interview form containing various sub-questions about the mobility experiences of the researchers during their studies was developed. With the opinion of an expert, the form was then finalized. IRB Istanbul 29 Mayıs University acquired the study, and the ethical rules of the study were followed. The interview form included questions about the participants' demographics, why they selected the countries and universities where they were conducting their studies, and the challenges and opportunities they encountered.

Research Participants

Participants for the current study were determined using the criterion sampling method (Creswell, 2013). The criteria determined for selecting the participants included conducting their doctoral or post-graduate studies abroad, staying more than 4 months abroad, and having a scholarship. The participants of the study were 5 males and 6 females from 29-37 years of age and had been studying abroad for a period ranging from 6 to 24 months. Maximum variation was attempted to ensure university, gender, age, research topic, and years of experience abroad. Research topics of the participants were history, museology, nuclear physics, digital play, environmental security, multiculturalism, quantification and consideration, political science, geomatics, energy security, and philosophy (see Table 1.).

Table 1. Demographic profile of the research participants

Participant	Age	Country	Research Topic	University
PM-1	31	U.K.	Museum	Leicester University
PM-2	28	U.K.	Digital Play	University of Sheffield
PM-3	37	U.S.	Environmental Security	American University
PM-4	37	Canada	Multiculturalism	Queen's University
PM-5	34	Russia	Political Science	Saint Petersburg University
PF-1	36	U.S.	History	George Mason University
PF-2	31	U.S.	Nuclear Physics	Columbia University
PF-3	29	U.K.	Education	University of East Anglia
PF-4	35	Canada	Geomatic	Calgary University
PF-5	35	U.K.	Energy Security	University of Sussex
PF-6	37	Germany	Philosophy	Vestfalya Wilhelm University

Data Collection

Firstly, early-career researchers studying abroad were contacted by e-mail and were asked whether they would like to participate in the study. With the early-career researchers who agreed to participate in the study on a volunteer basis, semi-structured interviews were conducted and lasted about 60-90 minutes. The interviews focused on four fields: the meaning of international mobility for the participants, their motivation to go abroad, opportunities provided by international experience, and the difficulties experienced. The interviews were then transcribed verbatim, yielding 11 transcripts, each ranging from 3,000 to 5,000 words.

Phenomenological Data Analysis

Finally, a phenomenological analysis was used to understand the researchers' international experiences regarding the phenomenon of mobility (Creswell, 2013). In this study, the 'interpretive phenomenological research' design was used (Heotis, 2020). The interviews were completed, transcribed, and then submitted for the participants' approval. Rather than the names of the participants, they were assigned codes (P1-P2) which are used in the text.

Interpretive phenomenological analysis examines lived experience where meaning is embedded in experience. Therefore, one's experience with the phenomenon and how the meaning is formulated from it can be understood through interpretation. In this respect, phenomenological data analysis in this study made it easier for us to understand the lives of the early-career researchers.

A phenomenological study has a unique analysis process that is different from other qualitative research designs. The general stages of phenomenological data analysis are data preparation, phenomenological reduction of data, creative variation, and revealing the essence of experience (Giorgi, 2009) (see Figure 1.):

Figure 1. Stages of phenomenological data analysis

After these stages were completed, the results of the research were summarized according to the variables and are presented in combination with direct quotations from the participants who were coded as PM-1 (Participant Male-1), PF-1, (Participant Female-1), etc.

After this process, each interview text was read by three researchers in order to gain a holistic perspective. Then, by analyzing the interview texts, the structure of the experiences of the early-career researchers was attempted to be determined. In the last stage of the analysis, common themes were identified, and the researchers' international experiences regarding mobility were revealed.

Results

The meaning of international mobility for the participants:

The first priority of this study was to explore the meaning attributed to international mobility by the participants. For example, one participant explained what international mobility meant to him/her, including many components of it (dissemination of information, benefiting from the experiences of professors, improving language competence):

> *International mobility actually plays a very important role in the professional development of academicians. Moreover, benefiting from the experiences of professors in the field is the first thing that comes to my mind. In addition to these, it means improving your language competence and experiencing language learning personally, for example you can have more experience in understanding jokes, facial expressions and gestures and enhance your cultural awareness (PF-6).*

Another participant explained international mobility by pointing to the information dissemination mission of higher education and underlining collaborations:

> *In my opinion, international mobility is actually a process of information dissemination. For example, through joint studies, academic articles, conferences or other communication channels, information can be spread around the world via mobility (PF-5).*

Five of the participants explained academic mobility in relation to professional development:

> *International mobility means professional development, especially for early-career researchers because the mobility experience offers opportunities to advance in one's academic career and to develop his/her academic skills. It is a great professional development opportunity, especially for researchers from developing countries. In this regard, international mobility is not just to be included in the CV; rather, it is a great experience (PM-5).*

Another participant defined international mobility within the framework of access to international networks:

> *As a person at the beginning of his/her academic career, I think that international mobility is very important in order to establish an international network. Therefore, in*

my opinion, international mobility is an indispensable goal in order to learn the perspectives of different countries, different disciplines, especially to expand international networks (PF-3).

Academic mobility can cross borders. It can improve one's vision. One can learn new information in different cultures, systems and different geographies, establish different connections (PM-2).

Sources of motivation for going abroad:

The sources of the researchers' motivation for mobility were gathered under 2 main categories: Push-pull factors.

As for the push factors, the participants preferred to participate in international mobility for different reasons such as lack of funding in higher education, absence of academic quality and research culture, inadequate opportunities to learn English in Turkey, shortage of academician who are expert in their fields and inadequate mentorship support, lack of opportunities to establish academic networks in Turkey and political reasons. As for the pull factors, the participants preferred to participate in international mobility for different reasons such as academic quality and research culture, opportunities research topics, field experts, network, professional development. For example, country and university, countries where English is spoken, research topics and field experts. Six international early-career researchers selected universities where they could speak English. For 5 of them, the prestige of the university, availability of good professors in the field, employment conditions were the main

reasons behind their choice. Also, according to participants, university selection was associated with high "university visibility".

> *I selected Columbia University. Columbia was in the top 10-15 in university rankings both in the US and in the world. Also, prominent professors in my field were there. In fact, I had the opportunity to meet and exchange ideas with all of them (PF-2).*

> *In fact, I applied to several leading universities. Since I did not decide on the subject for my thesis at that time, my applications were only based on the university ranking; I did not pay much attention to the studies of the faculty at the university. I thought that I would have a better opportunity to improve myself in a higher-ranked university and listing that university on my CV would benefit my career. I had to choose between the two universities that sent me the earliest acceptance letters due to my concerns about the visa process: University of Sheffield and Leeds University (PM-2).*

One participant stated that he/she chose the University of East Anglia in England by referring to the opportunity to benefit from the experiences of professors working in international evaluation programs such as OECD or PISA as follows:

> *I selected the University of East Anglia in England. First of all, the educational practices in the UK are quite different when compared to Turkey and the university employed professors who contributed to the development*

> *of evaluation of international assessment programs (PISA, PIACC), or worked at the OECD. I selected employed academicians who evaluated the PISA exams (PF-3).*

One of the participants stated that the location of the university was effective on his/her university selection:

> *Since Washington DC is the heart of the world, the center of international relations, and provides great opportunities, I chose D.C. and decided to study at a foundation university (PM-3).*

Countries where English is spoken. Language can affect the mobility of graduate and PhD researchers in several ways. Language is often an important factor for researchers to determine which country or university they will study. Researchers also talked about their reasons why they selected specific countries. Five researchers chose universities where they would be able to speak in English. The following participants explained why language was an important factor affecting their decision on which country to conduct their academic studies and the participant also stressed that English-speaking countries are leading nations in higher education:

> *For example, one participant stated that the reason for choosing an English-speaking country as the global acceptance of the language since English is universal (PM-3).*

Research topics, field experts. Another factor affecting the university selection of the researchers is the research topic. For example, one participant stated that he/she chose a university having the world's first museum department in connection with his/her field of study. He/she underlines the effect of the network created during the excavations with the best instructors in this field as follows:

> *Firstly, I preferred the Liverpool and Freiburg universities because I met professors who were recruited in these universities during excavations, and they were good in their field (postgraduate). Secondly, I selected the University of Leicester due to the academic background; it is the home to the first museology department in the world (PM-1).*

Similarly, a researcher who has a doctorate in philosophy explained the reason why he/she chose Germany for his/her academic studies by referring to the fact that famous professors in the field of philosophy worked there as follows:

> *Since I studied philosophy, I wanted to conduct my scientific activities in Germany, which is one of the leading countries in this field and has famous philosophers. My thesis supervisor, who had lived in Germany for two years during his own thesis studies, strongly recommended me to go to Germany (PF-6).*

One participant expressed the reason for choosing the USA for his/her research in the nuclear field by referring to the small number

of these studies in Turkey and difficulty of having access to international studies in this field in Turkey as follows:

> *My doctoral dissertation was on the USA's nuclear deterrence in East Asia. The fact that the field was quite untapped in Turkey and limited access to international resources convinced me to do my research abroad. (PF-2).*

Different from the others, a researcher explained that the motivation for his/her going to Russia was to better understand Turkish-Russian relations and then to develop his/her career in Turkey, where there is very little work in this field as follows:

> *The reason why I especially wanted to go to Russia is that my field of study includes some regions within the borders of today's Russia. For this reason, doing research in a Russian university in Russia will help me conduct original studies in the future. It has been important to understand Turkish-Russian relations throughout history. I made this decision because it is important to understand a Russia that is getting stronger today, and to experience it on the spot, especially by learning Russian and accessing local resources (PM-5).*

Participation in conferences, authoring joint papers, collaboration, network. Another contribution of academic mobility to their academic career was the important relationships they established during their stay and their meeting with leading researchers. More importantly, many of them are still collaborating with the researchers they met. It is understood that especially early-career researchers' mobility experiences improved their networks and

enabled them to obtain opportunities such as co-publishing:

> *I attended two international conferences during my stay in the USA. I presented a paper at conferences organized by the International Studies Association, one in Baltimore and another in New Orleans. I had the opportunity to meet and publish with academicians from different regions of the world at the conference. Someone was the editor of a publishing house that would publish our book, and they gave us the chance to publish an international book (PM-3).*

Opportunities as human capital:

Participation in and observation of the courses. The researchers described their learning experiences as positive to a great extent. They had the opportunity to learn teaching methods and techniques, and strategies in a different country. Sample comments are below:

> *I took 3 courses, one of which was instructed by my advisor, in my field of research (Seminar on Cold War, Relations with Japan, Relations with Korea). I would like to research the relations of these countries with Turkey. First, all the professors were very punctual. They all were very knowledgeable about current affairs in their own country and in the world. The classes were interactive. They asked questions, answered each question with patience, and made us think (PF-2).*

> *I took two courses instructed by my advisor in the USA. These were the International Environmental Law and International Organizations courses. The courses were*

> *not only instructed in the classroom, but we visited the institutions associated with the topic and participated in panels. I had the opportunity to improve myself by attending sessions held at the World Bank, U.S. Department of State, and environmentalist NGOs (PM-3).*

Mindset and Vision - Research Culture. Another issue emphasized by the participants was the high quality of higher education, productivity, openness to interdisciplinary research, and positive opinions of researchers in the host country about the scientific research culture. For example, a researcher compares the research culture in the country he/she visited to that of Turkey as follows:

> *I gained idealistic perspectives on how to teach, how to research, and how to write articles. Writing articles, books, etc. is seen as an easy task in Turkey. But Columbia and my advisor imparted a realistic perspective to me on how to conduct a scientific study and how to build a foundation for every sentence we write (PF-2).*

Other researchers, on the other hand, emphasized that through academic mobility, they developed their ability to look at events from different perspectives and established dialogue with other scientists, and that they became aware of the need for academic studies to be conducted in accordance with ethical principles, to be original and to encourage critical thinking:

> *Academic mobility has improved my ability to view events from different perspectives and to establish a dialogue with other scientists (PM-1).*
>
> *…I have learned many things about how to follow ethical principles through academic mobility, great contributions to my development. I have learned how to reflect critical thinking in an article, and this is very important as I am a philosopher. In Turkey, many of the studies have been produced by means of copy and paste. Researchers in Turkey need to make more use of the critical paradigm... however, a scientist needs to reflect critical thinking, questioning, and discussion in his/her writings. I think Germany is among the best countries to use critical thinking as a means of reflection (PF-6).*

Some of the participants stated that they understood better how scientific research should be done and gained an epistemological perspective on the production of knowledge in research:

> *Academic mobility has improved my ability to view events from different perspectives and to establish a dialogue with other scientists (PM-1).*
>
> *I acquired idealistic perspectives on how to lecture, how to research and how to write a paper. In Turkey, writing an article, a book, etc. is considered to be a fairly easy task. However, Columbia and my advisor provided me with a realistic perspective on how to conduct a scientific study and how to provide a basis for each sentence we*

written (PF-2).

Some of the participants expressed that there is insufficient mentoring on how to conduct scientific research in Turkey and also stated that they better understood how scientific research should be done in the country they went to and gained an epistemological perspective on knowledge production in research:

> *Frankly, it was an unforgettable memory for me, I was very busy during these 15 months and had to endure several difficulties. However, I think it was worth it as it significantly contributed to me academically and personally. Since the education systems were a little different from each other, adaptation was a bit difficult for me. To put it simply, they do not teach you anything there. However, they encourage you to learn on your own. No one taught me which research methods to use while doing research, or how to conduct face-to-face interviews or what ethical rules are. As someone who was trained in the Turkish education system, I was inclined to ask what I should do and how I should do it; thus, it was a bit difficult at first but then I got used to it and learned to act accordingly (PM-3).*

Some of the participants admitted that while developing a reflexive approach to their experiences, their epistemological and cultural perspectives on knowledge production also changed:

> *The most important gain was the acquisition of a different perspective and awareness about the necessity of deeper and more comprehensive field knowledge. I became more aware of the fact that any academic work should be conducted in compliance with ethical principles, should be original and should foster critical thinking. Collaboration with people from different cultures and nationalities helped me learn about different ideas and requirements in the field (PF-6).*

Challenges in the host country:

The participants talked about challenges they faced in their academic, economic, bureaucratic, and socio-cultural lives.

The first challenge participants indicated is the language.

> *The biggest problem was the Russian language. I remember that I had a relatively difficult time finding the necessary information for my studies (PM-5).*

> *The most significant problem I encountered when I first went abroad to Germany was the language and the different educational system (PM-1).*

> *The language was a major problem and the education system and the expectations of the education system from students were very different compared to Turkey. (PF-3).*

The second challenge participants indicated is lack of funds. One participant expressed the difficulties he/she experienced regarding the shortage of funds as follows:

> *I experienced financial problems due to the sudden rise of the Euro. A loaf of bread was around 1 Euro. This was 7-8 TL. Paying 10 Euros for a cup of filter coffee was annoying (PF-6).*

The third challenge participants indicated is related to bureaucracy. Some participants mentioned various challenges they experienced at varying degrees of bureaucracy (e.g., visa procedures), In particular, they expressed the difficulties they faced during the collection of application documents. Sample views are as follows:

> *I first sent an e-mail to my advisor there during the application process and in the feedback, the advisor stated that the topic was interesting, and they could accept me as a visitor the same day. I received detailed information about my rights and university rules from the advisor's assistant. The acceptance process went smoothly in a planned and fast manner. University requested a bank statement to demonstrate that I could pay for my expenses, and I sent it to them (approximately $ 2800 per month for a total of $ 16,800 for 6 months). With this document, university sponsored me, and I had no problem obtaining a J1 visa (PF-2).*

> *The visa procedures were the biggest challenge. I thought I could easily get a visa with my invitation letter and grant documents. I had to document that I earned a minimum of 720 Euros per month. Although I could document that I had sufficient funds in my account, they asked me to open a blocked bank account in Germany. Unfortunately, the Turkish bank's account statements*

> *did not work. The process was extremely costly and daunting (PF-6).*

Another challenge one participant indicated is the political relations between countries:

> *… It was a period of time which was dominated by somewhat chaotic and harsh policies in American-Turkish relationships. That's why, I can say that I felt a little uneasy when I went there (PM-5).*

Discussion

The current study investigated the meaning attributed by early-career researchers to academic mobility, the sources of motivation for mobility, the difficulties and opportunities faced by these researchers during their academic activities.

Firstly, the meaning of international mobility was focused on because knowing the mental models of the participants regarding the meaning of international mobility has facilitated the process of revealing and making sense of the driving forces of mobility in the context of Turkey. Wildavsky (2012) underlines that the concept of academic mobility has changed in recent years. Byram and Dervin (2008) explain the term 'academic mobility' as follows: "It is an old phenomenon because the idea of a university is of a place of teaching and learning open to all, whatever their provenance, provided they can benefit themselves and others; and universities date back hundreds of years" (p.1). When the participants of international academic mobility meanings of mobility are considered, it is seen that early-career researchers are aware of the contribution transborder

mobility has to their professional careers. The participants explained the concept of international mobility by pointing to the following: Professional development, benefiting from the experiences of professors, improving language competence, access to international networks, higher education's mission of disseminating information and collaborations. In general, the participants perceive academic mobility positively (e.g. Welch, 1997). These results showed that the meaning attributed to the concept of "international academic mobility" is also extremely important. The findings of the study are clearly consistent with the definition of academic mobility.

Secondly, the sources of motivation that the researchers explained for mobility were gathered under two main categories: Pull and push. When a general evaluation of international mobility within the context of Turkey is made, it is seen that in recent years it has gained momentum with the implementation of higher education policies (Çetinsaya, 2014; Özoğlu et al., 2016). According to Kondakçı et al. (2017), although Turkey has significant advantages in terms of experience, capacity, geographical location, and historical and cultural ties with the countries in its region, it cannot benefit from international student mobility to the desired extent compared to other countries around the world; thus, it needs policies at the national level and strategies at the institutional level.

When the push-pull factors are examined for Turkey in this context, it is understood that the participants preferred to participate in international mobility for reasons such as lack of funding in higher education, absence of academic quality and research culture, inadequate opportunities to learn English, presence of very few universities in the world university ranking, shortage of expert academicians in their fields, inadequate mentorship support, and lack

of opportunities to establish academic networks within Turkey. It is seen that in their university and country selection, the participants largely preferred English-speaking countries as language plays a role in the selection of the country, and English-speaking countries are highly popular (OECD, 2009). Researchers preferred English-speaking countries because of their high-ranking universities (Bauder et al., 2017). In addition, the search for quality higher education is emerging as one of the most important factors pushing participants to English-speaking countries and universities. The explanations of the participants showed the academic quality and research culture of their university as the most important factors that attracted them to their preferred country. Previous studies indicate that international students prefer Western countries for reasons such as high quality of education and the reputation of the country or institution (Rostan & Höhle, 2014). However, other factors are also important, such as geographic proximity, cultural and historical connections, exchange programs or scholarships, and immigration policies (OECD, 2009). It is seen that the majority of the participants in this study preferred English-speaking countries (Bauder et al., 2017; Matanle & Mcintosh, 2020).

Additionally, the prestige of the host university and its place in the university rankings are among the pull factors (Nerdrum & Sarpebakken, 2006). Also, this factor affects students' decision-making processes when choosing a university (Becker & Kolster, 2012; Mazzarol 1998). Also, the opportunity to work with colleagues who are experts in their field and recruited in prestigious institutions is considered a powerful drive for the mobility of researchers (Appelt et al., 2015).

Other influential decision factors in moving were found to include collaborations, networking, field experts, and research topics. Indeed, networks play an important role in mobility decisions (Delicado, 2010). In other words, researchers use academic mobility to support networking. In particular, it is understood that the mobility experiences of early-career researchers allowed them to obtain opportunities such as co-publishing by expanding their networks. They especially emphasized the different points from the Turkish academic world while explaining their experiences. For example, some participants stated that they better understood how scientific research should be done and gained an epistemological perspective on knowledge production in research. While another researcher compared the research culture in the country, they visited to that of Turkey; they underlined the inadequacy of the scientific research culture in Turkey and the lack of conducting scientific research mentoring. A participant's experiences in Germany related to the need for researchers to use critical thinking skills as a means of reflection are very interesting. Most of the researchers stated that they gained a lot of experience in the country they visited regarding the question, "How to conduct scientific research?" and gained an epistemological perspective on knowledge production in research.

In this context, it is seen that the participants are building a better career for their future. At the same time, a successful academic career requires collaborating with reputable researchers, publishing in internationally recognized scientific journals, and attending important international conferences in their field (Wohlert et al., 2016). It is known that earning a doctoral degree from a top institution significantly increases the likelihood that a researcher will be accepted as a visiting scholar by renowned institutions.

Furthermore, as seen in this study, the mobility experience of international early-career researchers affected the decision to be mobile in the following years. The researchers believe that they will collect the fruits of their international mobility experiences in the future, especially when they return to Turkey, as they will become scientific researchers who will make a difference in their field. Parallel to this finding, Puustinen-Hopper's (2005) research on doctoral mobility concluded that "personal connections play a central role in the recruitment of researchers and doctoral students" (p.21).

Another interesting yet not surprising finding is that doctoral advisors play a key role in encouraging their students to seek opportunities abroad and new networks and are usually the first "trigger" for an outward movement (Ackers et al., 2007). In the current study, one participant stated that his doctoral advisor encouraged him to move abroad. Avveduto's (2001) research highlights the role a doctoral student's networks play in subsequent transition and location decisions. Similarly, in the current study, it was seen that the supporter behind the motivation of a participant and the person who contributed to the decision was the thesis advisor.

Thirdly, internationalization in higher education includes a complex set of initiatives that provide researchers with opportunities to gain a global perspective and acquire intercultural skills that can increase human capital (Costello, 2018). Human capital development includes many components such as educational experiences abroad, international research, and partnerships (Hayward & Siaya, 2001). One of these is international mobility experiences. It is seen that the effect of the participants' overseas mobility experiences on their current international activities is positive. The international mobility

of the participants is positively associated with international teaching, research cooperation, and information dissemination. Previous studies also support this result (e.g. Rostan & Höhle, 2014).

On the other hand, early-career researchers, who are naturally the central element of human and intellectual capital in universities, are the subject of this. In this context, one of the most significant investments to be made for early-career researchers is to encourage them to be internationally mobile. As a matter of fact, international mobility provides early-career researchers with opportunities and contributes to the establishment of professional and often long-term international networks (Bauder, 2015). The exposure of early-career researchers who are involved in internationalization activities in higher education to international experiences contributes to their professional development; in other words, it can contribute to the developmental processes of human capital. Participation in and observation of the courses, authoring joint papers, collaboration, mindset and vision, and research culture all created opportunities they otherwise might not have had. Participants also received the opportunity to learn teaching methods, techniques, and strategies in different countries.

Another issue emphasized by the participants was the high quality of higher education, productivity, openness to interdisciplinary research, and positive opinions of researchers in the host country regarding the scientific research culture. In particular, some participants stated that they better understood how scientific research should be done and gained an epistemological perspective on the production of knowledge in research. Some participants admitted that while developing a reflexive approach to their

experiences, their epistemological and cultural perspectives on knowledge production also changed.

On the other hand, some researchers stated that the experiences abroad contributed not only to their professional development but also to their personal development. In a study conducted by Avveduto (2001), many students emphasized that several difficulties, such as differences in methods and approaches encountered abroad, became benefits on their return home. In the same study, they declared that the advantages provided by academic mobility are highly scientific and educational. Many previous studies have shown that international mobility has a positive effect on career and professional development (Oosterbeek & Webbink, 2011; Wiers-Jenssen, 2008). The current study shows that the participation of early-career researchers in international mobility contributes to their professional development and academic vision.

Another contribution academic mobility had to their academic career was the important relationships they established during their stay and their ability to meet with leading researchers. More importantly, many of them are still collaborating with the researchers they met (e.g. Puustinen-Hopper, 2005).

Additionally, educated people are the dominant forces of knowledge and an essential factor in developing knowledge economies (Vidotto et al., 2017). In connection to this, the participants stated that they participated in international mobility to improve their academic knowledge and qualifications, develop their networks, and increase their cooperation. This result is an indication that the participants have invested in their careers and thus acted in line with the human capital theory.

Finding is that the participation of researchers in the early years of their careers in international mobility contributes to both their professional development and their academic vision. International mobility seems to positively affect the professional development of academicians. In addition, professional development, development of language competence, communication with international colleagues, establishing collaborations, and developing networks through partnerships are other contributions of international mobility.

Finally, the challenges encountered by the international researchers while they were abroad were gathered under four main categories. The participants talked about challenges they faced in their academic, economic, political, and socio-cultural lives. Most of the participants talked about challenges they faced with language, bureaucracy, lack of funds, and the political relations between countries. Numerous studies have shown that "funding" is the main obstacle to the mobility of researchers (Ivancheva & Gourova, 2011; Lezzerini & Hanks, 2016). It is also believed that providing funds for researchers to participate in international academic mobility will indirectly benefit from increasing future mobility (Netz & Jaksztat, 2014; Saint-Blancat, 2018). Similarly, according to Wulz and Rainer (2015), the main challenge for mobile students is related to financial conditions. Another interesting yet not surprising finding is that the researchers stated language to be another important source of problems. Previous research supported this finding of the current study (Ivancheva & Gourova, 2011).

Conclusion

The current study investigated the meaning attributed by early-career researchers to academic mobility, the sources of

motivation for mobility, the difficulties and opportunities faced by these researchers during their academic activities.

The contribution of academic mobility to researchers in the early stage of their careers is remarkable. It is understood that most push-pull factors shape the mobility motivations of researchers in the early years of their careers. In particular, it is understood that the conditions in Turkey are effective in the participation of researchers in international mobility at the start of their careers. It would be appropriate to learn about the experiences of the early-career researchers in the mobility process, especially their "research experiences," and to make arrangements in internationalization by taking these into account. In this context, the current study is of great importance in terms of offering better opportunities to researchers seeking international research experience in Turkey.

As a result, perhaps the most important implication of this study is that conducting scientific activities abroad is considered to be extremely positive for researchers. The early-career researchers stated that they better understood how scientific research should be done and gained an epistemological perspective on the production of knowledge in research. This study reveals that international early-career researchers increase their awareness of the opportunities they obtain if they are supported in this understanding. The findings obtained in this study show that mobility experiences abroad contributed to the participants' career journeys, academic perspectives, and academic cultures. In this context, the current study is of great importance as it provides better opportunities for researchers who want to understand the international research experience in Turkey.

In conclusion, I hope that the results of this study will raise awareness about the need to support early-career researchers. It is believed that if researchers in the early years of their careers are supported, their awareness of the opportunities they gain will increase. In line with these inferences, the following suggestions can be made within the framework of the limitations of this study:

- Seminars can be organized for early career researchers to increase awareness about "academic mobility" and encourage them.
- Support funds can be increased for researchers in academic mobility.

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Leadership Expectations of Generation Z Teachers Working in Educational Organizations

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Abstract

Generation Z, known as millennial children, includes those born from 1995 to 2010, the period when the Internet and social networks became widely used, global communication increased, tolerance was given to different cultural elements, and there was flexibility. The aim of the present research was to establish the leadership expectations of teachers belonging to Generation Z working in educational organizations in the context of school principals. In this context, focus group interviews consisting of semi structured questions were conducted with thirteen teachers from Generation Z currently working in public schools in our research conducted with a phenomenological design. Considering the findings, the leadership expectations of the Generation Z teachers in the behavior sub-theme of inclusivity involved sincerity, flexibility, warm communication, horizontal relationship, consistent behavior, supportive behavior, motivating, problem solving, and smiling. In the sub-theme of

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competencies, they focused on innovations, communication skills, technological competence, mentoring, competence in the field, being solution-oriented, being a researcher, taking initiative, financial management skills, and entrepreneurship competencies. In the values sub-theme, they included being fair and compassionate, altruistic attitude, respect for differences, sensitivity, patience, empathy, and openness to criticism. In the sub-theme of characteristics, they focus on being charismatic and democratic, openness to innovations and teamwork, analytical skills, project orientation, and determination.

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Introduction

Various developments such as the revolutions in the field of information and technology that have occurred in the history of humanity affect the perspectives of generations on life and society. These changes have led to the naming of the process including the lifestyles of individuals born and brought up in the period of change. Thus, the historical process and the relevant literature revealed that different names have been used in the categorization and timing of generations.

What is Generation Z?

Generation is used to describe a cohort that experiences the same social and cultural conditions, feeds on the same technological

knowledge, and is based on historicity. In generational definitions, emphasis is placed on a sociological context beyond a biological reference. Reference is made to the difference between the elements that shape the social context based on the relationship with one another, such as working together, living, communicating, consumption habits, and decision-making (McCrindle & Wolfinger, 2010). The generation definition associates and determines the events and cultural context of the period with those born in that period and emphasizes the differences between them and other generations. In a sense, the definition of generation has the purpose of describing the context (Kohnová, Papula, & Salajová, 2021).

Generation Z (the Millennials) includes those born between 1995-1997 and 2010, who are known as the millennium children, and the period comprised the extensive use of the Internet and social networks, increase in global communication, tolerance to different cultural factors and the existence of flexibility and online environments (social networks, blogs, forums, etc.) affecting life significantly. This period, which involves those who were born between the beginning of the 2010s and the end of 2020, reveals new understandings of education and new individual expectations and a high level of technology affecting all the aspects of the life of the individual, and they are called the *Alpha Generation* (Andrea, Gabriella, & Tímea, 2016; Csobanka, 2016).

Characteristics of Generation Z

According to Oeken (2018), Generation Z individuals spend considerable time in communication and socialization with environmental elements (such as friends, peers), are successful in multitasking, and can do many things at the same time using technology. Because they have an entrepreneurial spirit, they are

willing to start a new business enterprise, they value their personal development and education within the framework of their desire to learn continuously, they come to the forefront with their helpful personality in doing favors, they use digital technologies (especially phones) intensively, they enjoy face-to-face communication despite being digital, and because they use information technologies a lot their attention span is short and they have difficulty concentrating.

According to Tari (2011), Generation Z individuals exhibit narcissistic characteristics that prioritize their personal interests. These narcissistic traits are also apparent in the weak relationships they have with their families. Individuals of this generation, who care more about the opinions of their peers, are weak in terms of emotional intelligence.

Generation Z individuals do not define themselves with a single identity and therefore have an ambiguous identity; thus, they do not express themselves via a single stereotype and experience different ways of being themselves. However, these individuals have a personality structure that supports less conflict and more dialogue; thus, they respect differences in opinion that are contrary to their personal values, including their own institutions and organizations, without rejecting them, and can easily establish a dialogue with traditional views and beliefs without compromising their personal beliefs. In this context, they do not completely reject what is contradictory to them, but pragmatically show an interest in what is meaningful. However, Generation Z individuals exhibit realistic behaviors and think more pragmatically and analytically in decision-making than previous generations and, in this sense, these individuals use independent learning methods more and try to control

environmental conditions by internalizing online information in a short time (Francis & Hoefel, 2018).

According to Balan and Vreja (2018), Generation Z individuals have a more optimistic point of view in terms of life expectations compared to other generations, and these individuals have a stronger belief that their expectations can be realized. According to Balan and Vreja (2018), the future expectations of Generation Z are as follows: (1) achieving goals, (2) financial security, (3) continuing education, (4) freedom of speech, (5) bequeathing to the future, and (6) a desire to own a home, in that order. Looking at gender differences, "achieving goals" ranks first in both groups, while men prioritize financial security and women prioritize continuing their education. However, while some researchers (Crunch, 2015; Howe, 2014) state that Generation Z is more concerned with job continuity or job security, some other researchers (Bernier, 2015) state that these individuals are more concerned about job fit, which involves the job suiting their abilities and skills, rather than job security and safety. These results contain important clues that will require organizations to change their human resource management strategies in terms of future workforce potential and characteristics. Generation Z individuals tend to be more sensitive to opportunities and adversities that often arise in the context of the market. This generation, which does not hesitate to reveal their own wishes and prioritizes jobs and work environments compatible with their qualifications, has high expectations in terms of making themselves visible (Silva Sousa, & Colauto, 2021).

In the research on Generation Z in Turkey, it has been revealed that individuals of this generation tend to continue their higher education in order to find a job abroad. However, it is seen that the uncertainty about finding a job creates anxiety and cynicism. In

addition, Generation Z individuals in Turkey, similar to their peers in other countries, attach importance to concepts such as freedom, success, respect, justice, happiness, love, and inner peace. Having a contradictory view in terms of consumption habits, Generation Z individuals in Turkey tend to use new consumer goods on the one hand, while tending to use second-hand goods more than their parents on the other (Tarı-Kasnakoğlu, Türe, & Kalender, 2020).

Generation Z and Business Life

Various organizational qualities of Generation Z also stand out. These individuals come to the forefront with their selective qualities in terms of whether demands are compatible with their careers rather than meeting the demands of any person in the organizational context. In this context, intrinsic motivation motivates them to take action, while Generation Z also embodies a significant entrepreneurial spirit and desire to change the world. However, the most important goals of these individuals in the organizational framework are to provide work/life balance and stability at work (Andrea et al., 2016). In this context, organizational leaders should consider the characteristics of Generation Z within the framework of organizational functioning and organizational goals.

According to Seemiller and Grace (2018), Generation Z individuals gradually enter and adapt to working life with age. For this reason, from the point of view of labor organizations, it is important to know the characteristics and expectations of this generation. Flippin (2017) found in her research that Generation Z individuals care more about "happiness" and give greater priority to it than other values such as health, relationships with family and friends, career, financial security, and faith. Generation Z is influenced by the motivations that manifest themselves in the psychosocial context. Economic and

organizational managerial motivations come after psychosocial motivations (Çevik & Deniz, 2021). In terms of gender, the research revealed that men care more about happiness and women care more about relationships, and the concept of faith was in last place for both genders. In her research, Flippin (2017) also focused on the professional values of Generation Z and determined six professional values in order of priority. According to her research, Generation Z prioritizes values such as (1) playing their current roles well, (2) making more money, (3) work/life balance, (4) getting a promotion, (5) career change, and (6) retirement, in that order. This result exhibits that the desire of Generation Z to play their professional roles better precedes their motivation to earn more money. Gender differences reveal that men prioritize earning more money and women prioritize being successful in their current roles.

In the organizational context, the expectations of Generation Z individuals from managers or leaders may differ from those of other generations. For example, according to Bresman and Rao (2021), the majority of Generation Z individuals expect more motivating behaviors from their managers and leaders in their organizations compared to other generations. At the same time, these individuals feel uneasy about being unsuccessful and therefore they feel anxiety about the leadership roles in the organization. This necessitates today's leaders to change their understanding to inspire their followers. According to Bresman and Rao (2021), another factor that raises concerns and creates expectations for Generation Z is the work/life balance in the organization; thus, today's organizations with a high level of awareness have to look for a variety of ways to find balance between the job and the individual to increase the productivity of the personnel and raising the quality of results. For this reason, organizational leaders need to understand the differences in workforce

expectations between generations, and this awareness enables better management of workforce potential.

Among the organizational expectations of Generation Z is supportive leadership. In the organizational environment where supportive leadership is exhibited, the working motivation and working time of the individuals increase, the honor of the employees is nourished in the leadership practices where the needs and expectations of the individuals are recognized and attempts are made to meet them, and that kind of environment makes the organization healthy by encouraging high performance (Jenkins, 2019).

In this sense, generational differences in organizations affect many organizational dimensions from organizational culture to performance. For this reason, organizational leaders need to adjust their leadership perspectives according to the characteristics of this generation (Craen, 2019). In this context, organizational leaders should consider some issues while leading their Generation Z teams. These points to consider (Craen, 2019) are as follows: (1) Since Generation Z uses technology effectively, organizational leaders embrace technology and technological developments and use them in communication and feedback processes, (2) Generation Z individuals are willing to be promoted due to their personality structure, which is oriented to learning and success, and therefore their individual and professional development must be encouraged, disseminating the culture of learning in organizational processes, (3) due to high digital fluency, rapid information sharing, a rapid impact creation environment, and the speed of Generation Z to adapt to this environment, organizational leaders have to be accessible, have good knowledge of technology, and act instantaneously in processes such as decision-making and feedback by using technology. According to

Sumitani (2020), on the other hand, to direct Generation Z personnel to organizational efficiency and organizational goals and to reveal, retain, and manage the talents of these individuals, organizational leaders need to (1) create a work environment in which these individuals find value, (2) encourage collaboration, (3) provide continuous feedback, (4) use multiple communication channels, and (5) maintain a work/life balance. Similar to Sumitani (2020), Regan (2020) emphasizes that Generation Z should not be regarded only as a digital generation and that this generation attaches more importance to face-to-face relationships and indicates that collaborative and team spirit-based practices should be increased in organizational processes. At the same time, according to Regan (2020), the individuals of this generation are sensitive to negative behaviors such as corruption and dishonesty in the organizational environment and, therefore, she refers to the need for organizational leaders to be transparent.

The research by Aguas (2019) on how Generation Z defines leadership or leaders exhibited that the expectations of Generation Z about leadership focus on being effective, result-oriented, a role model, a servant, a communicator, having the ability to develop his/her followers, giving confidence, activating the institution and its followers, and being visionary. According to Bresman and Rao (2018), Generation Z individuals expect more positive attitudes and clear goals from their managers. According to the Workforce Institute (2019), on the other hand, Generation Z expects constructive and direct feedback from leaders, hands-on training, employee opinions to be valued, freedom to work independently, clearly defined expectations, and supportive management.

Within the framework of all these evaluations, the number of teachers who are members of Generation Z and their appointments

have been increasing in educational organizations in recent years. Thus, according to 2017 data, 49.3 percent of teachers are under the age of 35 in Turkey (Hürriyet Newspaper, February 3, 2017); therefore, it is important to obtain the opinions of Generation Z teachers about their principals and to reveal their expectations. In this context, the aim in the present study is to determine the expectations of Generation Z teachers working in public schools from school principals, who are in the position of school leaders, and their leadership. Hence, answers to the following questions were sought in the study:

1. What are the perceptions and views of Generation Z teachers about the managerial understanding in educational organizations?
2. What are the expectations of Generation Z teachers from administrators in educational organizations?
3. What are the general leadership perceptions and views of Generation Z teachers?

Method

Research Design

In the research, the phenomenology design was employed to learn the leadership expectations of Generation Z teachers about school principals. This design is widely used in research, especially when the interview method is used, to extract universal meanings from the interviews and perform the analysis (Padgett, 2017). According to Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007) and Creswell (2013), perceptions, meanings, and experiences in the subjective consciousness of individuals about various phenomena can be revealed through the phenomenology design.

The focus group interview method, which is one of various interview methods, was used to collect data about the case discussed in the study. According to Krueger and Casey (2000), focus group interviews should be carefully planned, groups should preferably be between 6 and 8 people, an environment should be chosen where the participants feel comfortable, and the researcher should be skilled in group interviews. Basic questions as well as questions that arise during the interview were used to ensure that the participants expressed their opinions on the research topic at an optimal level during the interview. Thus, it was ensured that the research topic was discussed in accordance with the structure of the focus interview. In this context, two focus group interviews consisting of six people each were conducted with the participating teachers.

Focus Group

In the research, the criterion sampling method, which is a purposeful sampling method, was used to determine the participant teacher group. According to Patton (2002), purposive sampling is used in qualitative research to select and identify information-rich situations with limited resources. On the other hand, in criterion sampling, situations that comply with or exceed a certain criterion are selected and determined according to the structure of the research and the phenomenon it addresses (Palinkas et al., 2015). In this context, *"teachers who are currently working in public schools and who are in Generation Z according to their year of birth (1995-2010)"* were used as criteria to determine the participants. An examination of the age range of Generation Z reveals that they are in the 11-26 age range, and some of these individuals, especially those in the 22-26 age range, work as teachers. In this context, focus group interviews were conducted with thirteen teachers who met the criteria in the research. The demographic

information of the participants who make up the study groups is shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1.

Demographic Information of Teachers

Participant Code	Gender	Year of Birth	Age	Field of Study
P1	F	1997	24	Mathematics in Primary Education
P2	M	1996	25	Social Studies
P3	F	1996	25	Mathematics in Primary Education
P4	F	1997	24	Life Sciences
P5	F	1998	23	Mathematics in Primary Education
P6	M	1997	24	English
P7	M	1996	25	Social Studies
P8	F	1998	23	Life Sciences
P9	F	1997	24	Turkish
P10	M	1998	23	Turkish
P11	F	1997	24	Class Teacher
P12	M	1998	23	Religion and Ethics
P13	M	1996	25	Visual Arts

As seen in Table 1, seven of the teachers forming the study group are female and six are male. Moreover, four of the teachers are 23 years old, five are 24 years old, and four are 25 years old. Three of the teachers are teachers of Mathematics in Primary Education, two of Social Studies, two of Life Sciences, one of English, two of Turkish, one of Class Teaching, one of Religious Culture, and one of Visual Arts.

Data Collection Tools

In the research, semi-structured and unstructured questions were used to ensure that the participants expressed their opinions on the research topic at an optimal level during the interview. In semi-structured interview questions, questions of 'why' and 'how' are usually asked and the researchers try to learn the opinions, perceptions, and experiences of individuals by using a combination of closed-ended and open-ended questions. However, in such interviews, the interviewer should be ready to spend time and effort, be versatile, and have knowledge about the subject of the interview (Adams, 2015). However, unstructured questions asked to the participants during the interview are not based on a predetermined list of questions, and unwritten and undetermined questions are directed to the participants within the framework of the flow and naturalness of the interview (Sanchez, 2014). In this framework, before the focus group discussions were conducted with the participating teachers, the approval of the participants was obtained, and then the interview process was planned and the application was carried out in line with the interview form. Some of the questions asked to the teachers in the interview form are as follows:

1. How do you think a leader should be like and who is he/she?

2. What kind of behaviors do you expect from school principals as a leader?

3. What kind of values should school principals display in your opinion?

4. What kind of qualifications do you think school principals should have as leaders?

5. What personal characteristics do you think school principals should have as the leader of the school?

Data Collection

The relevant focus group meetings were conducted using online platforms (Zoom etc.) due to the pandemic. The interviews were carried out in the period that the participants requested and agreed to and the interviews were recorded electronically. The interviews with the participants during the research process were held in September and October 2021. Kvale (1996) states that during the interview process the researcher should establish a dialogue with the participants within the framework of trust. For this reason, during the interview process, attention was paid to the confidentiality of the data and, at the same time, sensitivity was shown to ensure that the participants rights were not infringed and their emotional state was not harmed.

Data Analysis

In the research, descriptive analysis was used to analyze the data obtained during the interviews. In the context of qualitative research, descriptive analysis is used to determine the characteristic features of the phenomenon. In this sense, it is a form of analysis that focuses on what happens rather than how and why (Gall, Gall, and Borg, 2007). By examining the data in detail, repetitive codes, themes, and concepts are revealed and categories are defined and interpreted (Nassaji, 2015). The data obtained in the research were firstly transcribed using a word processing program, then the relevant data were analyzed using the

program Maxquda, and the data obtained were coded under various categories and themes. Furthermore, to ensure participant safety, participant names were kept confidential and coded as P1, P2…P10 during the research process and reporting.

Validity and Reliability

Meriam (2018) states that to ensure validity and reliability in qualitative research researchers should be careful about (1) self-criticizing about choosing data suitable for their own subjective thinking, (2) reactivity that can be realized by the participants in the process, (3) confirming the data by the participants, and (4) giving detailed information about the study process. In order to ensure the content validity of the research, the literature was meticulously examined, the opinions of two academics in the field of educational psychology and educational administration were sought regarding the basic questions to be asked in the focus interview, and confirmation questions were asked during the interview to ensure that the interviewees could express themselves correctly. Thus, sufficient details were given about the research process to ensure validity and reliability in the research, and the coding, which was carried out to prevent subjective judgments and interpretations, was checked by another expert. However, to prevent participant reactivity, no intervention was made regarding the participants' opinions during the interview, and the data obtained after the interviews were sent back to the participants to confirm their opinions.

Findings

Within the framework of the research, first of all, the perception of Generation Z teachers towards Generation Z was revealed and then

their leadership expectations in the context of school principals were determined.

Generation Z Perception

When the participating teachers, who are members of Generation Z, were asked how they defined Generation Z individuals, they stated that this generation, which includes them, consists of individuals who are technology-centered, innovative, tolerant of differences, productive, flexible, and demanding, who care about their personal comfort and have digital communication skills.

Teachers (P1, P2, P3) emphasized that technological skills such as digital skills and digital communication are distinctive in defining Generation Z.

> *"When Generation Z is mentioned, I think of a generation that is intertwined with technology and uses technology very often in their lives. Therefore, I think that as a teacher I should follow technology very closely..." (P1)*

> *"...we are talking about a generation that has grown up more intertwined with technology, actually more intermediate. In other words, we are a generation that lacked technology in our youth and childhood and suddenly got technology. And, as you say, the ease of communication with the world pushes us to live life more comfortably." (P2)*

> *"We are definitely in the age of technology and it started to develop completely with us. In other words, it started to make real progress after us...." (P3)*

Teachers (P4, P7, P8) said that Generation Z individuals can tolerate differences, are flexible, care about their comfort, and, at the same time, are productive.

> *"When Generation Z is mentioned, I think of a generation that strives to improve their personal living spaces. I think of a generation that is very concerned with the quality of their personal living spaces, that is, they are more interested in and related to their personal spaces than others..." (P4)*

> *"I think our generation is more innovative compared to previous generations. I think these individuals respect different views..." (P7)*

> *"...I think our generation is a little more productive than previous generations. So, we don't have certain boundaries, we have thoughts on 'what we can do, how we can improve ourselves?'" (P8).*

One teacher (P11) said that one of the most distinguishing features of Generation Z is to adopt a life centered on their freedoms.

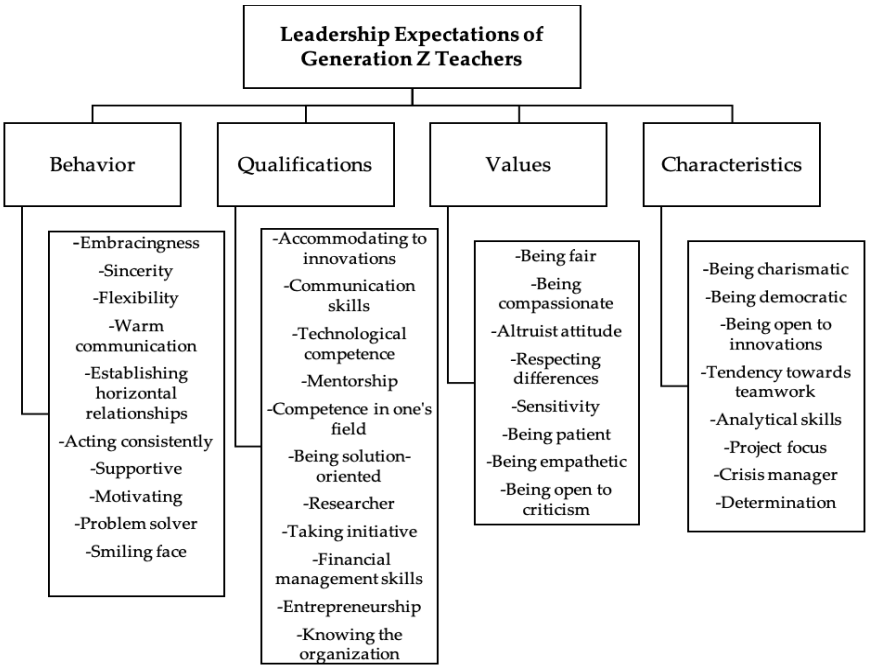
> *"... I think of individuals who are very fond of their freedom. That's why I think we need to provide the best education we can while respecting their areas of freedom." (P11)*

In the analysis based on the qualitative research model developed by Miles and Huberman (1994), data are formatted in a systematic context through reduction. In the coding phase, conceptualizations were created by making inferences on a descriptive basis and then patterns were created between these concepts. Miles

and Huberman's formula ($\Delta = C \div (C + \partial) \times 100$) was applied to ensure the reliability of the coding conducted by the researchers. The calculation made according to this formula showed the reliability to be 89%. The themes and codes that emerged at the end of the analysis based on the Miles–Huberman model are shown in Table 2. The views of Generation Z teachers on leadership expectations in the context of school principals exhibit that the obtained opinions and codes come together in the sub-themes of "behavior", "qualifications", "values", and "characteristics" within the framework of the literature and research questions.

Table 2.

Themes and Codes Established in Line with the Views of Generation Z Teachers on Leadership Expectations in the Context of the School Principal



Behaviors

Considering the views of Generation Z teachers on leadership expectations in the context of school principals, at the level of behavior, embracing, sincerity, flexibility, warm communication, establishing horizontal relationships, acting consistently, being supportive, motivating, problem-solving, and having a smiling face stood out.

Teachers (P3, P1, P6) emphasized that in the context of leadership expectations school principals should have embracing behaviors that do not exclude anyone, emphasize horizontal relationships, can communicate with all stakeholders and problem areas, and be flexible.

> *"First of all, in general, a leader should be embracing. In other words, they should be able to embrace everyone, be self-confident, flexible, and understanding. These are general characteristics. When we look at the leader as a manager, I think they should be mostly flexible, they should be smiling, understanding, and distant because if they are very sincere, things can go wrong. They should be able to maintain balance…" (P3).*

> *"…on teachers' day, the principal can come to our room and celebrate it, even if it is just a short expression of wishes. People look forward to special days because we are colleagues; we are in the same school. It's a small event; we can all have a cup of tea together. The principal can come and speak to us not only on teachers' day, even during breaktimes." (P6)*

Teachers (P2, P5, P10) also stated that they expect behaviors that emphasize the authenticity of human relations, warm communications, sincerity, and smiles from school administrators.

> *"Actually, as I said, when we see a gesture or facial expression, it is better if it is warm as a greeting. As I said, I saw three principals. One of our principals was unkind, for example, he created a feeling of tension in the other party. He used to look sincere in some other way and we had to smile at him or not be afraid when we go to him." (P2)*

> *"In behavioral terms, I expect the principal to be smiling. It is very important not to enter their room hesitantly when we are going to discuss something, and to know that they will listen to us...." (P5)*

> *"They should be one of us. That is, they should be someone who knows us well and knows our problems well..." (P10)*

Teachers (P12, P5) expect school principals to support them, to contribute to finding solutions to their problems, and to be motivated in overcoming the difficulties they encounter, their need to establish a work/life balance, and internalize organizational processes.

> *"While the teachers are making an extra effort in the field, I think the paperwork should be reduced and brought to a minimum. That is, it should not tire the teacher. It should be a facilitator." (P12)*

> *"The principal should be practical and solution-oriented. Since there are many different students every day, we may encounter a lot of problems or there may be a problem between students and teachers. They should know how to behave in the face of any unexpected situation." (P5)*

Another behavior that participant teachers (P3, P6) expect from school principals is consistency. Participants expect school principals to exhibit consistent behaviors in their decisions, interpersonal relations, and organizational processes.

> *"They should be able to keep their word and keep their promises. When they give a morning speech to both students and teachers and say that 'we are aiming for these for the school this year', they need to achieve those goals as soon as possible. They should be consistent." (P6)*

> *"....one of the most important characteristics of a leader is that when they make a decision they have to stand behind it until the end, good or bad, because I think that when a person hesitates, trust in that person decreases." (P3)*

Qualifications

Considering the views of Generation Z teachers on leadership expectations in the context of school principals, at the level of qualifications, the codes of communication skills, technological competence, mentoring ability, competence in the field, knowing the organization, being solution-oriented, taking initiative, financial management skills, entrepreneurship, and being a researcher were observed.

Teachers (P4, P9, P1, P6, P8, P13) emphasized that school principals should adapt to innovations, know the organization, and have technological competencies and communication skills.

> *"For example, the current Generation Z and the generation that comes after us, especially our younger ones, are very fond of social media. They use social media*

very actively. When we look at those closest, many activities, even in our school, are shared on social media; even Instagram is used for this. Students follow the events and themselves and their successes. Awards are given and these awards are shared. Or they can see themselves there with their names and pictures when they rank first. I mean I think they like it. I think that the principals who apply this keep pace with this generation" (P4).

"They should be able to follow not only technology but also the developing age. They should be able to keep up with the times. They should be able to keep up with cultural changes" (P9).

"When it is considered on a school basis, I think that the principal should know the school opportunities and the cultural structure of the students well..." (P1).

"The people after us are those who know how to settle for less, but ours is a generation that wants more and chases after their dreams. Of course, we are better off in terms of technology. There are still people who use it, of course, but our mothers and fathers still can't manage too many technological processes and I do that." (P6)

"I think the principal needs to be innovative as our teachers say. That is, that person needs to catch up with the new generation. Because the speed of our principals is not the same as ours due to age. That's why they need to catch up with technology" (P8).

"... in secondary school, the principal in our school was also very open to communication with students and parents in general. Since he did not have a rigid personality in that respect, he was helpful in every matter, and knowing the potential of the school, he was

introducing innovations or projects accordingly. He was very good in that respect." (P13)

Teachers (P11, P2, P8, P12) expect school principals to have mentoring skills, to be competent in their field, to be solution-oriented, to take initiative, and to have financial management skills and entrepreneurial orientation, especially in generating benefits in organizational processes.

"They should be able to take initiative and have the ability to turn their thoughts into action." (P11)

"I think Generation Z needs to be able to encourage its employees or it needs to have an educator personality who can convey their own experiences. Since he/she is a teacher, he/she should be someone who can convey his/her past experiences. Then, as you said, he/she should have financial management and managerial skills, should be assertive or solution-oriented for quick solutions, and not hesitate." (P2)

"I think the leader should be the person who has full knowledge of all matters. The more they have dominance, the easier it will be to lead; therefore, they should be the ones who have full knowledge" (P8).

"For example, Generation Y has advantages and Generation Z does too. I think that each group's advantages or disadvantages should be analyzed and studies should be carried out accordingly. In this way, parents, students, and teachers will get to know each other. In that case, I think progress will be faster and better" (P12).

A teacher (P7) emphasized the research ability of school principals to contribute to school processes.

> *"...The principal should be a researcher too. What is going on throughout the country; what is going on about education…? They should be able to research and contribute to the school in this way" (P7).*

Values

Considering the views of Generation Z teachers on leadership expectations in the context of school principals, at the level of values, the codes of being fair, being compassionate, respecting differences, showing sensitivity, being patient, and being empathetic were observed.

Teachers (P4, P9, P5) emphasized that it is important for school principals to have the values of being fair and compassionate and displaying altruistic attitudes in their relations with people, both inside and outside the organization.

> *"... First of all, I think the principal should treat everyone equally, this is what I want to say at the beginning; they should be conscientious and merciful anyway, they should be fair in the first place..." (P4).*

> *"...I think the most important thing is that justice should come first. If there is trust and respect, love will follow..." (P9).*

> *"I think a principal should have compassion and a conscience and they should act equally. Actually, that's not what I mean by equal; of course, if a person does his/her job better, the principal can treat him/her better. Everyone*

has their own truths and values. These should not be discrimination against the principal. He should be able to approach everyone at an equal distance. I think it is necessary..." (P5).

Teachers (P10, P7, P12, P6) stated that they expect school principals to respect differences be open to criticism, sensitive, patient, and empathetic.

"...He was also a person who tried to improve students not only with success but also with different values. I thought that our principal was good in this respect. I think it is very important that he is open to criticism. The fact that he does not just go his own way but is open to other opinions also makes a principal good" (P10).

"I think that a principal needs to have a high level of empathy to be able to understand a teacher. For example, let's think about a teacher who has just come to school. The principal needs to inform her about the process and direct him/her" (P7).

"Like..., the principal should be patient with teachers, school management, and other employees" (P12).

"...the leader should know what the people in his subgroup want" (P6).

Characteristics

Considering the views of Generation Z teachers on leadership expectations in the context of school principals, at the level of characteristics, the codes of being charismatic, being democratic, being

open to innovations, openness to teamwork, analytical skills, project focus, crisis management, and determination were observed.

Teachers (P5, P13, P9, P2) stated that school principals should be charismatic leaders in problem-solving, have democratic values in relations with people, and be open to teamwork at the point of organizational effectiveness.

> *"... The characteristic that I appreciate about our principal is that our school is crowded and the number of teachers is high, but it is clear that there is teamwork between our principal and vice-principals. I appreciate this characteristic of the principal" (P5).*
>
> *"I think the sense of unity should be high. That is, one should not assume all responsibilities for one thing but transfer responsibilities to someone else. In other words, they should be open to teamwork" (P13).*
>
> *"...In my opinion, the school principal should not be too authoritarian in their relationship with the teachers. He/she should not have an authoritarian attitude. In other words, he/she should not forget that he/she is also a teacher" (P9).*
>
> *"I think a leader should have charisma like Atatürk. He/she should definitely have the charisma of a leader. At the same time, he/she should not be emotional. He/she should follow a logical path, not an emotional one" (P2).*

Teachers (P1, P5) emphasized that school principals should have analytical skills and be project-oriented in organizational processes.

> *"For example, there is a principal, he follows projects, such as TÜBİTAK (the Scientific and Technological Research*

Council of Turkey) ...He does various studies in every field. For example, he asks questions that will attract the attention of students and he does this through social media..." (P1)

"I think school principals should be able to think quickly and analytically, considering Generation Z. They should be open to teamwork" (P5).

Teachers (P7, P6, P10) stated that school administrators should be crisis managers and show determination in overcoming the problems encountered in organizational processes.

"…but I think the principal should be someone who can solve the crisis and act fairly in times of crisis" (P7).

"The principal's communication should definitely be good. I think communication is very important at this point, as the principal will meet teachers, parents, and students. That person should manage crises well because he/she may encounter many problems" (P6).

"...Must be faithful and determined. Be able to implement an idea or project faithfully and be determined" (P10).

Discussion

The results obtained regarding the leadership orientations that Generation Z teachers expect from school principals reveal that these leadership expectations can be collected in four sub-themes (behavior, qualifications, values, and characteristics).

As stated by Andrea et al. (2016) and Csobanka (2016), the sense of embracement and flexibility, which tolerate differences in

particular, constitute the common characteristics of this generation. The participants in the present study similarly emphasized flexibility and inclusiveness. Francis and Hoefel (2018) stated that these individuals prefer inclusive communication ways and, in this context, as this research concluded, Generation Z teachers expect the same behaviors from school leaders. However, as Oeken (2018) states, Generation Z individuals make great efforts in terms of communication and socialization, come to the forefront with their helpful and supportive behaviors, and enjoy sincere and warm communication, especially face-to-face communication. Again, according to Turner (2015), these individuals communicate effectively via social communication networks and want to socially connect and communicate with everyone, including their managers. This determination was reflected in the leader expectations of the Generation Z teachers that emerged as a result of the research, and this generation expected its own characteristics to be present in the leader behaviors as well. At the same time, another issue that Bresman and Rao (2021) stated, which is one of the results of this research and reflected in the expectations of Generation Z teachers, is that they demand motivating behaviors from the leader. Thus, these individuals experience the anxiety of being unsuccessful in the organizations they are in and therefore they desire supportive leader roles (Jenkins, 2019).

Craen (2019) stated that Generation Z uses technology intensively and follows technological developments closely and, especially as determined as a result of the research, Generation Z individuals expect leaders to have this competence and use it in communication and feedback. In the context of qualifications, the characteristics of having a good command of technology, using communication skills, and being an expert in the field, which are

frequently emphasized by the participants in the present research, come to the fore at this point. Again, as Sumitani (2020) stated, Generation Z individuals want leaders to use rich communication channels and, as Aguas (2019) stated, they want their leaders to be role models and effective and to get to know their organization. In addition, according to Andrea et al. (2016), Generation Z has a structure that also attaches importance to entrepreneurial competencies. Thus, an evaluation of the opinions in the literature (Aguas, 2019; Andrea et al., 2016; Craen, 2019; Oeken, 2018; Sumitani, 2020) reveals that the competencies that are in line with the research results are also among the expectations of teachers belonging to Generation Z. However, Kislik (2020) stated that Generation Z individuals are highly invested by their parents, and so mentioned the importance of mentoring and a supportive attitude towards the individuals of this generation as seen in teacher expectations as a result of the research and stated that an orientation that will take place in this direction can motivate these individuals and inspire productivity and growth for them. One of the studies supporting this situation was by McGaha (2018). According to McGaha (2021), Generation Z individuals have a structure that has powerful and effective communication, a positive and embracing culture, and constant guidance and that encourages equality. According to Gabrielova and Buchko (2021), this individual structure prefers and defines a management style that describes transformational leadership. However, within the structural framework of generative leadership structured by Çetin and Demirbilek (2020) and again by Demirbilek and Çetin (2021), there is also a supportive leadership environment aiming to encourage individual freedom, creativity, innovation capacity and communication-based, free, democratic, relaxed and entrepreneurial spirit that supports individuals' potential and supports the comfort

zone of Generation Z. In this respect, it is possible that both transformational leadership and generative leadership offer the leadership that supports Generation Z.

According to the results obtained in the research, Generation Z teachers expect various values related to leadership from school principals. These values are the codes of being fair, being compassionate, respecting differences, sensitivity, being patient, empathy, and being open to criticism. Among these results, it is obvious that especially the attitude of respect for differences and easy dialogue with differences is evident in Generation Z, and the literature supports this (Andrea et al., 2016; Csobanka, 2016; Francis & Hoefel, 2018). Thus, according to Kislik (2020), Generation Z individuals expect their managers to be respected. In this way, as Sumitani (2020) states, leaders need to provide these individuals with a working environment in which they will find value, to observe their work/life balance, and, as Regan (2020) states, the leader must provide the transparency that will make them feel trust and justice. Hence, in their research, Grow and Yang (2018) indicate that Generation Z expects fair and self-confident, calm and constructive, and friendly and open-minded leadership from leaders. The sensitivity and empathy of the leaders acting within this framework will contribute to organizational happiness, as reflected in the expectations of Generation Z teachers from school leaders. Nevertheless, according to Boyle (2021), Generation Z grew up in a more diverse environment than previous generations, and therefore it expects respect, equality, and the sense of embracement from managers, and this state gains ground in their personal identities. At this point, the fact that the Generation Z teachers also have this identity structure has enabled the values that emerged

as a result of the research and reflected on the expectations to be shaped based on justice and respect.

According to Regan (2020), Generation Z individuals attach great importance to face-to-face communication and therefore Regan suggests that leaders should increase collaborative practices. Concordantly, Aguas (2019) states that Generation Z looks for the characteristic of "being team-oriented" in leaders. In the present research, characteristics such as being innovative, being open to teamwork, managing crises, and project-centered thinking about leaders revealed by the participants summarize the view of the leader–follower relationship in terms of Generation Z. However, as Francis and Hoefel (2018) stated, Generation Z individuals value different opinions, even those inconsistent with their personal values, support dialogue, and do not use rejecting language. They also harbor a democratic understanding that values freedom of speech (Balan & Vreja, 2018). Again, as Kislik (2020) states, these individuals attach great importance to the freedom to work, and the provision of the conditions for what they want to do by leaders makes them happy. This situation can be evaluated as a reflection of the democratic consciousness process in their generation structure as an expectation of the characteristics of the leaders. A similar situation is seen in analytical skills as well. Thus, according to Tari (2011) Generation Z individuals can multitask, this ability is also reflected in the expectations of Generation Z teachers for leaders, and the same analytical skills are expected from school leaders.

Conclusion

As seen in the results of the research, Generation Z describes itself as individuals that are technology-centered, innovative, tolerant

of differences, productive, flexible, caring about personal comfort, and demanding and have digital communication skills. The main factor that led to this result can be explained by the fact that the period in which the generation entered the growing process covered a process during which communication tools, social networks, technology, digital elements, and interaction were intense (Andrea et al., 2016; Csobanka, 2016). The expectations of the teachers belonging to Generation Z from authority, which can be defined as the school principal or leader in the schools where they work, are mostly shaped within the framework of the characteristics of the generation. For this reason, school principals recognizing the characteristics of the generation of teachers and other education stakeholders, who will be more intensively involved in the education processes in the future, and taking into account the expectations of this generation will have beneficial results in terms of organizational efficiency.

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