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Culturally Relevant Leadership: Bridging the Equity Gap

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Abstract

The study aims to examine in depth the culturally relevant leadership behavior tendencies of school leaders to prevent inequalities in schools with high refugee student population in Türkiye. We utilized phenomenology in this qualitative research study. We gathered the data via face-to-face semi-structured interviews with 14 school leaders and used both descriptive and content analysis in the process of analyzing the data. The components of "personal awareness", "equity pedagogy", "policy mediation" and "professionalism" constituted the themes of the research. The views of school leaders revealed that the methods and strategies in eliminating the prejudice, exclusion, and xenophobia against refugee students are insufficient, and these problems lead the inequalities for refugee students in school context. Based on the findings of the study, we suggest that multicultural educational management approaches need to be promoted, and so the training programs and good practice examples from different contexts experienced in such practices should be followed.

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Introduction

Today, the cultural and social context of schools is evolving faster than ever before (Bauman, 2020) and this crisis in education necessitates a more realistic understanding than the salad bowl and melting pot metaphors (Fraise & Brooks, 2015). What needs to be emphasized is that when we go by the situation through the lens of Kant's cosmopolitan citizenship (Benhabib, 2018), is it possible for today's schools to integrate students who have diverse cultural backgrounds while maintaining their separate identities? Undoubtedly, the encounter of students from diverse cultures, languages, ethnicities, and religious belief brings both richness and complexity (Banks, 2017) to our classrooms. Research showed that the refugee flows' complexity could be increased through deeper and more empathetic methods in terms of policy and school level practice and leadership (Arar, 2020; Brown et al., 2019).

In this context, culturally relevant leadership (CRL) improves school culture by recognizing the cultural and ethnic identity of each student and by challenging hegemonic social structures (Arar, 2020; Beachum, 2011; Horsford, Grosland, & Gunn, 2011; Ladson-Billings, 1995). CRL theory seeks to unearth and elucidate the ways in which the educators could address the exclusive learning needs of students in minority groups (Khalifa et al., 2016). Especially, when migration to Western countries is taken into consideration, the reflection of this mobility on schools and education poses several challenges. For

instance, on average in 2018, %13 of 15-year-old students were classified as having a 'migrant background' in OECD countries, and in most countries, the most of these students tended to be socio-economically disadvantaged (OECD, 2018). This means that the only chance of these students for effective school opportunities is the school environment offered by the host countries. In this context, the potential role that schools in Turkey, which have provided housing to 3.5 million Syrians, can play in preventing educational inequalities is quite significant on a societal level (UNHCR, 2023).

The research on CRL has tended to focus on some areas like school culture and environment (Fraisie & Brooks, 2015), instructional and transformational leadership (Arar et al., 2019; Marshall & Khalifa, 2018), critical self-reflection (Ezzani & Brooks, 2018), synthesis of the literature (Khalifa et al., 2016), and conceptualize a framework for CRL (Horsford et al., 2011; Lopez, 2016). However, given the nature of CRL as a challenge to the status quo and dominant power systems, it is obvious that the findings on the activist side of CRL are not very common in the literature. Therefore, the role of school leaders as CRL in policy implementation and their approach to taking initiatives during the integration of diversities into host country education need to be examined in depth. Based on the literature and his previous works, Arar (2020) has combined a synthesized model of CRL which consists of four main components as personal awareness, inclusive pedagogy, policy mediation and leader professionalism. By focusing on this model, we aim to explore the school leaders' role in building bridges between multiple cultures and making the educational environment more effective to increase equal opportunities for the displaced children. Considering the tendencies of immigration, as Bogotch (2002) states the tension that migration creates for schools

must be addressed in a human rights and social justice context. Therefore, such a research is expected to be seminal for educators and educational policy makers. The purpose of the study is to reveal the culturally relevant leadership behavior tendencies of school leaders in order to prevent inequalities in school settings with high refugee student population.

The educational context for Syrian students in Türkiye

The ongoing mass influx of refugees from Syria to Turkey for nearly a decade (Atalay et al., 2022) has created challenges in establishing a homogenous classroom environment. Since Turkey, by placing a geographical reservation on the Geneva Convention, has prevented granting 'refugee' status to non-European asylum seekers, the applicable form of international protection provided to the majority of Syrian refugees in Turkey is commonly referred to as 'temporary protection' (Erdoğan, 2019). Despite terminology differences, we refer to the focal group in our study as "refugees" to avoid confusion. With approximately 3.5 million registered Syrian refugees, Turkey remains the top host country globally, highlighting its significant role in the global refugee crisis (UNHRC, 2023). The influx of migration from Syria since 2011 has prompted adjustments and planning within the Turkish Education System. The number of Syrians under temporary protection in Türkiye has risen from 14,237 in 2012 to 3,366,185 as of June 1, 2023 (Presidency of Migration Management, 2023). Syrians constitute the largest group of school-age children (5-17) among the foreign population in Türkiye, with 1,124,000 children, of which 65 percent attend school and 35 percent do not receive an education according to the Ministry of National Education's report from January 2022 (MoNE, 2022).

The initial stages of the Syrian refugee influx into Türkiye, educational authorities did not place a high priority on Syrian children learning Turkish (Tezel McCarthy, 2018). Additionally, the educational programs mostly targeted the Syrians' camp neighborhoods rather than the Syrians of school age living outside of these camps (Aras & Yasun, 2016). During the initial years, several reasons can be identified for Syrian students being unable to attend school during the compulsory education period. These reasons include the perception of their stay in Türkiye as 'temporary', economic concerns leading to boys being compelled to work, capacity limitations of schools, cultural differences resulting in girls not being sent to school, and concerns surrounding assimilation (Aras & Yasun, 2016; Erdoğan, 2019). In 2014, the Turkish Government enacted laws and regulations to support education for refugee students, and in 2016, they secured financial assistance from the European Union for this purpose (OECD, 2020). Additionally, the Migration and Emergency Education Department was established within the MoNE to facilitate the implementation of this roadmap (Erdoğan, 2019).

Promoting social integration and normalcy among refugee children requires their active engagement with non-migrant peers (Canaz & Küçüker, 2019), and schools play a crucial role in facilitating these interactions by providing opportunities for the host society to familiarize themselves with foreign cultures. Since 2014, the Turkish government has implemented more inclusive measures to integrate Syrian students into the education system, recognizing the importance of such interactions. However, educational leaders often lack the necessary preparation to effectively engage with culturally diverse individuals and establish inclusive learning environments (Lopez, 2008) that foster respect, tolerance, and intercultural understanding,

which is particularly important in a rapidly changing society characterized by significant demographic and linguistic diversity. Above all, to foster the redirection of education policies and practices towards the education and well-being of refugee students, it is imperative that both national and global contexts embrace more equitable and culturally responsive approaches (Akın-Sabuncu & Kasapoğlu, 2023).

Why cultural relevance matters ?

The global movement of refugees due to various reasons has had a significant impact on migration patterns, leading to a diverse population in terms of ethnicity, race, social class, language, religion, and other identities (Lopez, 2016). Western societies have differing views on managing migration and diversity, with some expressing exclusionary attitudes towards refugees. This is evident in political rhetoric and media portrayal, contributing to debates on refugee policy centered around nationalism, racism, and xenophobia (Arar 2020; McIntyre & Hall, 2018; Welphy, 2022). The rise of right-wing populist parties and exclusionary discourse towards refugees (Bauman, 2020; Benhabib, 2018) emphasize the importance of examining the role of public institutions, particularly education, in promoting democratic participation and capabilities (Welphy, 2022).

Schools and education play a crucial role in the discussions surrounding migration and inclusive policies. However, there is a tendency to avoid explicit use of the term 'cultural diversity' within schools, instead indirectly referring to it as 'increasing challenges' in the teaching field (Herzog-Punzerberger et al., 2020). This calls for further examination and clarification of how schools respond to cultural diversity, particularly in classroom settings. It is important to develop innovative approaches to education that effectively address

diversity, allowing students from different backgrounds to have a positive learning experience (Lopez, 2016). While schools aim to integrate refugee students into society, they also contribute to perpetuating inequalities through assimilation and reproduction (Welphy, 2022). Educational leaders should take on greater responsibility in combating these inequalities. By fostering awareness and actively challenging discriminatory practices, schools can create an environment that promotes equal opportunities, human rights, and the foundational principles of equality (Brown et al., 2019).

Culturally Relevant Leadership at Schools

Culturally Relevant Leadership (CRL) is grounded in social justice leadership as both stance and praxis (Arar, 2020) because it aims to achieve a holistic model that will address students' educational, cultural, and socio-economic differences (Ezzani & Brooks, 2019; Horsfold et al., 2011; Khalifa et al., 2016). CRL, which is a principal element of social justice efforts in education, takes its roots from Ladson-Billings' (1992) culturally responsive pedagogy and Gay's (1994) culturally responsive teaching (Arar & Oplatka, 2022; Khalifa et al., 2016).

In a school with a pedagogy that values cultural differences and empowers each student socially, intellectually, politically, and emotionally (Ladson-Billings, 1992), educational leaders seek to understand the historical context and experiences of students and support diverse learning styles through a flexible pedagogy (Ezzani & Brooks, 2019). In this respect, it is recognized as "an attempt to create a schooling experience that enables to students to pursue academic excellence without abandoning their cultural integrity" (Arar & Oplatka, 2022, p. 65). In other words, it supports building new dynamics instead of assimilation that suppresses students' identities

(Lopez, 2016). Another concept which CRL derives is Gay's culturally responsive teaching (Aronson & Laughter, 2016). Gay (2015) argues against political or cultural domination by any ethnic group and advocates for cultural, ethnic, social, and linguistic pluralism. Culturally relevant teaching aims to make classroom content and context relevant to students' cultural experiences (Gay, 2018), increasing academic achievement by embracing differences such as culture, language, race, and ethnicity among students. For this reason, being culturally relevant can be characterized as the ability to think and learn in a manner that respects cultural differences in meaning-making, values, and belief systems, while also demonstrating sensitivity, awareness, and acknowledgement of these variations (Nortvedt et al., 2020).

In the literature, there are a couple of models for CRL that addresses and focuses on different tendencies of leadership (Beachum, 2011; Fraise & Brooks, 2015; Horsfold et al., 2011; Khalifa et al., 2016; Lopez, 2016; Ryan, 2015). For instance, CRL model proposed by Horsfold et al. (2011) focuses four constituents: a pedagogic approach, a personal journey, a political context and professional commitment (Arar, 2020). Similarly, Khalifa et al. (2016) discusses three components of CRL, which include self-reflection on leadership behavior, supporting teachers in building an inclusive school environment, and addressing the diverse needs of learners. On the other hand, Lopez (2016) who inspired by Freire, argues for CRL on the notion of conscientization which depends on the building the school capacity on issues collaboration, reflection, and agency. To Lopez (2016), school leaders should make existing inequitable practices questionable.

Depending on his previous studies with colleagues (Arar et al.2019, 2020), the CRL model proposed by Arar consists of four main

components as "personal awareness, inclusive pedagogy, policy mediation, and leader professionalism" (Arar 2020, p.173). Arar (2020) points out that previous models have not emphasized the importance of developing emotional awareness in leaders. As emotions and cultural understanding are an interrelated pattern (Arar & Oplatka, 2022), it is critical that the school leader has the emotional awareness and self-reflection skills to recognize the vulnerabilities of both refugee and host country students (Arar, 2020). The second component of Arar's (2020) synthesized CRL model emphasizes inclusive education practices to ensure social cohesion and integration of students and society. As Kincheloe (2018) states, a pedagogical tendency that is removed from the social, cultural, and economic, political context will deepen the existing social stratification in society. Therefore, "it is not enough to build a program around supposedly depoliticized taco days, falafels, and Martin Luther King's birthday" (Kincheloe, 2018, p. 51). Education practices that value the differences and do not ignore 'the other' should be formed. In Arar's (2020) model, the other component leader professionalism refers to the strengthening at school level via collaboration with internal and external stakeholders. There is an emphasis on policy mediation and interpretation in this component, which drives the school leader to take risks and action when necessary. The last component, policy mediation, as Khalifa (2018) states requires education leaders to be active in the absence of government policies in humanitarian crisis situations. So much so that sometimes, even when educational policies are in place, it can be a challenge for school leaders to interpret these policies in terms of cultural, linguistic, ethnic, and economic differences in their school context.

Creating culturally just learning environments for learners is increasingly challenging and complex due to the mobility created by migration. In today's diverse educational landscape, marked by the influx of individuals from various backgrounds such as asylum-seekers, refugees, migrants, and international students, culturally responsive school leaders play a vital role as adept bridge builders, fostering intercultural understanding and collaboration (Brown et al., 2019). To refuse to name the forces that produce the suffering, exploitation and exclusion of the individual (Kincheloe, 2018) because of his or her cultural, ethnic and linguistic background is to side with the power mechanisms that produce these problems. Embracing all these different backgrounds is becoming increasingly important in our schools (Lopez, 2016), which are among the leading social institutions. For all these reasons, this research focuses on examining educational leaders in schools with large refugee populations through Arar's (2020) CRL conceptual framework, which emphasizes the leader's emotional awareness and self-reflection skills.

Method

Design of the study

In this study, we adopted a qualitative research design incorporating phenomenology as a research design to examine the CRL tendencies of school principals. We used this design because the main interest of the researcher in phenomenology is to focus on a specific phenomenon, to reach in-depth data through interviews with the participants (Fraenkel &Wallen, 2008) and to reveal what is common in the perceptions of the participants (Creswell, 2014). Phenomenological studies "describe the essence of the experience" and this essence involves individuals making sense of their experience

of a concept or phenomenon (Creswell, 2007, p. 10). In this context, phenomenology allows the researcher to focus on the life world of the subjects and generate rich data (Flick, 2007; Maxwell, 2012).

Participants

While deciding on the participants of the study, we employed criterion sampling, which is one of the types of purposeful sampling that provides the researcher with a purposeful understanding of the basic phenomenon under investigation (Creswell, 2007). The point of criterion sampling is to enable all cases with certain predetermined criteria contribute to an in-depth qualitative analysis (Patton, 2002). In this study, which is based on voluntary participation, we applied the following criteria to select our participants: Firstly, we prioritized schools with a comparatively higher refugee population in relation to other schools within their respective regions. Secondly, within this subset of schools, we established contact with local authorities to identify principals who have actively undertaken measures to mitigate educational disparities for refugee students and have implemented relevant practices and projects. Because as Devers and Frankel (2000) argue that it is critical to utilize existing social networks in qualitative research to gain baseline information and facilitate access to participants.

Correspondingly, it is recognized that social networks enable researchers to gain insights into the experiences and qualities of potential participants, thereby enhancing their ability to select individuals appropriate to the research context. In this context, we conducted interviews with the provincial director of migration administration, district director of national education, and district research and development unit project officer, from whom we obtained information regarding potential participating principals. Our

objective was to identify schools that emphasize the enhancement of language, culture, and academic skills, which are crucial criteria for the successful integration of refugee students into the educational and societal framework. Ultimately, we successfully reached to 14 school principals whom we deem to be instrumental in facilitating the education of refugee students within their respective regions.

The table of the participants in this study is as follows:

Table 1.

Demographics of Participants

Pseudonym	Age	School type	Seniority in school management (year)	Seniority as a manager in school
Vladimir Nabokov	43	Primary	1-5	2 years
Kazuo Ishiguro	50	Secondary	11-20	8 years
Khaled Hosseini	32	Primary	6-10	3 years
Edward W. Said	32	*Imam Hatip Secondary	1-5	2 years
Zygmunt Bauman	41	Primary	11-20	9 years
Junot Diaz	33	Primary	6-10	2 years
Joseph Roth	41	Imam Hatip Secondary	6-10	8 years
Henry Roth	45	Secondary	11-20	8 years
Isaac Asimov	52	Imam High School	6-10	5 years
Art Spiegelman	52	Primary	11-20	4 years
Halil Cibran	57	Primary/Secondary	6-10	8 years
Thomas Mann	35	Secondary	6-10	4 months

Sigmund Freud	55	Secondary	21+	7 years
Karl Popper	37	**VTA High School	6-10	9 years

* The Imam Hatip Schools in Türkiye are education institutions which are designed to increase religious sensitivity of students and to train leaders of prayer (imams) and hatips (deliver khutba at every Friday sermon).
**VTA High School is an abbreviation for Vocational and Technical Anatolian High School.

As shown above, we conducted interviews with a total of 14 school principals working in different school types. 5 of the participants work as school principals in primary schools, 4 in secondary schools, 2 in imam hatip secondary schools, 1 in imam hatip high schools, and 1 in vocational and technical Anatolian high schools. 1 of the participants is the principal of both primary and secondary schools in the same school district. All participants are male, and they have a range of school management experience, from a minimum of 2 to a maximum of 25 years. We interviewed individually with all school principals. We conducted face-to-face individual interviews with school principals by informing them about the scope of the research via e-mail or phone. Also, we used pseudonyms to protect the identities of participants and make them to answer the questions sincerely. We used the names of authors who migrated at some point in their lives as pseudonyms, but we preferred to use their forenames as pseudonyms so as not to be mistaken for referring to the authors.

Data Collection Procedures

In this study, the interview technique was preferred as it is one of the leading techniques for accessing rich experiences about an event or phenomenon (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). In a phenomenological research, data is collected through in-depth interviews. The researcher tries to identify the perceptions and reactions of each individual, in other words, to make sense of the individual's experience. Once the

interview process is completed, the researcher tries to identify the facts that are particularly relevant in each participant's statement or that are meaningful to the participant (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2018).

Data were collected via face-to-face semi-structured interviews. Before the interviews, school principals were contacted by phone or e-mail. As Creswell (2014) states, in order to build trust and prevent interruption in access, the participants were informed about the scope of the research. Then, the interview protocol, which includes the purpose of the research and the scope of the interviews, was sent them via e-mail and appointments were made to meet at the most convenient time for them. Before the interviews, the participants were asked to sign the consent form. Participants were informed that participation in the study was voluntary, so they had a chance to give up the study whenever they wanted. Each interview took approximately 30-40 minutes and most of the interviews were conducted in the principals' rooms. During the interviews, we took field notes and audio recordings with the consent of the participants. After the interviews were completed, the voice recordings were transcribed the same evening and the voice recordings were deleted. Finally, the transcripts were sent to the participants via e-mail and participant confirmation was obtained.

Interpretation of Data

We used descriptive analysis method while creating themes in the analysis of research data. Considering the dimensions of the CRL model, which served as the basis for the research, we believed it was important to adhere to the theory. On the other hand, when deriving codes from participants' statements and conceptualizing categories, we utilized the procedures of content analysis, which we believed provided a more analytical and critical framework. Descriptive

analysis, which is one of the approaches used to analyze the basic context of data, is an extremely useful method of analysis, especially for qualitative studies. The descriptive coding method facilitated us to categorize the data content to provide an organizational understanding of the data (Saldañ̃a, 2016). Descriptive analysis became a source for the data being analyzed in that it provides descriptions that are as representative as possible of what is going on in a specific context (Wolcott, 1994; as cited in Hatch, 2002). According to descriptive analysis, in the first cycle of coding of the data, we utilized the In Vivo coding technique, as suggested by Saldana (2016). This allowed us to separate the participants' statements into meaningful units while preserving their expressions. In the second cycle, we employed the Pattern Coding technique to establish categories. Pattern coding allowed us to pull together a lot of different codes into a more meaningful and parsimonious unit of analysis. Thus, we could classify categories under the themes created via theoretical CRL model.

Results

In the analysis of the findings, Arar's (2020) synthesis of the CRL model built on four components was used and these components are “personal awareness”, “equity pedagogy”, “policy mediation” and “professionalism”. These components constituted the main themes of the research in the process of interpreting the data. Under the theme of personal awareness, there are three categories: “emotional/cultural awareness”, “values of care and equity”, and “self-reflection”. Under the theme of equity pedagogy, the categories of “inclusive practices”, “student and community engagement” and “sustaining CR teachers and curricula” were developed. Under the theme of policy mediation, two different categories were developed: “playing according to the rules” and “negotiations”. The theme of professionalism includes the

categories of "agency", "collaboration", "devotion", and "empowerment".

Theme One: Personal Awareness

In the CRL corpus, Arar's conceptualization of personal awareness corresponds to school leaders' emotional awareness of the needs of both refugee and host community students and the leader's ability to critically self-reflect on their work in such contexts. In Arar's CRL model (2020), emotional awareness is a new concept added to the previous models, which is related to the leader's ability to take responsibility for traumatized and vulnerable students and the ability to empathize emotionally. In this context, school principals' views on emotional and cultural awareness, values of care and equity, and self-reflection skills were examined under this theme. For example, Joseph, who thinks that cultural differences are richness for society, but some precautions should be taken by the school leaders in this regard, said the following words:

> *Even in different regions of the same nation, there can be cultural differences. Of course, cultural differences are riches, but when we talk about the fusion and orientation of these cultures, when we think about the school environment, it is vitally important to ensure orientation… Because this is not a three-day visit…Now, what we call 'cultural differences are richness' has turned into living in the same house, and in the same school. Therefore, here we must take precautions about how cultural differences are lived…*

Joseph's remarks underscored the imperative of surmounting the inherent ambiguity prevailing in the initial stages of educational policies concerning Syrian refugee students in Türkiye. Emphasizing that it is now about living together, as opposed to a mere three-day

stint, serves as a stark reminder of the significance attributed to effectively addressing the educational requirements specific to culturally diverse refugee students (Khalifa et al., 2016). The proclivity of culturally responsive leaders to engage in introspection and cultivate emotional resonance and empathy towards children who have experienced trauma (Arar, 2020) is further exemplified through the subsequent discourse of Vladimir and Kazuo. Vladimir, who has more than 200 Syrian students in his school, emphasized the difficulty of being a refugee: *I think migration is done out of necessity. It is very difficult. When it doesn't happen to you, you don't understand, but you must put yourself in their shoes.* Similarly, working as a school principal for 20 years, Kazuo, referring to the phenomenon of migration as caused by a state of obligation, stated that especially those who migrated from Syria came to his country due to traumatic reasons.

> *I empathize. I mean, for example, under these conditions, in which case would I leave my country and go to another country with my wife and children? Maybe for a better job, which is also far from me, but I am talking in terms of those who go. Better economic conditions, better welfare, education, etc. Maybe for these benefits, but other than that, I don't think anyone would leave their country for no reason or simple reasons. There is a drama. Moreover, children are perhaps the most innocent victims of this dirty war, we cannot ignore this.*

On the other hand, some school principals stated that the cultural differences that students bring from their families and past environmental experiences lead to conflicts at school. To give an example, Edward, a principal in an Imam Hatip Secondary school, explained his awareness of this situation with the following words.

> *For example, the lifestyle and culture of the locals in this region are very different… children or parents might misunderstand each other.*

> *In other words, when the child exhibits friendly behavior in his own way, the other one thinks that this is something very wrong with the upbringing of his/her family. His/her parents think the same way, and this leads to arguments between friends all the time.*

Another category examined under the theme of self-awareness is the critical self-reflection skills of school leaders to reconsider their practices and actions. Vladimir, regarding the inadequacy of refugee students in some subjects due to the language barriers, expresses his awareness of his inertia with these words: "*We do the same thing with them as we do with our other students. We can't do much, they are in their own capacity, but they start 1-0 behind. So, it is not easy for them".*

All these quotes and examples prove that although school leaders were aware of the emotional and cultural challenges that migration poses to students, they applied different approaches to addressing the barriers created by these challenges.

Theme Two: Equity Pedagogy

Under the theme of equity pedagogy, the practices of the participants towards strengthening school culture, reducing prejudice, and inclusive education activities for both host country students and refugee students were examined. In this context, the practices of school principals are discussed in three categories as "inclusive practices", "student and community engagement" and "sustaining CR teachers and curricula". Touching on practices and activities that involve every student in his school, Isaac explained his views on egalitarian pedagogy with the following words:

> *We are not talking about assimilation; we are talking about integration. We are strictly against the assimilation programs for Turkish children in Germany. We are against assimilation in Greece.*

> *As minorities there, we should be against the assimilation of people from different geographies in Türkiye in the same way. We need to move towards integration, and we need to find the answer to the question of how they can live together with the Turkish community... Anyway, all the courses in our school are open to everyone. Every student can attend our support and training courses.*

Isaac's remarks emphasize the importance of promoting new dynamics within the school environment, as opposed to assimilating the identity of culturally diverse individuals, as highlighted by Lopez (2016). Similarly, Art commented on the inclusive practices in his school as follows: "*Absolutely, we don't discriminate between people from here or there, they are all our students. They are all equal in our eyes. Whatever is done to one is done to the other"*. On the other hand, commenting on the way he handles disciplinary problems between the host country students and refugee students, Joseph stated that equitable treatment at school is also extremely important in terms of the student's integration into society.

> *We apply the same rehabilitation, the same thing to him as we do to the other one. We do it all, from the parents to the meetings and visits… we listen to both. Whoever is at fault, the necessary discipline and action are taken. There is no discrimination. This is a fair thing. This attitude binds the child to me, to the institution I represent here, and therefore to the state. In other words, everything I personally do here actually creates a perception against the administration of the country he is subject to and lives in.*

Joseph's statements present the fact that in the school setting, which represents the society on a micro-political level (Welphy, 2022), equality and just approaches serve as a catalyst for the integration of refugee students into society. Similarly, in the second category, Khaled

emphasized the urgent need to overcome language barriers of refugee students for their adaptation to school and society in terms of student and community engagement. Khaled's remarks underscore the necessity of overcoming language barriers (Herzog-Punzerberger et al. (2020) as a prerequisite for fostering inclusive knowledge construction.

> *Within the scope of the PICTES project, there is an integration class for foreign students, and we have a Turkish teacher here. When those children start primary school, we enroll them in our teacher's class from the first grade onwards, even if they do not speak Turkish at all. In this way, if the child has an adaptation problem, he/she first overcomes the adaptation problem in that adaptation class and gets used to the culture of the school. There, he improves his Turkish and then continues in his own class in the appropriate branch and completes his academic studies.*

The third pillar of equity pedagogy is to sustain culturally relevant teachers and curricula. Junot, who is the principal of a primary school, mentioned that young Syrian children have more language problems and as a natural consequence of this situation, some classroom teachers sometimes do not want refugee students due to concerns about academic success. Therefore, he explained his strategies to prevent them from being marginalized by their peers and teachers.

> *I believe that discrimination against those who are different is a natural human tendency, and this is a problem that exists not only in our region but all over the world. As a preventive measure, we are working to address this issue before it happens, rather than trying to fix it later… Unfortunately, sometimes teachers are also prejudiced against refugee students. We hold trilateral meetings, troika, with the teachers who are resistant to embrace, together with the teachers they*

are closest to. In the tripartite meeting, we try to convince the teacher of the process. In other words, not to show resistance…

The significance of fostering connections between refugee students and host country students in facilitating their integration into the school and broader society (Canaz & Küçüker, 2019) is clearly manifested in Junot's endeavors. Junot strives to mitigate the marginalization and neglect experienced by refugee students as a result of language and associated academic barriers, employing persuasive techniques to convince resistant teachers of the importance of this approach.

To summarize in general, the theme of equity pedagogy can be regarded as knowledge construction for the social cohesion and integration of refugee students in school and thus in society. As Arar (2020) suggests, CR school leaders should encourage and support teachers when necessary to create such a climate in the school environment. As it is clear from the participants' views, there are some prejudices by teachers and peers in schools due to the language and cultural differences of refugee students.

Theme Three: Policy Mediation

The third component, policy mediation, can be defined as the educational leader acting with a sense of moral duty and agency to ensure that individuals who do not benefit from education policies adequately are not further disadvantaged. The theme of policy mediation includes two different components: "playing according to the rules" and "negotiations". In this context, participants' understandings of their roles in mediating educational policies for refugee students were categorized into two different categories. Under

the first category, playing according to the rules, Henry expressed his views on Turkish educational policies for refugee students as follows:

> *The education policy used to be that they should be in one class. (He refers to a monoculture homogeneous class). Until a certain period, they always had their own Syrian classrooms, but I find it more correct to have them as they are now (multicultural classroom). In other words, within the scope of inclusive education, all children should be in the same classroom, all children should benefit from the same conditions...*

Through his statement, Henry articulates his viewpoint regarding the imperative for refugee students to engage and interact with host country students as a means of effectively integrating into the culture of the host country. Moreover, he highlights that classrooms structured solely around single identities serve as a hindrance to this integration process. Some school principals emphasized that they take risks when implementing educational policies for language acquisition of refugee students in their schools. For instance, 52 years old and a principal for almost 20 years, Art expressed that he took risks in some decisions with the following words:

> *To be honest, I used to take the initiative in such decisions. For example, in the Turkish course offered as part of PIKTES, if there were few students in the 3rd grade, there were times when I took the students in the 2nd and 4th grades to this integration class. Did it help these children? Yes, I think it did, especially for Turkish lessons. That's why I wish they (the policymakers) would leave some decisions to us… because I know best what is most needed in my school.*

Similarly, Edward, the principal of a secondary school where 73 students in a school with 370 students are Syrian, stated that at times they forced Syrian students to attend the courses for Turkish language skills, even though it was noncompulsory.

> *In our country, decisions are often made by those who are not in the field but rather by those who are appointed. These decisions are then passed on to us to implement, but we face difficulties from time to time. For instance, a general manager may assume that all Syrian students in school are attending the PICTES courses and that they are productive. However, this is not the case, as most children do not participate because it is not mandatory.*

Some school principals, on the other hand, stated that they did not negotiate the implementation of policies because there was nothing in the bureaucracy that required the administrator's interpretation. One of the best examples of this bureaucratic behavior can be seen in the words of Thomas.

> *Policies are established by the government and bureaucrats are responsible for executing them. There is no government intervention in the implementation process, and we have not faced any pressure to carry out specific tasks. As long as we work diligently and strive to improve student outcomes, there is no room for external pressure. We are not allowed to disregard orders given by the state, but we have the freedom to innovate and improve upon them…*

On the issue of negotiation, Joseph stated that within a formalized system, principals should take the initiative and provide additional measures for the interest of the students.

> *As a central education policy of the state, integration classes were created, and teachers were assigned there. This system was not*

working somewhere, there was a blockage. We charged a Turkish teacher with this teacher. We supported our own teacher. At some point, two hours were not enough, we created two more hours, and increased it to 4 hours…These all were unofficial. There is already a system that is officially implemented, apart from that; you do it on your own initiative. This process was overcome with such additional measures.

Theme Four: Professionalism

Under the theme of professionalism, the categories of "agency", "collaboration", "devotion", and "empowerment" were discussed. It was observed that school principals applied different strategies in reflecting beliefs about racial, ethnic, and cultural diversity in teaching behaviors and activities. For instance, Kazuo described the following as his strategy to reduce prejudice against different cultures "*We organized an event for the mutual introduction of local dishes, where there were conversations in Turkish and Arabic. Parents also got to know each other*". Similarly, Vladimir stated that he organized parent meetings to reduce the prejudices of Turkish parents against Syrian students in his school with these words "*We do paintings; we do cultural activities. We had a kermess, for example. They introduced their food to each other*". In the efforts of school administrators to reduce prejudice towards refugee students, one important characteristic of culturally relevant leaders, as emphasized by Horsfold et al. (2011), can be interpreted as their attempt to facilitate the establishment of regional and global connections among students within their own communities.

School principals also mentioned that they collaborated with internal and external stakeholders to develop a cultural understanding in the school. School principals stated that they cooperate with the teachers and counselors of their school, parents, the provincial

directorate of national education, the governorship, aid organizations, and some ministries to develop a better educational environment. For instance, Khaled expressed his cooperation with the stakeholders as follows:

> *We acted together with the Regional Directorate of Forestry and did a sapling planting activity with these students. For example, we met with Fenerbahçe sports club and took these students on a tour of the stadium there, the Ülker stadium and its museum... We have stakeholders. For example, one of our stakeholders is the Red Crescent. The Red Crescent tells us to identify students in need, then we send them the lists and they provide them with the necessities.*

Another characteristic that culturally relevant leaders are prone to is devotion. For instance, Sigmund mentioned that each refugee student in the school was individually counseled with these words: "*I have a tolerant personality. I can empathize with them. I try to explain with our counselors in an appropriate way that he should not feel incomplete because of his language problem, and this is an advantage for him".* Similarly, Joseph stated the following words:

> *My understanding of management is based on the child's coming to school happy. I always look at whether children come to school willingly, whether they come smiling, whether they are happy. I care about these things at school because people fail in a job where they are unhappy. I think the foremost argument of education is to love what you do…*

Another category under the theme of professionalization is empowerment, which is closely related to school principals' breaking down prejudices to develop a cultural understanding in the school. The participants implemented different strategies to reduce prejudices

of students, teachers, and parents towards refugee students in the school. For instance, Zygmunt stated that he sometimes conducted classroom supervisions to learn about the achievement of refugee students with the following words.

> *There are teachers who say 'I will let them sit in the back of the classroom, I don't want to deal with them'…But in a meeting, I say, "we entered your classroom, it's nice, the children in front are reading, but whose children are the children in the back? 8 of them couldn't write when I asked them. Did you ask us for help? You didn't. Did you want us meet with the parents? You didn't. Now we can easily say that you are to blame". I often do supervision and classroom observation.*

Zygmunt continues his words with his strategies for preventing segregation among the students with these words: "*I show them the cameras and say I always watch them. I see who is doing what, where they are going, who is fighting with whom*". Culturally relevant school leaders fulfill their professional responsibilities in providing equitable and exceptional education to their students while also being culturally sensitive towards diverse population groups (Horsfold et al., 2011; Khalifa et al., 2016). However, it is observed that Zygmunt resorts to elements of coercion and control in his efforts to create equal educational opportunities.

Under the theme of professionalism, the views of principals on the methods and strategies they use to reduce possible prejudices against refugee students and to develop a cultural understanding in their schools. It is seen that school principals employ many ways such as organizing cultural events where parents introduce local foods, establishing cooperation with internal and external stakeholders, and classroom supervisions.

Discussion

In this study, we attempt to grasp the experiences of school leaders in reducing and preventing inequality of opportunity in the education of displaced refugee students. The influx of Syrian refugee students in Turkish schools has led to significant disparities in language, culture, and academics (Atalay et al., 2022). School leaders play a crucial role in ensuring equal educational opportunities (Dinçer et al., 2013) and especially culturally relevant leadership is important in valuing all children equally, including those of refugee backgrounds, and adopting a whole-school approach to support them (Devine, 2013). The above analysis shows that the methods and strategies used by school principals in eliminating the common problems of discrimination, prejudice, exclusion, racism etc. against refugee students (Fraise and Brooks, 2015; McIntyre & Hall, 2018), the inexperience of school staff on multicultural education environments, and curriculum alignment (Brown, 2015; Demir & Özgül, 2019) in their schools, as well as the problems that lead to the academic failure of students, are insufficient in the current chaotic environment in schools.

The quotes emphasize the challenges about the ways that the principals in overcoming the educational barriers of refugee students due to financial constraints, language barriers and cultural differences. In our study, we observed that the words and experiences shared by the principals exhibited various manifestations of the four components encompassed within the CRL theory. For instance, all participants expressed a *personal awareness* of the challenges of being a refugee in a foreign country and recognized the importance of support in healing the trauma of children who had experienced war in their home countries. On the other hand, even school principals, who stated that cultural differences were richness for a society, mentioned that cultural

differences sometimes create conflict between students and families. The current literature proves that it is much more difficult for a school to thrive when it faces conflict and disagreement (Hakvoort, 2010; Lopez, 2008). Teaching, learning, and leading in culturally diverse educational contexts in schools can present some challenges (Horsfold, et al., 2011), but given the current number of Syrian refugees in Türkiye, it is clear that this cultural diversity will continue in the long term (Mamei et al., 2019), and therefore school leaders should take the lead with inclusive strategies (Lopez, 2016) to create environments in their schools that embrace cultural diversity.

Another important finding related to personal awareness is the self-reflection of some school principals about their inability to address the academic underachievement of refugee students. Khalifa et al. (2016) assert regarding the critical thinking about leadership practices as the most important action for culturally relevant leadership emphasizes the significance of leaders first confronting their own identities and aligning them with the identity of the learning community. Therefore, the perspectives of the participating principals suggest that culturally relevant leadership requires a high level of agency in their self-reflection skills. The other main component of CRL is *equity pedagogy* (Arar, 2020) and it supports student's academic achievement (Arar & Oplatka, 2022). Although the limited resources allocated to education may challenge policymakers in the redistribution of resources, increasing the schooling rate of refugee students is important both for normalizing the lives of children with war traumas and for these children to acquire skills that will contribute to the country's economy in the future (Mamei et al. 2019). Only by improving educational opportunities, the vulnerability of refugees to poverty and racism be reduced (Banks, 2017; McIntyre & Hall, 2018).

Similarly, the findings of Demir and Özgül (2019), the participants emphasized that the academic achievement of refugee students was low due to obstacles such as poor language proficiency, insufficient experience of teachers in multicultural classroom environments, cultural barriers, and lack of economic resources. Nortvedt et al. (2020) also emphasize the importance of teachers' self-awareness, highlighting that teachers may harbor certain stereotypical prejudices, such as perceiving refugee students as less capable. For these reasons, it is imperative for culturally relevant leaders to cultivate self-awareness and regularly interrogate their beliefs concerning students, pedagogy, and the sociocultural context of education.

In *policy mediation*, another component of CRL, the findings suggest that school principals mostly implement the decisions taken by policy makers. Although many decisions are made by higher political authorities, school principals implement these decisions in their schools by involving the environment, parents, teachers, and students (Brooks, 2015). Arar et al. (2019) argue that regardless of or despite the political context, educational leaders at school level face moral and ethical dilemmas in creating fair access to high-quality education. The views of school principals suggest that they are successful in implementing national education policies for refugee students because they acted in a bureaucratic manner. It is important to remember, however, that leading in marginalized societies is a tension between service and activism (Gutrie et al., 2013). CRL, being rooted in social justice leadership, is inherently activist (Arar, 2020). As McCray and Beachum (2014) state that we believe that principals' inability to act autonomously in their decisions leads them to prefer staying out of difficult and potentially risky decisions. This ultimately can hinder the creation of a fair educational environment.

As a final component, *professionalism* includes the school leader's agency, collaboration, devotion, and empowerment skills (Arar & Oplatka, 2022). Arastaman and Fidan (2022) list the challenges faced by school leaders in multicultural schools as policy, curriculum, administrative, operational, and cultural diversity challenges. Therefore, leadership professionalism is critical to handle these challenges, both in terms of community engagement through collaboration and empowerment to reduce prejudice, and in terms of inclusiveness through agency and devotion (Arar, 2020; Horsfold et al., 2011; Marshall & Khalifa, 2018). Based on the findings, school principals exhibit a positive level of collaboration with both internal and external stakeholders to address the challenges they encounter. In multicultural schools with refugee students, it is crucial to establish professional collaboration (Devine, 2013) between teachers, students, and internal/external stakeholders at the school level to ensure equitable practices within the school environment (Brown et al., 2019). Another important finding under professionalism theme is the style of school principals in strengthening cultural understanding between teachers and students within the school. The significant influx of refugee students in Türkiye has posed important demands on teachers, who play a critical role despite the diverse challenges encountered in the education of these children (Akın-Sabuncu & Kasapoğlu, 2023). Some school principals stated that by conducting classroom supervisions, they prevented refugee students from being pushed to the back of the classrooms, in other words, ignored by teachers. The same school principals also stated that they achieved this among students by warning them that there were cameras everywhere and they were always watching them. Is Bentham's panoptical surveillance, which is used to normalize and order individuals (Foucault, 1981; as cited in Castrellón, 2022), a functional method to

ensure justice, respect, sharing and unity in schools? There is a paradoxical situation in this type of leadership tendency in terms of cultural sensitivity, as there is a simultaneous tendency towards repression and surveillance while seeking to embrace respect and acceptance of diverse cultural identities within diverse populations (Khalifa et al., 2016). Panopticon-like actions can have negative effects on social justice efforts with the element of pressure they create. This is precisely why we need more equitable educational experiences that would eliminate all forms of oppression, systemic power, discrimination, and prejudice in education that critical theory advocates. (Castrellón, 2022).

To sum up, this study revealed the unique experiences of school principals in Türkiye for eliminating the opportunity inequalities in the education of refugee students. One of the primary limitations of the study could be conducting our research in a single region, which restricts our access to observable units and may result in the transferability of findings limited to that particular region. By including participants from a broader geographical area, the diversity of experiences could be enhanced, providing a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. Depending on the findings obtained in the research, some suggestions can be presented. Given Türkiye's current refugee population, multicultural educational management approaches need to be promoted in the future to support a harmonious and inclusive educational environment for school staff and students. For this purpose, training programs and good practice examples from countries experienced in multicultural educational management practices should be followed. In addition, school principals' autonomy in decision-making may increase, because they are more aware of the deficiencies in the

language and academic skills of refugee students in their schools. To prepare a ground for an inclusive and fair understanding in education, the priority should be to prevent practices that individuals cannot make sense of and internalize through pressure and imposition. CRL should also acknowledge the diverse identities students bring to the educational context. Future research on CRL can explore how school leaders address the distinct needs and experiences of students from multiple marginalized groups. Understanding the interactions between culture, race, language, ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, and other identities can enrich the development of inclusive culturally responsive leadership practices.

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Studying Negative Aspects in Educational Leadership: The Benefits of Qualitative Methodologies

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to encourage researchers to employ qualitative methodologies when studying the negative aspects in educational leadership. To this end, I focus on one negative aspect in organization – abusive leadership and use it to exemplify the benefits of qualitative research and its potential methodologies. More specifically, I pose two questions: (1) How can the qualitative research improve our understanding of abusive leadership in schools; (2) what are the practical tools to study abusive educational leadership from a naturalistic perspective? Through qualitative research methods, researchers are likely to explore the complexity of human behavior and thereby generate deeper understanding of leaders' negative behaviors as well as of toxic interactions in the school. In this paper, I emphasize the epistemological contributions of qualitative methodologies to the research on abusive educational leadership and probe into the kind of knowledge we may gain when employing these methodologies.

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Introduction

The research on the negative elements in organizations has received much attention in recent years. Researchers have studied workplace violence, workplace harassment, psychopathic employees, abusive leadership, toxic environments, narcissistic leadership and so forth (Bhattacharjee & Sarkar, 2022; Oplatka, 2016; Neall & Tuckey, 2014; Pelletier, 2010). Regardless of the term used, this kind of research focused on the negative aspects in the organizational life, exploring the 'dark side of leadership' or examining the effects of organizational maltreatment on employees and stakeholders, including teachers. These negative elements have been found also in schools worldwide (Khumalo, 2019; Oplatka, 2016; Wang et al., 2023)

However, most of the research on the negative elements relied heavily on quantitative research studies to provide its evidence base (Fischer, Wei-Tian, Lee & Hughes, 2021), and consequently there are concerns that limited methodologies are used to explore complex emotional and leadership issues in the workplace. A lack of interpretive, inductive knowledgebase is evident and the voice of the qualitative paradigm is missing, though.

The purpose of this paper, then, is to encourage researchers in educational administration and leadership to employ qualitative methodologies when studying the negative aspects in the school, be it on the teacher or the educational leader levels. To this end, I focus on one negative aspect in organization – abusive leadership and use this

organizational phenomenon to exemplify the benefits of qualitative research and its methodologies. This model of destructive leadership is most studied, according to the review written by Fischer et al. (2021). More specifically, I pose two questions: (1) How can the qualitative research improve our understanding of abusive educational leadership; (2) what are the practical tools to study abusive leadership from a naturalistic perspective?

Through qualitative research methods, researchers are likely to explore the complexity of human behavior, according to Johnson and Waterfield (2004), and thereby generate deeper understanding of leaders' negative behaviors as well as of toxic interactions in the organization. In this paper, I emphasize the epistemological contributions of qualitative methodologies to the research on abusive educational leadership and probe into the kind of knowledge we may gain when employing these methodologies.

In the rest of the paper, the model of abusive leadership is discussed to allow readers understand the current state of the art in the literature, followed by an analysis of the limitations of the quantitative methodologies used by and large to study this model. Then, the value of the qualitative research to understand abusive leadership is emphasized and practical tools to explore this kind of leadership are suggested. The paper ends with some ethical considerations.

The model of abusive leadership

Leaders are considered to be powerful individuals in organizations who wield influence over many aspects of employees' working lives (Fischer et al., 2021). Unfortunately, nevertheless, some leaders exploit and mistreat followers (Schmid et al., 2019) and ignore ethical and moral values. One model of leadership that has been

considered to have detrimental effect on staff is abusive or destructive leadership. Several definitions were suggested to depict this model:

> A subjective evaluation resting on "subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact (Tepper, 2000, p. 178).

> Volitional behavior by a leader that can harm or intends to harm a leader's organization and/or followers by: (1) encouraging followers to pursue goals that contravene the legitimate interests of the organization; and/or (2) employing a leadership practice that involves the use of harmful methods of influence with followers, regardless of justifications for such behavior (Krasikova et al., 2013).

> Destructive leadership in this sense would be defined as behaviour that directly or indirectly prevents organizational (e.g. quality and quantity of work) and personal goal attainment of followers (e.g. job satisfaction) (Chilling, 2009, p.103).

Tepper's (2000) original definition states clearly that abusive leadership does not refer to leader behaviors but to followers' subjective evaluations of these behaviors. After all, one employee could view a manager's behavior as abusive while another employee may view it as non-abusive behavior. But, sometimes the leader's unethical behavior is unquestionable; abusive leaders may engage in consistent hostile verbal and non-verbal actions towards a follower (Richard et al., 2020).

Overall, the experience of abusive leadership is subjective, including hostile and non-hostile verbal or non-verbal behaviors

towards subordinates that are not always intended, yet have some individual and organizational implications (Starratt & Grandy, 2010). For example, abusive leaders might inflict serious and enduring harm on their employees by using malicious tactics of influence that decay their moral, motivation and self-esteem (Lipman-Blumen, 2005). Examples of these behaviors include demeaning teachers by criticizing their work or ideas in public, going behind teachers' back to attain their goals, concealing critical information needed to perform work tasks effectively, or negating the teacher's attitudes or abilities.

The model of abusive leadership is both dispositional (part of the leader's personality) and contextual (Krasikova et al., 2013). Abusive leadership may occur when a leader's goals are thwarted and threatened or when the leader's self-image and competence are on the line (Bhattacharjee & Sarkar, 2022). Likewise, abusive leaders have a dispositional inclination to promote self-interest above the interests of others or the organization.

Numerous outcomes have been examined in relation to abusive supervision. It was found that abusive leadership influences direct subordinates, teams, and the entire organization and leads to workplace deviance, destructive attitudes, and daily counterproductive work behaviors (Bormann, 2017; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Many employees report losing their mental energy, blaming the organization for the abuse received, developing contradictory emotions, and experiencing damage to work-life balance due to their abusive leader (Bowling and Michel, 2011; Tepper et al., 2017). Abusive supervisors consistently humiliate their direct employees, undermine their privacy, remind them of their past mistakes or failures, break promises made to them, and put them down in public.

While quantitative methodologies have provided much knowledge about abusive leadership and its antecedents and effects in a wide variety of organizations, based on large-scale survey, Gallegos et al. (2022), nevertheless, highlighted the gap in research on the outcomes of abusive leadership:

> Abusive leaders affect employees' emotions and health and produce counterproductive behaviors that cause economic damage to organizations. The literature has focused predominantly on the antecedents of abusive supervision and its negative impact, providing knowledge on mechanisms that link abusive supervision to consequences for subordinates. There has been limited research on the supervisor perspective, on the group level, and on recovery (p.1).

Their criticism leads us to the next section in which I analyze the limits of the current literature about abusive leadership due its overemphasis on positivistic, quantitative methodologies, at least in my view as a qualitative researcher.

The limits of the (quantitative) research on abusive leadership

Abusive supervision research, like many studies about the negative aspects in organizations, has been largely driven by quantitative studies, most of which have employed correlational designs (Bhattacharjee & Sarkar, 2022). In many of the studies researchers have asked employees to make subjective assessments of leader behaviors instead of acknowledging their existence in their work life. Based on Tepper's (2000) 15-irwm measure of abusive supervision, researchers collected a single assessment of abusive supervision via employee ratings of their leader or leader self-ratings (Fischer et al., 2021).

According to Bhattacharjee & Sarkar (2022), the methodologies

used to examine abusive leadership raise several questions; how do the perception and subsequent rating of abusive supervision vary between individuals? Is abusive leadership a sustained phenomenon or changes every day? In their criticism of Tepper's scale they further illuminated the weaknesses and limitations of current researches on abusive leadership that do not necessarily reflect the reality:

> Different items in the 15-item scale have varying severity and consequently, they do not rise to the level of abuse. For example, one item in this scale, "My supervisor lies to me" differs in severity from "My supervisor ridicules me". A supervisor lying to his or her subordinate is an unethical act but it may not be deemed as abuse by the subordinate. On the other hand, a supervisor ridiculing his or her direct report would be perceived as abuse by the direct report. Since the 15-item scale comprises items that could be perceived as abusive supervision mixed with items that may not be perceived as abusive supervision, it becomes hard to interpret the total abusive supervision score when the frequencies of these items are summed up (p.4).

The weakness of subjective assessments of abusive leadership is reflected in other items in Tepper's (2000) scale. For example, 'ridicules me' (p.189) requires employees to judge if a concrete behavior can be classified as ridiculing. However, perceiving and acknowledging the existence of single behaviors is insufficient (Fischer et al., 2021). Some employees may consider a certain leadership behavior as a joke while others as ridiculing. Thus, in the spirit of Tepper (2000, "[t]he same individual could view a supervisor's behavior [here: a leader's joke] as abusive in one context and as non-abusive in another context, and two subordinates could differ in their evaluations of the same supervisor's behavior [here: joking]" (p. 178). Hence, conflating evaluations of leader behaviors with the behaviors

themselves impede both theoretical and empirical precision. Similar critiques have been levied previously and retorted (Tepper et al. 2017).

Likewise, 91% of the studies utilized survey-based, using convenience or snowball samples of participants drawn from a range of organizations, and many sought to examine causal hypotheses (e.g., employees' evaluations of abusive supervision cause employee turnover) (Fischer et al., 2021). The abusive leadership literature has centered on linking moderators or mediators with result-orientation to work overload, job strain, frustration, turnover intentions, employee frustration and authoritarian leadership (Gallegos et al., 2022). However, questions such as, when do we speak of abusive leadership? What are the negative/abusive intentions of these leaders? What are the contexts in which abusive leadership grows? Or what are the consequences of abusive leadership behavior? Remain relatively unanswered. Qualitative research may help fill the gap in this respect.

The possible epistemological-ontological contributions of qualitative research

What are the benefits of qualitative research to the study of abusive educational leadership? What kind of knowledge could be produced if researchers decided to explore abusive educational leadership from the view of the qualitative paradigm?

First, qualitative methodologies such as semi-structured interviews, focus groups, or open observations can help us initially understand employees' interpretations and their reactions to abusive leadership behaviors and how they respond to daily changes in these behaviors. Such studies involving small numbers of individuals selected on the basis of purposeful sampling can generate hypotheses to be more rigorously tested on larger numbers of participants, in order

to develop generalizable conclusions and test theory, as Thyer (2012) indicated. Thus, qualitative studies may enlarge our survey methods and include more elements and aspects of abusive leadership than we know todays.

Above all, qualitative research takes the view that reality is socially constructed by each individual and should be interpreted rather than measured (Johnson & Waterfield, 2004). Attention, then, is paid to diversity of perspectives of the participants (Fink et al., 2004) and their interpretations of the studied phenomenon are analyzed in light of the contexts in which they live and work.

In this sense, instead of trying to control extraneous variables when examining abusive educational leadership, qualitative research may explore the subjective interpretations given by teachers to an 'abusive behavior' and 'abusive leadership.' Their interpretive voices may extend our common definitions and constructions of abusive educational leadership, much beyond scholars had already conceptualized as 'abusive leadership behavior.' A support in this methodological conjecture we receive from Pelletier's (2010) study in which the researcher asked: "what are the behaviors and rhetoric of leaders that followers perceive to be harmful to their psychological or organizational well-being?" (p. 378). In addition, based on followers' social constructions of leadership, as illustrated by the basketball coach example, Pelletier further asked: "do followers agree as to what constitutes harmful leader behavior and rhetoric?' (p. 379). These questions allowed him to suggest a manifold view of abusive educational leadership that is based on psychological aspects of the observer or relational elements characterizing the leader-follower dyad.

Qualitative research may contribute also to our understanding

of the determinants and consequences of abusive educational leadership because it enables employees provide their subjective interpretations of the relations between abusive leadership and personal and organizational conditions/states much beyond what had been constructed in common scales of abusive leadership. For example, Chilling (2009) aimed to explore the experiences of leadership practitioners concerning the antecedents, behaviors, and consequences of negative leadership. He showed the impressive complexity of negative leadership, its antecedents and consequences, as explained below:

> The named antecedents emphasized obstacles to effective leadership rather than facilitators of destructive leadership. The most salient antecedents were the followers, the leader's immediate working field and role, and organizational processes, structures, and resources. The underlying idea is that the influence of leaders is rather limited: if the followers lack motivation, work ethics and competence, are fearful, and are not accepted by their co-workers, then the leader will not be able to execute effective leadership (p. 112).

The complexity of negative leadership (e.g., abusive leadership) and its subjectively- held relationships with personality and context is illustrated in Chilling's results. Similarly, in a qualitative study of 30 recruits in the Canadian service and manufacturing industry, Starratt and Grandy (2010) revealed that new workers had experienced emotional fallout from abusive leadership that included hopelessness, humiliation, anxiety, and physical consequences such as retaliation against the organization, distancing oneself from the abusive leader and leaving the organization. They also found that abusive leadership was detrimental to the organization as a whole, due to high employee turnover and the development of a destructive

organizational culture. Needless to say, the interpretive, narrative data allowed the researchers find new impacts of abusive leadership that had not necessarily indicated by past research that examined the relations between abusive leadership and predetermined dependent variables.

After all, researchers cannot hypothesize every potential impact of abusive educational leadership. We can just imagine how the results of Lavoie-Tremblay et al., (2016) indicting that abusive leadership practices had a negative influence on the quality of patient care and nurses' intentions to quit their job would look like if they used also a qualitative research design. Most probably, it would enable them better understand the subjective interpretations of 'quality of patient care' and the interpretive elements consisting 'intentions to leave the nursing profession altogether.' They would have received a manifold view of personal intentions within a larger context (e.g., the moment nurses began to develop intentions to leave, the abusive leader's behavior that broke their heart, and so on).

This brings us to discuss another major benefit of qualitative research - thick description of the reality that provides a detailed narrative and report of the researched phenomenon rather than a narrow part of it. In fact, qualitative research has a strong orientation to everyday events and/or the everyday knowledge of those under investigation. Data, according to Filck et al. (2004, p. 8), "are collected in their natural context, and statements are analyzed in the context of an extended answer or a narrative, or the total course of an interview, or even in the biography of the interview partner." Thyer (2012) further explains the contribution of qualitative methods to social work and implicitly illuminates some points that are relevant to the research on abusive leadership:

> Qualitative methods can provide social workers with rich insights into the lives of clients and other participants in social work research. By talking with them clinically, informally, or within the context of a research interview, we can learn about their lives, their experiences with mental illness or psychosocial challenges such as poverty, sexual assault, abuse, and other issues. This information can be sifted using conventional methods of qualitative analysis for themes, commonalities, discrepancies, and convergences" (p. 120).

In other words, by talking with teachers informally and within their daily contexts we can learn about their experiences in the school, in general, and about their relationship with and perceptions towards their educational leaders, in particular. Thus, abusive leadership behavior can be analyzed within a larger context rather than a sole phenomenon in their working life and, thereby better grasp the place and influence of these negative behaviors on their work and well-being in life.

In this sense, qualitative research enables exploring how and when the process of abusive educational leadership occurs. Consistent with Bhattacharjee and Sarkar (2022) who reviewed leadership studies involving qualitative designs and noted that such designs help to examine how a leadership behavior changes in response to circumstances, researchers could trace the development of abusive leadership within a mosaic of contexts and along different stages. In this way, we could learn more about changes in abusive educational leadership in the long-run, and how it is influenced by evolving situations in the school and in its environments.

Qualitative research not only gives entry to employee perspectives, but also suggests a rich range of methods to explore varied aspects of abusive educational leadership. Our knowledge

about this kind of leadership should come from small, in-depth qualitative studies, as well as from information generated through a large-scale survey. For example, educational leaders and teachers can have quite different understandings of abusive behaviors, and these differences can lead to "ruptures in communication," resulting in pressure and distress. In this sense, the epistemological principle of qualitative research is the understanding of complex relationships rather than explanation by isolation of a single relationship (Flick et al., 2004). Let's exemplify these advantages through Fischer et al.'s (2021) insights into the research on abusive leadership:

> …The research base should be able to provide us with evidence relating to questions such as: How much, and how frequently does leader 'wrongdoing' result in evaluations of abuse? Should we invest time and money in selecting out abusive leaders and/or training leaders to be non-abusive? Should we focus less on leaders and more on increasing employee resilience or changing organizational culture? (pp. 1-2)

While quantitative methods are likely to answer the 'how much/frequency' questions, the practice-oriented questions in the citation may gain a lot from qualitative methodologies. For example, semi-structured interviews may generate subjective interpretations of abusive vs. non-abusive leadership behaviors and unearth the process through which an abusive leadership behavior emerges. Interviewees may expose how they responded to abusive educational leadership in a certain negative event in the school or elaborate on the ways in which they minimize abusive leadership behaviors in their workplace. This, in turn, will help researchers answer the second and third questions posed above by Fischer et al. (2021).

Practical tools to study abusive leadership from a qualitative stance

Of the common methods in qualitative research, the semi-structured interview and open observation can contribute a lot to our understanding of abusive educational leadership. But, it is suitable to research design whose sample focuses on a particular group of participants, i.e., those teachers who have experienced abusive educational leadership in their workplace and are ready to talk about it with the researcher.

The semi-structured interview. This type of interview is an interaction between an interviewer and a respondent in which the interviewer has a general plan of inquiry, including a set of topics to be discussed in depth through a careful questioning and listening approach. Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) emphasized the strengths of this interview:

> The qualitative research interview attempts to understand the world from the subjects' points of view, to unfold the meaning of their experiences, to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations (p. 1).

The interview allows disclosing the interviewee's personal experiences, life histories, and feelings, and is useful for gaining in-depth information about sensitive topics and contextual influences upon the researched phenomenon (Hennink, Hutter & Bailey, 2011) such as abusive leadership. The interviewee can provide rationales, explanations, and justifications for their actions, feelings, and attitudes, as Tracy (2013) explains:

> Qualitative interviews provide opportunities for mutual discovery, understanding, reflection, and explanation via a path that is organic, adaptive, and oftentimes energizing… They can explain why they employ certain clichés, jargon, or slang (p.132).

Back to our issue, through a semi-structured interview, the researcher may receive information about the jargon or clichés teachers use when feeling abused by their educational leaders or when evaluating a certain leadership behavior as non-abusive. Teachers as interviewees can be asked to reflect on abusive experiences in the school and connect them to their broader life experiences, colleagues, personality, personal histories, and so forth.

As far as a semi-structured interview is concerned, its flexibility by questioning and structure allows the emergence of new topics and findings during the conversation, but at the same time requires thorough preparation before the interview meeting begins and careful listening throughout the conversation (Gillham, 2005). Thus, although an interview meeting about abusive behaviors and destructive leadership might evoke negative emotions among interviewers (Oplatka, 2018), the interviewer should be on the alert and listen very carefully to the interviewee in order to be able to ask questions in response to his or her statements, stories, feelings, interpretation, and meanings. The questioning, then, is not based on a set of questions that must be asked in a particular order. For example, in their study about child abuse, Hoskins & Kunkel (2020) used ethnographic interviews to trace the abusive experiences of their participants. The following citation illustrates the flexible aspect of the qualitative interviewing:

> …Interviews were conducted with a foundational knowledge about interview participants that informed the use of the interview protocol and allowed for individualized and nuanced follow-up questions. For example, when a participant mentioned in the weekly group meeting that they had their first experience of childhood adversity when they were only 5-years-old, [the interviewer] was able to use that information to make questions more focused and precise in the interview

> process. Instead of asking, "When was the first time you remember experiencing abuse?" [The interviewer] was able to ask, "In group, you mentioned that your first memory of abuse was when you were 5-yearsold? Would you mind telling me more about that experience?" This strategy allowed for greater fluidity and depth in the conversation and resulted in more efficient use of time and arguably a greater degree of disclosure from participants (p. 1031).

Note, however, that as a result of taking part in the interview, any employee (i.e., the interviewee) may start thinking about aspects of abusive educational leadership and in a new or different way, thereby allowing new knowledge and understanding about this and related negative elements in the workplace. The questions in Table One may help researchers write an interview guide in their study about abusive leadership and still remain flexible, asking further questions during the interview meeting. They are formed based on current surveys of abusive leadership and reshaped to accommodate the principles of qualitative research. I encourage researchers to use them in their research on abusive leadership in educational organizations.

Table 1.

A sample of questions from an interview Guide:

1	Could you indicate several harmful behaviors in your workplace? Whose behaviors are they? (e.g. co-workers, superiors)
2	What would you consider 'a toxic work environment'? Why? Please explain.
3	How would you define an abusive or toxic leadership? Why?
4	What kind of behaviors abusive leaders express in the workplace?
5	Have you ever experienced abusive leadership in your job? If not, how could you explain your good luck? If yes, why do you think it was abusive?

6	Can you describe your relationships with your boss/superior/manager? What are the good/bad aspects of it? What are the destructive/abusive aspects in these relationships?
7	When is the first time you can remember being treated cruelly in the workplace?
8	How did you feel after experiencing an abusive leadership behavior?
9	How does it feel to talk about it?
10	Could you think of any positive consequences of abusive leadership?
11	What, in your view, caused your manager to express abusive behaviors?
12	How did you react when feeling abused by your manager?
13	How do leaders demean or intimidate their subordinates? Have you ever experienced these behaviors in your workplace?
14	How is it to work with a manager who marginalize and demoralize subordinates?
15	How does an abusive leader look like?
16	Who are the victims of abusive leaders?

The interview guide includes questions designed to elicit types and prevalence of adverse leadership behaviors and experiences. It also contains questions that encourage storytelling, one of the richest methods of data collection, because it enables employees to 'tell it as it was' and facilitates an understanding of the richness of a personal event and the factors surrounding it. The personal story enables putting the abusive behavior in context, providing insight into the abusive event per se.

Observation. Consistent with Chai et al. (2021), the observational method is particularly suitable in exploring situations in which discrepancies exist between what people do and what they say (e.g., the leader denies behaving abusively), and in complex interactions that involve an environment or physical context (e.g., abusive leadership behaviors may occur in particular contexts or be disguised by other behaviors).

Observation is used as a research method in two distinct ways – structured and unstructured (Pretzlik 1994). While the former way pertains to the positivistic paradigm, the latter is grounded in the naturalistic one and is used to understand and interpret cultural behavior within a particular context (Mulhall, 2003). Researchers using unstructured methods usually enter 'the field' with no predetermined notions as to the discrete behaviors that they might observe. Thus, unstructured observations can provide insight into interactions between abusive educational leaders and their subordinates (i.e., teachers) individually or with a group of employees and are likely to illustrate the whole picture of abusive leadership behaviors, from their beginning through employees' responses until their end. Thus, unstructured observations may capture the context in which abusive educational leadership acts as well as the process through which educational leaders and teachers are engaged in abusive behaviors and their consequences. Researchers who observe abusive leadership behaviors in the workplace may also trace a sequence of events/activities that precede these behaviors as well as the various results of them.

Note, however, that observational data, rather more than interview data, are subject to interpretation by the researcher (Mullhall, 2003). After all, observers have a great degree of freedom and autonomy regarding what they choose to observe (e.g., the meetings of the executive management or the operation department), how they filter that information (e.g., what will be considered abusive leadership), and how it is analyzed. To face this weakness, I would recommend presenting the data collected during the unstructured observation to the observed subjects and ask whether they agree with your interpretations of them. For example, you observed an interaction

between a principal and one of his/her teachers in which he called her 'lazy'. Is this considered to be an abusive leadership behavior in the studied school? Is this a normal behavior? While the observer may attach negative meaning to such a behavior, teachers (i.e., interviewees) may consider it a non-abusive behavior, because it reflects the low performance of this teachers or because the principal uses much more insulting words than that in his/her interaction with his teachers.

Ethical considerations

Studying abusive educational leadership is related, explicitly and implicitly, to the literature about researching sensitive topics defined as those that might cause harm to participants, arouse powerful negative emotions (e.g., anger, sadness, fear, embarrassment), and increase distress among researchers and respondents (Sieber and Stanley, 1988). Lee (1993) defined sensitive research as "research which potentially poses a substantial threat to those who are or have been involved in it" (p.4), conceptualizing "sensitivity" as an emergent rather than an inherent feature of the relationship between topic and research. Some authors have paid attention to the emotional well-being of the researchers, rejecting a model of the research as detached and objective, and warning that researchers of sensitive issues might experience dire emotional consequences (Lee & Lee, 2012). The study of abusive educational leadership is very sensitive, given the potentially dire consequences of discussing the negative aspects in the workplace.

To face the hazards of doing a research on sensitive topics like abusive leadership, researchers suggested employing strategies such as building rapport (e.g., promising full anonymity), avoiding personal questions that might expose the interviewee, beginning the

interview with self-disclosure, planning the interview very carefully (e.g., beginning with general questions about educational leadership and abusive leadership), and supporting the interviewee in extremely sensitive situations such as a personal distress (Lee, 1993).

The protection of human subjects through the application of appropriate ethical principles is important in any research study (Mohd-Arifin, 2018), and particularly in a study that explores negative sensitive organizational phenomena that might cause harm to the participants due to their vulnerable position. The interviewees and the observed subjects may become stressed while expressing their feelings towards and experiences with abusive leaders in their organization.

To follow ethical rules in studies about abusive leadership, interviewees have to be adequately informed about the research (e.g., the negative aspects of leader-followers / employee relations), comprehend the information (e.g., the negative implications of abusive leadership), and have a power of freedom of choice to allow them to decide whether to participate or decline, particularly if they are afraid to be personally harmed by their participation in the study. Likewise, the anonymity and confidentiality of the interviewees must be preserved by not revealing their name, position, social identity and any other detail that might expose the interviewees in the collection, analysis and reporting of the study findings. Privacy and confidentiality of the interview environment have to be managed carefully during telephone communication, interview session, data analysis and dissemination of the findings. This is particularly important when sensitive topics come up in semi-structured interviews about abusive educational leadership and its impact on the school and its members and stakeholders. Interviewers must build

rapport with teachers and establish trustful relationships with them prior to the beginning of the interview.

Conclusions

In their review of the research on abusive leadership, Zhang and Liu (2018) concluded as follow:

> The preceding review shows that various new trends emerge in the examination of abusive supervision. All six of these new trends share similar mechanisms that point to the possible positive effects of abusive supervision. The findings on the possible positive effects of abusive supervision are of the greatest importance and interest to us. We believe that this stream of research may lead to novel thoughts and ideas about the development of abusive supervision and may guide this topic to a new developmental stage" (p.730).

Indeed, new streams of research may generate new ideas and understandings of abusive educational leadership. However, methodology matters; new streams of research should include multiple research paradigms and methodologies that are critical to any progress in knowledge production. Therefore, the research on the negative aspects in educational leadership should be open to new research paradigms and foster qualitative methodologies as a means to enlarge our knowledge of abusive leadership and its factors and consequences in organizations.

More specifically, I encourage researchers in the field of educational administration and leadership to initiate research programs about abusive (and related) educational leadership from an interpretive point of view. Thus, instead of focusing on correlations and cause-and-effect relations, researchers may want to consider the

unique behaviors of abusive leaders in the educational contexts, based on the subjective voices of teachers, students, and stakeholders, explore the determinants facilitating the growth of abusive leadership in schools, or tracing the implications of abusive educational leadership for student achievement, teacher moral, or parents' tendency to be involved in the schooling process. After all, the educational organization has particular aspects that are likely to influence the patterns and behaviors of abusive leaders in education.

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Success Through Leadership Resilience: Qualitative Exploration of a Selected Rural High School

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Abstract

Failure and drop-out rate in rural high schools (RHSs) in South Africa remains a prevailing crisis. This has been attributed to issues such as poor/limited infrastructures, poverty, unemployment, among others. Thus, this case study explores the issue of a purposively selected South African Rural High School (RHS) with 15 years' success rate at terminal examination known as Matric. Qualitative method was adopted, hence, interviews were conducted with eight purposively selected staff members of the school: one principal, one deputy principal, three departmental heads, two teachers and one senior admin clerk. The collected data was coded, categorised, thereafter thematically analysed. The findings of the study showed that resources in the selected rural high school are limited, and dropout impacts the school negatively. Nonetheless, with resilience and collaborative efforts of the school leaders: principal, deputy principal, teachers and other staff members, as well as limited reliance on government learners can be supported to succeed, thus increasing pass rate. The study therefore, recommends among others the need for school leaders to believe in their abilities, be resilient in their pursuit of ensuring learners' success and if need be, rely minimally on support from the government.

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Introduction

The rate of dropout in South Africa is a major crisis (Dyomfana, 2022; Mokoena & van Breda, 2021), especially in rural high schools which is also known as previously disadvantaged schools (de Hart & Venter, 2013; Mandi, 2012). For instance, BusinessTech (2023) reports that 31.8% of dropout rate was recorded in the year 2022. However, alluding to the report by the Department of Basic Education, Stoltz (2023) states that "The rate at which learners drop out of school in South Africa improved by 10% in the 2022 academic year compared with levels in 2019, before the Covid-19 pandemic" (par. 1). Meanwhile, Stoltz (2023) referring to rural areas using the case of a selected South African Province further states that "rural areas … did not have enough secondary schools, forcing learners to drop out if there were no schools near them" (par. 12). This suggests the critical state of rural areas.

Following the submission of Marongwe, Kariyana and Mbodila (2020), the contributory reasons for the high dropout rate in South African institutions of learning include emotional factors, lack of infrastructures, inclusive of accommodation, as well as poor teaching and learning venue. The work of other scholars showed that other factors responsible for increased dropout include poor socio-economic background (Strumpher, 2018; Hartnack, 2017; Mohlouoa, 2014), lack of adequate funding from the government (du Plessis & Mestry, 2019;), parental issues, lack of qualified teachers (du Plessis & Mestry, 2019;

Mohlouoa, 2014), teenage pregnancy (Hartnack, 2017), school and community factors (Mokgosi, 2016), transport and accommodation challenges (Strumpher, 2018). This is in congruence with the work of (Deleted for the integrity of the review) which shows that distance and by extension transportation is a challenge for students studying in rural institutions of learning. Meanwhile, reviews of the works of Metelerkamp (2022), Gatsi (2021), Gubbels, van der Put and Assink (2019), show that dropout impacts negatively on the learners themselves, members of their families, their immediate communities, and the society at large.

On the other hand, Metelerkamp (2022) holds the view that "While everyone in South Africa is impacted by the phenomenon, everyone has the potential to be part of the solution" (par. 1, italics added for emphasis). This implies that the solution to reducing or possibly eradicating academic failure and by extension rate of dropout in different parts of a nation is a collective responsibility of all individuals, rather than the common notion of the government being responsible for such. Thus, the reason for this study which explore the case of a selected rural high school (RHS) ensuring success for over 11 years. The question is: how did a rural high school (RHS) manage to ensure consistency in good pass rate in terminal examinations? It is believed by the researcher that for the selected rural secondary school to have recorded precisely 15 years success rate regardless of the limitations and other challenges peculiar to secondary schools in rural Africa, there are lessons to be learnt. The lessons are believed to possibly help capacitate the leadership of secondary schools with similar context. Thus, the reason for this case study. The study is guided by a research question: what strategies have the selected rural high school (RHS) put in place to enhance good pass rate? The study

is sectioned into the following: conceptualization of terms, theoretical framework, methodology, findings and discussion, conclusion and recommendations.

Conceptualization of terms

Rural High School (RHS): In the African context, rural high schools (RHSs) are institutions of learning at high school level situated in rural environments (Mofokeng, 2019). They are also described as disadvantaged (Maila & Ross, 2018), thus, in some instances they are categorised as part of the historically disadvantaged institutions of learning (Mofokeng, 2019). In this study, rural high schools (RHSs) are used to mean secondary schools situated in rural areas of South Africa.

Resilience: this refers to the ability of an individual to adapt positively to different negative situations or experiences of adversity (PsychCentral, 2022; Southwick, et al 2014; Herrman et al. 2011). It also means ""the protective factors and processes or mechanisms that contribute to a good outcome, despite experiences with stressors shown to carry significant risk for developing (Herrman et al 2011, 259-260)." In this study, resilience implies, ability of an individual or group of people to cope with difficult challenges and thrive to succeed.

Terminal examination: In the context of South African rural secondary schools, as well as this study, it is known as "National Senior Certificate" which is commonly referred to as 'Matric'

Resilience theory

Resilience theory according to Moore (2019, par. 2) "argues that it's not the nature of adversity that is most important, but how we deal with it." In other words, the way and manner in which individuals or a group of people tackle difficult or challenging situations are more

crucial than the situations themselves. Moore (2019) further posits that "When we face adversity, misfortune, or frustration, resilience helps us bounce back. It helps us survive, recover, and even thrive in the face and wake of misfortune, …. (par. 3)." In congruence, Li (2022) states that resilience entails how individuals or group of people are able to "…bounce back in life after experiencing an adverse situation in a strength-focused approach (par. 1)." According to scholars like Fergus and Zimmerman (2005) and Fraser, Galinsky and Richman (1999), resilience theory is the product of a shift in paradigm which helps to explain what and how promotive factors function in order to enable people or group(s) to overcome any negative impact(s) of exposure to risk(s). Li (2022) submits that resilience is characterised by the following as presented and explained below:

1. Static Traits Vs Dynamic Process: resilience goes beyond personality traits of individuals. Li (2022) citing the work of Masten (2013), states that "resilience is the capacity of a dynamic process adapting successfully to disturbances that threaten … development (par. 16)." This implies that resilience is an ever changing adaptation procedure.

2. Extraordinary Asset Vs Ordinary Resources: According to Li (2022), factors such as gender, intelligence, and temperament which are considered as extraordinary assets of individuals contribute to resilience. However, external factors of individuals often perform substantial role(s) in determining an individual's ability to positively or negatively adapt to situation(s). Examples of such external factors which are described as resources include: parental support, family, community, among others. In the context of this study, the question remains, how well are rural schools able to draw from external factors otherwise known as ordinary resources?

3. Fixed Vs Variable: This characteristic explains the possibility of an

individual or group of people to adapt well in an environment but fail in another. Thus, if the staff members: principal, deputy principal, teachers and admin clerk, in the selected rural high school adopted for this study are taken to another environment: rural or urban, will they be able to cope and still achieve the same success?

4. Resilience Theory Vs Resiliency Theory: resilience theory entails a dynamic process as well as most protective factors which come from outside of a person (Li, 2022). The process is referred to as resilient adaptation. Resiliency theory on the other hand entails the quality of the individual. Thus, for this study, the dynamic process adapted by the participants in ensuring the success of the learners despite the challenges are explored.

The foregoing implies that resilience theory focuses on the adaptive features capable of helping people or group(s) overcome challenges in order to achieve success amidst difficult situations. The subsequent section presents the methodology adopted for data collection in this study.

Methodology

Qualitative method was adopted for this study. This is in congruence with the submission of Kumar (2019) and Creswell (2014) who state that the use of qualitative method in a study enables the collection of in-depth information. The study is a case study which was conducted using one selected rural high school. Purposive sampling technique was employed in selecting the institution of learning. Purposive sampling was adopted because it supported and allowed for the deliberate act of choosing participants based on their qualities. The selected rural high school shares similar features with other rural South African secondary schools. Among these features are the

location, untarred roads, poor road network, as well as limited or poor infrastructures. The eight (8) participants of this study who were purposively selected deliberately based on certain inclusion criteria marked by the researcher. The inclusion criteria are: virtue of knowledge, years of teaching in the selected secondary school, as well as their leadership positions. This was in an attempt to ensure that the responses from the participants would be able to proffer answers to the research question which guided the study. Additionally, the time schedule and willingness of the participants to take part in the study were taken into consideration.

Thus, the participants for this study comprise the principal, one deputy principal, three departmental heads, two teachers and one senior admin clerk. The two teachers though not holding leadership positions were considered important to enable the triangulation of responses retrieved from the leaders. Data was collected through semi-structured interviews conducted for each of the participants. Semi-structured interview was adopted in order to give room for additional follow-up questions where possible and considered necessary by the researcher. The retrieved data was coded, categorised, thereafter themes were generated and used for analysis. This process is in alignment with the view of Saldaña (2016) who posit that data be coded, categorised and themes generated. Following the codes identified from the data collected from the participants, a careful scrutiny was done and certain patterns emerged. The patterns were categorised, thereafter themes were generated.

Ethical consideration

The researcher ensured to adhere to ethics guiding research. Hence, permission was first sought from the provincial Department of Education (DoE), thereafter a message was sent across to the education

district office which requested that the principal of the selected rural high school (RHS) be contacted. The researcher contacted the principal of the selected school, explained the research, what it entailed, and presented a copy of the ethical clearance received from the Provincial DoE. Once permission was granted by the principal, the selected departmental heads, teachers and admin clerk were approached and issued the informed consent form before arrangements were made for the interviews. The informed consent forms had attached to them an introduction of the researcher as well as a summary of the study. The potential participants were informed of that anonymity was going to be maintained all through, thus, their names or the names of their school or any identifying feature would not be released at any point in this study. After, the consent of the potential participants had been received, due arrangement was made for interviews. With the permission of the interviewees, the interviews were audio recorded following the position of Kural (2020) who states that "Recording doesn't only help you retain the information you find relevant at an interview, but also gives you the chance to re-listen and discover new themes and answers you haven't thought of during the interview (par. 7)."

Data credibility

To ensure the credibility of the data, the researcher endeavoured to adhere to the following procedures outlined by Shenton (2004):

Familiarity with the culture of research site and trust building: The researcher first ensured that there was an appropriate early familiarity with the culture of the selected rural high school (RHS) before any data collection. According to Shenton (2004), this is achievable by consulting the right documents. Thus, the researcher consulted

education policy documents of South Africa in order to know what was obtainable as the appropriate practice. The researcher also carried out a search about the selected rural high school online. Also, Shenton (2004), citing Erlandson, Harris, Skipper and Allen (1993) as well as Lincoln and Guba (1986) explains the need for prolonged engagement between the researcher and participants. This is envisaged to help the researcher in ensuring adequate understanding of the research site and at the same time build a relationship of trust with the participant(s) (Shenton, 2004). This is in congruence with the adaptation by Forero et al. (2018). Thus, for this study, the researcher ensured to engage with the principal of the school who was one of the participants and a link to others. The relationship between the researcher and the principal prior to the time of data collection lasted for over three months.

Triangulation: Shenton (2004) supports the need for triangulation, especially using observation in addition to interviews. Shenton supporting the work of Brewer and Hunter (1989), buttresses the notion that adopting different methods for data collection in a single study helps to take care of issues bordering around limitations in retrieved data. For this study, the researcher endeavoured to observe things by staying in the selected school from about seven in the morning until after the close of work (about half past two) in the afternoon on days of visiting the school. The researcher had the opportunity of attending classes with one of the teachers to see how lessons are conducted, and move around to speak with teachers and other non-academic staff who were non-participant in the study. Also, the responses of the two teachers who were purposively selected as participants of the study were used to triangulate the information retrieved from the other participants who held one leadership position or the other.

Iterative questioning: This is a strategy described by Shenton (2004) as one which can be adopted in an attempt to uncover lies during data collection. It can be done by rephrasing certain questions to find out if the same answer would be given (Shenton, 2004). In this study, the adoption of semi-structured interview gave the researcher the opportunity of asking one question in different ways by rephrasing the statement.

Description of the research site: Shenton (2004) advocates for the description of the research site to enable readers familiarize themselves and know the extent to which the findings can be transferred to other possible similar situations. Hence, the next section presents a description of the research site.

The research site

Attempt is made to present certain cogent useful information about the selected rural high school without making mention of its name or any feature capable of making it identifiable. The school was established in 1989 by members of the community considering that there was no high school around the community at that time. The learners in the school come from different communities. For some, the possibility of travelling daily is enormous, hence, they had to rent houses around, while some others travel long distances daily. The rate of transport making rounds daily are regulated. Designated bus come to drop and pick specific learners daily. Similarly, teachers have to travel in common bus as taxes hardly access the environment. This implies that once a teacher or learner misses the designated transport for the day, s/he may have to wait until the following day. The school is a Quintile 1 school which is a non-fee paying school and the lowest in the ranks of schools in South Africa where Quintile 5 which is fee paying ranks the highest and always situated in developed areas. The

selected rural high school has 12 classrooms, 24 teachers, 731 learners and have maintained 15 years of successful pass rate in terminal examinations called Matric. This accounts for one of the reasons people from other communities come all the way. The community lacks internet facilities, thus, signal of telephone service providers are poor and in some instances, do not exist. There are two toilets in the school, hence, staff members and the learners share the same toilets. There are tanks seen around the school premises which aids the availability of potable water. The school environment is porous, giving room for vandalism.

Findings and Discussion

The findings of the study are presented following the six themes generated from the coded and categorised data collected from the interviews conducted for the participants. The first three themes are used to provide background information about the selected school based on the responses of the participants. Other themes are thereafter used to present the strategies employed by the selected secondary school. The identified themes from the analysed data are as presented and explained below.

Theme 1: Limited support

One of the findings of the study showed that the school received limited support from government, Department of Education (DoE), and community members. For instance, one of the participants reported saying "We hardly receive support, not even from the councillor. I have personally spoken to him to support us like at least, fix the road in front of our school, he rather said that it's not a local but national road." Another participant has this to say: "I approached certain companies to assist us but they declined saying that we are out

of their radius coverage of support." This finding is in congruence with the works of Marongwe, Kariyana and Mbodila (2020) du Plessis and Mestry (2019) as well as Mohlouoa (2014) who hold the view that lack of support from relevant education stake holders cause failure and increase the rate of dropout in institutions of learning. Meanwhile, Li (2022) describes such support as part of the external factors which are crucial in ensuring resilience.

Theme 2: Limited infrastructure

Similar to the theme 1, another finding of the study is the lack of resources such as classroom, library, comfort rooms (toilet), among others. One of the participants reported saying: "We only have 12 classrooms." In congruence, from observation, it was discovered that there is no library and in one of the classes, there were 52 learners. Meanwhile, the recommended learner to teacher ratio (LTR) in South African schools is 30:1 (Kosie, 2022). According to Nkosi (2022), it was believed generally that the Department of Basic Education had a benchmark of an ideal situation of 35 learners to a teacher. However, reporting the words of the minister of Basic Education in person of Motshekga, on the subject of learner teacher ratio Nkosi (2022) reports "The post provisioning norms apply what is referred *to as ideal maximum class size for each subject which ranges from six learners per class in the case of music, to 37 for subjects that accommodate large class sizes* (par. 6)." This implies that the class size of 52 remains outrageous even if taken to mean the laid down description of large class size. Similarly, on lack of infrastructures, a participant reported saying "we only have two toilets in this school, so the teachers share with the learners…." This finding is in congruence with the works of Marongwe, Kariyana and Mbodila (2020), (Deleted for the integrity of the review) as well as (Deleted for the integrity of the review) which show that rural

institutions of learning lack infrastructures which are contributory to the high rate of failure, consequently dropout. Suffice to state that one factor that is expected to have affected the pass rate of learners in the selected rural high school is the lack of infrastructure. However, the case seems not to be so, as the school has been able to maintain a pass rate for 15 years.

Theme 3: Impact of dropout

The finding of the study shows that learner dropout impacts negatively on the school and community. For instance, one of the participants reports that "There was a time that computers were donated to the school, they didn't even last one month." Another participant reporting on the perpetrators of crime says that "… part of those vandalising the properties of the school and breaking in to steal are learners who dropped out." In furtherance. another participant reported saying: "… the crime rate is high because some of the learners drop out and go to town in search of small jobs like pushing trolleys, and then engage in drugs, and the crime rate starts to increase." By extension, high rate of dropout increases the level of unemployment in the community. This finding of the study indicates that learners dropping out eventually affects the school negatively. This finding is in congruence with the finding of the works of Metelerkamp (2022), Gatsi (2021), Gubbels, van der Put and Assink (2019) which show that learners dropping out of school have negative impacts on the community, which in the context of this study includes the school from which the learners dropped out.

Theme 4: Non-reliance on government

One of the findings from the analysed data shows that the selected rural high school (RHS), tends not to rely totally on the

government for all their needs. One of the participants reported saying "We can't wait for the government for everything. For example, if a window is broken (pointing to the window in the office), waiting for the government to come fix it may mean waiting endlessly, whereas, it can be easily fixed." This corroborates the work of Metelerkamp (2022) who states that "While everyone in South Africa is impacted by the phenomenon, *everyone has the potential to be part of the solution* (par. 1, italics added for emphasis)." This implies that every individual has a role to play in assisting to ensure that the necessary factors are put in place to avoid high rate of dropout, rather than leave everything to the government.

A participant also reported that considering the literacy level of the parents of learners, assignments are not done at home, hence, "… must come on Saturdays to guide them to do the work." The interviewee further states that "During breaks, call and ask them the question individually so as to know where they are lacking and how to help them" Additionally, it was reported that the need for a subject like agriculture which is not in the curriculum was seen, hence, included as part of what is taught to learners. During the interviews, three of the participants recurred that they make do with whatever the government provides through the Department of Basic Education (DoBE), however, they try not to rely on them, rather they make other possible efforts. The foregoing suggests non-reliance on government for instance in making arrangement for extra classes for learners, but taking initiative to make available what is considered important and needful to the learners.

Theme 5: Collaborative effort

The effort of all education stakeholders are needed in combating the rate of dropout (Metelerkamp, 2022). This coincides with one of the

findings of this study which suggests that part of the resilience mechanism adopted by the selected rural high school in ensuring increased pass rate for the learners for the past 15 years has been collaborative efforts. From the observation of the researcher, the teachers seem to live like a big family. The researcher attributed this to their travelling together in common transport since there are no very few or no commercial vehicles plying that area at will. Hence, teachers had to contribute to get a taxi which picks them at a specified location every morning every school day and takes them back after school hours.

During one of the visits of the researcher, teachers were seen eating from the same bowl of food. The researcher therefore concluded that these are factors helping them to bond with one another. To support this, during the interviews, one of the participants reported that "… the school is trying to make all learners look equal. *We* buy uniforms for some learners who don't have. With this, you cannot see the type of family a learner is coming from: poor …." This suggest collaborative effort in making learners emotionally strong as not having good uniforms can hamper their esteem.

Meanwhile, Marongwe, Kariyana and Mbodila (2020) posit that emotional factors are part of the reasons for dropout in South Africa. From observation, the researcher concluded that collaborative efforts may be possible for the staff members considering how they all relate with one another. For instance, teachers share things in common. In brief, from observation, the school seems to be ran like a typical traditionally African family where the principal functions as the 'father' of the house, while the deputy principal who happens to be a female, together with the departmental heads and teacher function as the 'mother' of the house and the learners are considered as the

children of them all. This observation perhaps accounts for the reason behind the care given to the learners, and such having effect on the pass rate of the school.

Theme 6: Resilience: a necessity for success

The findings from the study shows that the staff members: principal, deputy principal, admin clerk and teachers tend to be resilient in managing what is available to them to support the learners to succeed. One of the participants reporting on issue of comfort room says "… sometimes, you get to the toilet, only to find out that learners have thrown stones inside….." This suggest one of the challenges faced, yet overlooked in order to focus on the main goal which is the success of learners. Another participant with regards to seeking support reported saying "I travelled to a paper making company in a nearby town seeking for support for our learners, but they declined saying that our school was out of the radius of communities that they support. I was forced to tell them that whenever, they come to cut the paper trees in the rural areas around our us, we won't allow. It was at this point that they obliged to support us in some ways."

Considering the challenge of network, a participant reporting on what has been done so far said "We have approached service providers to come erect their mast. After much back and forth, writing of letters to and through the district, they have finally agreed. We are waiting for them to fulfil their promise." Additionally, from the observation of the researcher, there was an occasion in which there was limited space in a vehicle conveying some of the teachers in the selected rural high school, and there was no space to accommodate one more teacher who was left, a male teacher allowed a female colleague to carry him on her laps while they journeyed to school. This can be considered as resilience on the part of the teachers. In other words,

what matters is that they get to school to discharge their duties to enable their learners learn and perform well academically. Surviving and succeeding in such conditions as expressed by interviewees can be tantamount to resilient adaptation as referred to by Li (2022). Suffice to state that rather than give up or do nothing or wait for the government, resilience makes a person or group(s) to explore various options on what can be done to achieve the desired results, which is what has been embraced by the leadership of the selected rural high school.

Conclusion and recommendations

Challenges in South African schools continue to linger, especially in rural settlements due to the high rates of illiteracy, poverty, unemployment and other features that characterise them. However, with resilience, success is considered achievable as is the case with the selected rural high school (RHS) considered in this study, rather than believe and wait on the government for solution(s) to every challenge. Meanwhile, in ensuring resilience, collaborative efforts are needed from the leadership of the school as they are at the forefront and their in/action(s) is capable of making learners feel motivated to work towards achieving success or dropout. Nonetheless, the dropout of learners is bound to have adverse effect on the school, community and others. To this end the following recommendations are made:

- Rural high school (RHS) leaders should believe in their abilities, determine to be resilient in their pursuit of ensuring learners' success.
- School leaders, especially those situated in rural areas should strive not to rely on the government for support. While government support is pivotal, it may be lacking in many instances or come late. Thus, school leaders need to be

proactive, take initiative, make efforts by considering other possible avenues towards getting solutions to challenges.

Delimitation and suggestion for further study

The study was delimited to one rural high school (RHS) and qualitative method. Thus, studies can be conducted in this regard through the use of other research approaches such as quantitative or mixed methods. This can be conducted using two or more rural high schools within the same or different education districts and/or provinces.

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Teachers' Organizational Commitment: The Role of Demographic Characteristics and Their Psychological Empowerment in Turkey

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Abstract

This research was aimed at examining the influence of teachers' psychological empowerment on their commitment to the school in the case of private schools in Antalya province, Turkey. Data were collected twice, first 297 teachers for scale development; second, we collected data from separate 297 teachers for the main analysis. A correlational type of research design was utilized. As a result, teachers were psychologically empowered and strongly committed to school at a high level. Teachers have statistically no or very weak differences regarding their education level, gender, and length of service in their perception of both psychological empowerment and organizational commitment. Moreover, psychological empowerment and teachers' organizational commitment were significantly correlated. Finally, it was seen that the influence dimension was an important predictor of organizational commitment.

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Attitude, length of service, and age had no significant effect. Therefore it is recommended that principals should actively build the social, intellectual, and professional capital of teachers, which results in teachers themselves being empowered psychologically and finally committed to the school.

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Introduction

A teacher plays a crucial role in the effectiveness of any school. Therefore, the teacher's commitment and empowerment play a key role in becoming a highly competitive and productive institutions and in realizing educational visions, missions, and goals (Firman & Tola, 2008; Jomah, 2017; Mart, 2013). Psychological empowerment is a relevant means for fostering the institutional commitment of employees (Dee et al., 2006; Özdemir & Gören, 2017). Specifically, in a school setting, teacher empowerment had an impact on the commitment of teachers to school (Dee et al., 2006). According to Özdemir and Gören (2017), teachers' institutional commitment has a relationship with leadership team coherence and their psychological empowerment.

Psychological empowerment (PE)

Recently, many scholars have shown an emergent interest in the model of employee empowerment since it became important for service quality and customer satisfaction (Yesuf, 2011). As Bindurani (2015) compiled different studies, empowerment has been defined

differently by different scholars. In many studies over the past years, empowerment is similar to delegating power to lower employees and, hence, they limited the concept of empowerment to power. This is called structural or relational empowerment (Yesuf, 2011). Later, empowerment was a state of mind that consisted of feelings beyond delegating power such as control, equity, responsibility, and accountability over the job to be performed (Mohammed, 2011).

Empowerment, according to Spreitzer (1995), is a set of intellects and continuous variables formed by a job atmosphere, not a stable personality trait generalizable across various circumstances. Spreitzer (1995) identified 4 major factors of PE: competence, meaning, impact, and autonomy. Competence is considered the belief that employees can accomplish a task (Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Other researchers defined it as a role mastery that involves the skilful execution of one or more allocated chores (Kesari et al., 2017; Sanjay, 1999). Meaning is the importance of organizational tasks for employees or worthiness of job purposes and intraindividual interest in the job (Allameh et al., 2012; Kesari, et al., 2017; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Uma & Jayabharathi, 2016). The dimension of self-determination/autonomy is the belief that employees can determine how to do their jobs by establishing flexibility in governing their own task success, and initiating novel chores as difficulties or occasions arise (Kesari et al., 2017; Spreitzer, 1995). Autonomy literally refers self-regulation, contradicts with heteronomy, which means regulation from external positive and negative environment (Fourie, 2009). Last, not the dimension of psychological empowerment is impact- the belief that employees have a relative impact on organizational results by making a difference (Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

Teachers who are empowered believe they have self-confidence, a positive attitude towards their profession, and more autonomy in undertaking tasks (Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Based on previous findings, researchers propose the following hypothesis 1.

H1: Teachers are psychologically empowered.

PE may differ across individuals (Spreitzer, 1995; Zimmerman, 2000). For instance, in terms of gender, men generally experienced more empowerment in past years due to environmental influences (Zimmerman, 1995). Fourie (2009) revealed that there was a relationship between personal characteristics and PE in South Africa. Fourie (2009) and Gecas (1989) revealed that there was gender difference in PE. For instance, Gecas (1989), Hechanova et al. (2006), and Koberg et al. (1999) found that males have a greater sense of PE than females. However, Spreitzer's (1995), Menon and Kotze (2005); Ozaralli (2003) found that perceived PE empowerment did not differ between male and female.

Based on level of education, various scholars found that there was positive and linear relationship level of education and PE (Gecas, 1989; Ozaralli, 2003; Sarmiento et al., 2004). For example, Ozaralli (2003) found that BA holders have greater sense of PE than diploma or high school graduates. However, Koberg et al. (1999) found level of education has not relationship with feelings of PE. Fourie (2009) also found a there was positive relationship between educational level and PE. Scholars also discovered a significant difference between institutions in PE (Hechanova et al., 2006; Ozaralli, 2003). Based on previous findings, researchers propose the following hypothesis 2.

H2: There are significant mean differences among teachers regarding gender, marital status, and school levels in their psychological empowerment level.

Organizational commitment (OC)

Like psychological empowerment, commitment is a key element to organizational progress and growth in all sectors. Institutional commitment provides curiosity, moral interest, and self-confidence for handling tasks. Mowday et al. (1979), defined it as the relative power of a person's identification to and immersion in a specific institution (p. 226). It determines employees' level of acceptance of institutional goals (identification), willingness to exert effort (involvement), and keeping up attachment to institutions (loyalty). Commitment consists of commitment to the profession, students, society, and organizations. Example commitment to a community linked to schools and community (Shukla, 2014). In other studies, commitment comprised of OC, professional commitment, and union commitment (Kadyschuk, 1997; Meyer et al., 1993).

This study focuses on commitment to the organization. OC is the eagerness to work for a long time in the institution concerning to the institution's objectives or ends (Kadyschuk, 1997; Meyer et al., 1993). It has three constructs: Continuance, affective, or continuance commitment (Jomah, 2017). For instance, affective commitment refers to workers feeling passionately close to missions and the vision of the institutions. Workforces who have this commitment will integrate the ends and means to fulfil institutional objectives (Hamid et al., 2013; Meyer & Allen, 2004; Setyaningsih & Sunaryo, 2021).

Teachers' school commitment must be owned by all professional teachers since it has far-reaching consequences on the outcomes of schools (Firman & Tola, 2008; Mart, 2013). Committed

teachers have a predisposition to achieve the tasks effectively and efficiently, form a good teacher-student relationship, and facilitate student wisdom and the progress of terminal behaviour (Mart, 2013). When influential or top leaders are observed as participatory, personnel feel more committed to the institution. This results in satisfaction of job and good enactment amongst employees in their respective institutions (Bogler & Somech, 2004). In addition to leaders' leadership style, the school environment at all school levels has a stronger influence on the commitment of teachers (Yu et al., 2002). A study in Banjarmasin's elementary schools showed that teachers' commitment was very good. This was determined by economic motivation (Aslamiah, 2019). A study in Banjarmasin showed that teachers' commitment in elementary schools was very good (Aslamiah, 2019; Yu et al., 2002). Based on previous findings, researchers propose the following hypothesis 3.

H3: Teachers are committed to the school.

Many researchers discovered that OC is predicted by personal characteristics (e.g. age, gender, marital status, and work experience) and extrinsic influences (e.g. payment, leadership policies, and job security (Basel & Issam, 2019; Markovits et al., 2014; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Singh & Gupta, 2015). For instance, Singh and Gupta (2015) discovered older employees (more than 45) incline to be highest in affective commitment. Primary school teachers have a higher commitment to their school goals than high school teachers (Yu et al., 2002). Based on previous findings, researchers propose the following hypothesis 4.

H4: There are significant mean differences among teachers regarding gender, marital status, and school levels in their OC level

Psychological empowerment and organizational commitment

According to various studies in different contexts, teachers' organizational commitment has a relationship with leadership, team coherence, and psychological empowerment. Chen and Chen (2008), for instance, found that all the remaining three cognitions except self-determination have a noteworthy connection with institutional commitment. A study in Malaysia showed employees feel empowered if they are given independence in defining in what way they do their career and are involved in outcomes that affect the organization. These in turn made them more committed to their institutions. Nonetheless, others found that PE didn't influence OC significantly (Ambad & Bahron, 2012). In terms of age, Gecas (1989) discovered a curvilinear pattern that increasing PE n middle age and steadily declining after 60 ages. Ozaralli (2003) found that age significantly correlated with PE.

Based on working experience, Huang et al. (2006), Koberg et al. (1999), McDermott et al. (1996) and Ozaralli (2003) also discovered that more experienced employees have greater feelings of empowerment; while Sarmiento et al. (2004) did not discover the positive relationship between teaching years' experience and PE in Canada. There were a positive relationship between age, length of service and PE (Fourie, 2009). The reason for these correlations is that with age, length of service, peoples' competencies enhanced as they exposed to various opportunities. Koberg et al. (1999) stated that increased PE results in job satisfaction and commitment. Huang et al. (2006) and Krajcsák (2018) discovered leadership can produce PE among employees that lead to OC. In Malaysia, a study on 258 teachers indicated that there was a moderate linear relationship between empowerment and commitment of teachers (Hamid et al., 2013). Chen and Chen (2008) also discovered that a feeling of meaning, competence, and impact

yields strong institutional commitment. However, in their study, feelings of self-determination couldn't lead to OC. Nabila (2008) discovered that feelings of competence and impact have a substantial positive association; however, meaning and self-determination didn't. Likewise, Dee et al. (2002) revealed that merely a feeling of competence in school results in strong institutional commitment of employees.

A study on Saudi Academics showed that teachers who had independence in making important decisions concerning the teaching and learning process (self-determination) and influence on the school's outcomes (impact) had also strong school commitment (Jomah, 2017). A study in Malaysia in the construction sector revealed employees feel empowered and committed to their organization if they are taking part in important management issues such as decision making (Ambad & Bahron, 2012). In addition, they showed that some personal characteristics such as level of education and working experience did not meaningfully moderate the association between PE and OC (Ambad & Bahron, 2012; Titus, 2000). However, the feeling of meaning and competence (attitude) did not have an impact on commitment significantly (Ambad & Bahron, 2012). These existences of differences in research results require further investigation. Previous studies showed that length of service and age did have significant relationship with PE and OC (Ambad & Bahron 2012; Titus, 2000). Thus, based on previous findings, researchers propose the following hypothesis 5.

H5: Teachers' psychological empowerment and demographic characteristics (age and length of service) are predictors of organizational commitment.

Theoretical Framework

Empowerment constructs varied in various circumstances (Zimmerman, 2000), for instance, at the personal level, it consists of

participatory behaviour, feeling control, and efficacy while at organizational level; PE contains shared leadership, and occasions to develop competencies. Zimmerman (2000) defined PE as an empowerment at the individual level. Numerous researchers researched the psychological empowerment and its interrelationships with other variables and subsequently articulated various theories. The social cognitive theory contains triangle reciprocal influences of cognitions. behaviour, and the environment (Bandura, 1977). That means a belief in one's competencies leads the motivation to utilize cognitive resources and achieve environmental expectations and vice versa. There are many models of PE (Fourie, 2009). Thomas and Velthouse's (1990), Spreitzer's (1995), Menon's (2001) and Zimmerman's (1995) models of PE, just to mention a few.

Based on the social cognitive theory, Zimmerman (1995) proposed a three constructs of PE framework: intrapersonal, interactional and behavioural factors. Zimmerman (1995) frameworks are in line with three dimensions of Bandura's (1977) PE (behaviour, cognitions and the environment). Spreitzer (1995) identified 4 competence, meaning, impact, and autonomy as factors of PE. Social cognitive theory framework that combines both antecedents and outcomes of feeling empowered. For instance, as antecedent factors, individuals' information such as service years, gender, and education level were investigated. Menon (2001) also formulated a three-dimensional PE: perceived control; competence; and goal internalization. All these models or theories reflect the intrinsic motivational factors, which consists of personal cognitions that inspire individuals to act. There is agreement among theories in the idea that PE is a process in which there are antecedents that shape cognitions, in turn, yields a kind to the advantages to individuals and organizations.

Spreitzer (1995) recommended further study to on PE by including different institutional variables to show their impact on feelings of PE. Most pervious researchers used Spreitzer's (1995) model. The present study also used Spreitzer's (1995) model Thus, for this study, the social cognitive theory as a theory, and the model developed by Spreitzer (1995) as basis for PE model were used.

Referring theoretical framework of organizational commitment, initially, it defined in the "exchanged-based definition" or "side-bet" theory. Exchange theory states that people are committed to the institution as far as they are in their positions, regardless of nature of working environment. OC considers as a single dimension in terms of attitudinal point of views, which refers to the psychological attachment formed by an employee in the respective organization (Porter et al., 1974). However, after further studies, Allen and Meyer's (1990) formulated three-dimensional (affective, continuance, and normative) OC model on basis of individuals' attitudes and perceptions that connects the workers to the institutions. Social exchange theory describes the social interdependence available among employees, and their attachment to institutions. According to Social exchange theory, social interdependence in an institution is predicted by personal characteristics (e.g. age, gender, and work experience) (Basel & Issam, 2019). For this study, Allen and Meyer's (1990) model of OC was used. Furthermore, the conceptual framework of this study also follows the XY (the effect of PE (X) on OC (Y)) model of Igartua and Hayes (2021) which can help to examine issues from a systemic perspective and finally their interdependence and interrelationships were tested.

Method

Research Design and Participants

Since the topics aimed at establish a generalized model that links the relationship between various elements under different circumstances, a correlational research design was utilized to (Allen, 2017). The research was conducted in Antalya, Turkey. Purposively, all private school teachers who worked in the central districts of Antalya were chosen as the target population of this study. There were 4954 teachers within 157 private schools in five central districts of Antalya province (Konyaltı, Muratpaşa, Kepez, Aksu, and Döşemealtı). Vocational private high schools and kindergartens were not included. Multi-stage sampling was used to select the final samples. In the first stage, as criteria, the researchers selected all 38 schools that have primary, secondary, and high schools from five central districts of Antalya province. Then the researchers selected 10 private schools (2 from each central district) randomly out of 38 schools that have primary, secondary, and high school. These schools contain more population units than are needed for the final sample. Therefore, researchers lastly picked 354 teachers from the selected 10 schools by using simple random sampling techniques. From this, 297 (83%) teachers responded with complete data.

Data Collection Instruments and Procedures

Socio-demographic characteristics

The following five socio-demographic backgrounds of teachers have been taken as independent variables to show the difference in their perception of organizational commitment. The measures of the

external environment included: gender, age, school level, and length of service (total years of teaching experience).

Teachers' psychological empowerment Scale

Spreitzer (1995) developed 12-item to estimate the perceived level of psychological empowerment of workforces with a Cronbach's alpha of .72. It also has four constructs: Self-determination, impact, meaning, and competence. In this study, the original version developed by Spreitzer, was used with her permission. The validity and reliability analysis of this study was conducted and reported below. On the other hand, Sürgevil, Tolay, and Topoyan (2013) adapted the instrument to Turkish and they reported that Cronbach's alpha values were between .83 and .89. When examining different studies from a variety of organizations, different scholars found various factors of psychological empowerment. According to Hancer & George (2005), for instance, self-determination and impact were combined into one construct and called influence (seeking freedom in commencing and execution work and creating an influence on schools' success) and competence also appeared as a factor which named attitude (seeking to assess feelings of workers to the profession and person's belief that they own the knowledge and skills). A Cronbach's alpha was .89 for the general scale. Fulford & Enz (1995) and Seigall and Gardner (2000), found three constructs (namely, meaning, competence, and influence). Here, self-determination and impact were combined and renamed influence) over restaurant service providers. Other factor analyses of psychological empowerment as it was observed by non-supervisory employees had shown a three-dimensional structure (Hancer & George, 2003). The difference in results about dimensions showed that defining further dimensions of psychological empowerment is necessitated. In order to decide the

number of structures and fitness of the model in this study, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) were performed. EFA was performed on 297 valid survey data in Table 1. It is emphasized that the ratio of the number of participants to the number of variables (items) for the sample size is 10/1 (Akgül and Çevik, 2003). In this regard, it can be said that the sample group of 297 people is sufficient to conduct an EFA.

Table 1.

Exploratory Factor Analysis of Psychological Empowerment Scale

Item Code	Item	Factors	
		Attitude	Influence
A11	I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work	.881	
A12	I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department (school)	.865	
A10	My impact on what happens in my department (school) is large	.836	
A9	I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job	.769	
A8	I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job	.697	
A7	I have significant influence over what happens in my department (school)	.678	
A4	I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities		.897
A1	The work that I do is important to me		.890
A5	I am confident about my ability to do my job		.847
A3	The work l do is meaningful to me		.783
A6	I have mastered the skills necessary for my job		.606
A2	My job activities are personally meaningful to me		.585
	% of Variance	48.58	18.04
	Cronbach's Alpha	0.866	0.898

Total Variance Explained rate = 66.60 %
Total Cronbach's Alpha= .894
KMO =,877
Bartlett. $\chi 2$ (Df=66)=2510.28(p=0,000

As shown in Table 1, to test the adequacy of sample size, KMO was 877, and Bartlett's Test (Df=66) was 2510.28(p=0,000). KMO value between 0.80-0.89 was very good. In this study, the total variance was 66.6%. The data on factor load values and the total variance of the items are given in Table 1. The revised two-factor model with standardized parameter estimates. In order to know the fitness of the instrument in this study, researchers conducted CFA with the LISREL8.7 program as below.

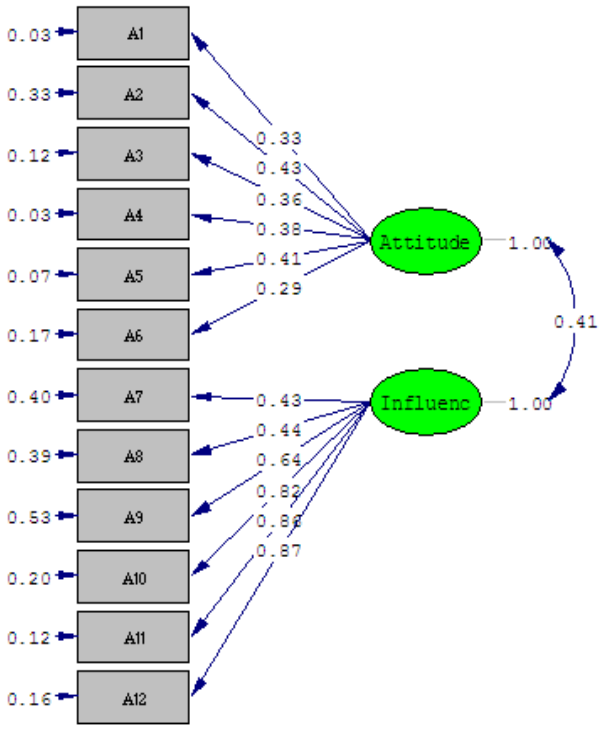

Figure 1. *The Goodness of fit Indices of Psychological Empowerment Scale.*

The goodness of fit Indices of the Psychological Empowerment Scale showed that the P value was significant at .00 levels. This was conducted with the LISREL8.

As shown in Fig 1, the fit Index P value was significant at .00 levels. When the findings from the confirmatory factor analysis were examined, the lowest t value was 10.25 (item A7); the highest t value was found to be 20.79 (item A11) and all t values are significant at the level of .01(Çokluk et al., 2010). The reliabilities of the dimensions were moderate to high, ranging between R2= 0.32–0.83 (attitude), and

R2=0.31–0.83 (influence). RMSEA indicated a worthy acceptable at 0.1 levels. When assessing the goodness of fit continues, it is seen that GFI was .82 and AGFI was .74. All values obtained are accepted as good in accordance with the criteria determined by Schermelleh-Engel et al. (2003) and Çokluk et al. (2010). RMR's fit index was .065 and corresponded to a good fit. Finally, when IFI, RFI, NNFI, and CFI fitness indexes are examined, it is seen that IFI=0.92, RFI= 0.9, NNFI=.92, and CFI=.92. The IFI, RFI, NNFI, and CFI indexes of over .9 have corresponded to a good fit (Çokluk et al., 2010).

Teachers' Organizational Commitment Scale

In this study, teachers' commitment was measured by a reliable and valid scale that used in more than 20 countries. It was initially Allen and Meyer's (1990) model and later adapted by Ustuner (2009) in Turkish language and the scale was used with his permission. In Turkey, according to Ustuner's (2009) study, the reliability or correlation coefficient of the teachers' organizational commitment scale was .96, and the test-retest was also .88. Findings obtained from EFA and CFA showed the Teachers' Organizational Commitment Scale has three factors or dimensions with 17 items. Since it was conducted in the same country and profession, the researchers conducted just CFA. The ratio of $\chi 2/DF$ was 3.20. In addition, since it was less than five, the instrument had a moderate level of goodness of fit (Çokluk et al., 2010). RMSEA indicated a good fit at .070 levels. The values of GFI and AGFI were accepted since they were more than 0.85 (Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003). IFI= 0, 96, NFI= 0.95, RFI = 0, 90, NNFI=.92 and CFI= .92. The IFI, RFI, NNFI, and CFI indices of over .90 corresponded to a good fit (Çokluk et al., 2010).

Data Analysis

Quantitative data were analysed quantitatively by using SPSS-23. Finally, data collected through the questionnaire were cleaned, systematically organized, and tabulated by using SPSS-23 software. The mean and multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) were utilized to evaluate differences among composite means for a set of dependent variables (DVs) when there are two or more levels of groups or IVs (e.g., Cohen et al., 2018). In the current study, a partial eta squared (η2) effect size index has been implemented to measure effect size. Regression analysis was also used to see the causal relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

Results

This part presented an analysis of the data gathered from private school teachers. All 297 participants were from the central district of Antalya, Turkey. This part organized their responses based on research objectives.

Table 2.

Background Information

	Variable	N	%
Marital status	Single	118	39.7
	Married	179	60.3
Gender	Male	74	24.9
	Female	223	75.1
Total length of service	<5	67	22.6
	6-10	85	28.6
	>11	145	48.8
Age	<30	73	24.6
	31-40	152	51.2
	>41	72	24.2

School level	Primary school	65	21.9
	Secondary school	105	35.4
	High school	127	42.8

Table 2 showed three hundred fifty-four teachers were voluntarily participated. However, 57 questionnaires were deemed to be unfit for the survey and due to the fact that they were incomplete, therefore there were removed. The final sample was 297 participants. Regarding sex, 74 (24.9%) were male teachers and 223 (75, 1%) were female teachers. Based on marital status, 118 (39.7%) of them were single and 179 (60.3%) were married. 67 (22.6%) of the teachers were having less than five years, 85 (28.6%) were having 6-10 years, and the rest 145 (48.8%) were having more than 11 years of working experience. Regarding age, 73 (24.6%) were less than 30, 152 (51.2%) were between 31 and 40, and 72 (24.2%) were more than 41 years old. In addition, 65 (21.9%) were primary school teachers, 105(35.4%) were secondary, and 127(42.8) were high school teachers.

Levels of Teachers' Psychological Empowerment and Organizational Commitment

The views of private teachers regarding their psychological empowerment and organizational commitment are examined with descriptive statistics as follows.

Table 3.

Frequency, Arithmetic Mean and Standard Deviation of Teachers' Psychological Empowerment and Organizational Commitment

4Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Attitude (factor of psychological empowerment)	297	4.771	.39606

Influence (factor of psychological empowerment)	297	4.1773	.72582
Composite scores of Organizational commitment	297	4.0446	.86370

As shown in Table 3, teachers were psychologically empowered (attitude dimension at a very high level and influence dimension (at a high level). The researcher interpreted the Likert scale based on Ebtesam's (2021) formula of maximum (5) -minimum(1) /number of groups (3)= 1.33 i.e. $\bar{x} \geq 3.68$ High, $2.34 \leq \bar{x} < 3.67$ Moderate, $\bar{x} < 2.34$ Low. Teachers are also highly committed to school (mean=4.0446). Regarding the dimensions of psychological empowerment (attitude dimension ($\bar{x}$=4.771) and influence dimension ($\bar{x}$=4.1773)) showed, teachers are very highly perceived the value of a work or task and believed in their ability to accomplish a task with skills (attitude), and they highly felt the freedom in instigating and carrying out tasks and creating an impact on schools' success (influence). Thus hypotheses 1 and 3 were supported.

Multivariate Differences in teachers' psychological empowerment and organizational commitment

Table 4.

Multivariate Analyses of the Psychological Empowerment of Teachers

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	F	Hypothe df	Error df	Sig.	η^2
Marital Status	.998	.257[b]	2.000	282	.774	.002
Gender	.992	1.189[b]	2.000	282	.306	.08
School level	.974	1.258[b]	6.000	564.	.275	.013

As shown in table 4, marital status, gender, and school level did not reveal a statistically significant difference among teachers' perceptions of the composite scores of their psychological empowerment (Wilk's Λ = 0.998, F (2, 282) =257, p >.05, η2 = 0.002), Wilk's Λ = .992, F (2, 282) =1.189b, p >.05, η2 = .08), Wilk's Λ = .974, F (6, 282) =1.258b, p >0.05, η2 = 0.013) respectively. This means gender, education level, and length of service experience played a a very weak role in teachers' psychological empowerment. Thus hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Table 5.

Multivariate Analyses of the Organizational Commitment of Teachers

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	F	Hypothe df	Error df	Sig.	η^2
Marital Status	.918	1.410[b]	17.000	267	.131	.082
Gender	.992	1.189[b]	2.000	282	.306	.08
School level	.794	1.259	51.000	795.7	.110	.074

As shown in table 5, marital status, gender, and school level did not depict a statistically significant difference among teachers' perceptions of the combined scores of their organizational commitment (Wilk's Λ = 0.918, F (17, 267) =1.410b, p >0.05, η2 = 0.082), Wilk's Λ = 0.992, F (2, 282) =1.189b, p >0.05, η2 = 0.08), Wilk's Λ = 0.794, F (51, 795.7) =1.259, p >0.05, η2 = 0.074) respectively. It means education level, gender, and work experience played a weak role in teachers' organizational commitment. Thus hypothesis 4 was not supported.

The influence of Psychological Empowerment on Organizational Commitment as Perceived by Turkish Teachers

Before conducting hierarchical regression analyses, let's see the intercorrelation scores of attitude, influence, age, length of service, and organizational commitment.

Table 6.

Intercorrelation Scores of Attitude, İnfluence, Age, Length of Service and Organizational Commitment

		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Attitude	1				
2.	Influence	.504**	1			
3.	Org. commitment	.334**	.549**	1		
4.	Length of service	-.036	-.110	-.006	1	
5.	Age	-.024	-.055	-.039	.722**	1

The outputs of a simple correlation in Table 6 depicted that there were a positive and significant association between attitude and influence (r=.504; p <.01); between attitude and OC (r=.334; p <.01). Conversely, there was no significant relationship between attitude and total length of service (r=-.036; p >.05) and between attitude and age (r=-.024; p >.05). When the correlations regarding teachers' influence opinions are examined, it was clear that influence has a positive and significant relationship with institutional commitment (r=.549; p <.01). In this respect, it can be said that the increase of teachers' sense of influence in schools will clue to an upturn in organizational commitment. However, there were no significant relationships

between influence and total length of service (r=.11; p>.05), between influence and age (r=-0.55; p>.05, between organizational commitment and total length of service (r=-.006; p>.05); and between institutional commitment and age (r=-.039; p>.05). Finally, there was a positive and significant relationship between teachers' total length of service and age (r =.722; p <.01).

Hierarchical regression analyses of teachers' OC with teachers' length of service, age, and psychological empowerment were presented in Table 7.

Table 7.

Predicting Teachers' Organizational Commitment from Teachers' Length of Service, Age and Psychological Empowerment

Variables						
		b	Std. Error	Beta	t	p
Model 1	(Constant)	2.052	.152		13.515	.000
	Age	-.049	.072	-.039	-.677	.499
	$R=.039, R^2=.002$, Adjusted $R^2=-.002$, $\Delta R^2=.002$, P>0.05, F (1,295)= .458,P>0.05					
Model 2	(Constant)	2.022	.162		12.510	.000
	Age	-.090	.104	-.073	-.869	.385
	length of service	.050	.090	.047	.556	.578
	$R=.051, R^2=.003$, Adjusted $R^2=-.004$, $\Delta R^2=.001$, P>0.05, F (2, 294)= .383,P>0.05					
Model 3	(Constant)	1.099	.215		5.102	.000
	Age	-.092	.098	-.075	-.939	.348
	length of service	.064	.085	.060	.752	.453
	Attitude	.728	.120	.334	6.069	.000
	$R=.338, R^2=.114$, Adjusted $R^2=.105$, $\Delta R2=.111$, P<0.01, F (3,293)= 12.563,P<0.01					
Model 4	(Constant)	.570	.199		2.873	.004
	Age	-.123	.087	-.099	-1.417	.157
	length of service	.135	.076	.126	1.782	.076
	Attitude	.160	.123	.074	1.309	.191
	Influence	.619	.067	.520	9.200	.000
	$R=.56, R^2=.313$, Adjusted $R^2=.304$, $\Delta R^2=.199$, P<0.01, F (4,292)= 33.274,P<0.01					

As shown in Table 7, four models were obtained by including age, total length of service, attitude, and influence. According to Model 1, age didn't significantly predict teachers' OC (R=.039, R2=.002, Adjusted R2=-.002, F (1,295) =.458, P>0.05). Age explains 0.2% of the total variance of teachers' perceptions of institutional commitment. In Model 2, the total length of service is included. It was seen that the established model caused a significant change in R2 (ΔR2=.001, P>0.05) and age and total length of service together significantly predicted teachers' OC (R=.051, R2=.003, Adjusted R2=-.004, F (2, 294)=.383, P>0.05). Age and total length of service together explained 0.4% of the total variance. In Model 3, attitude is included. It was seen that the established model caused a significant change in R2 (ΔR2=.111, P<0.01), and age, total length of service, and attitude dimension together, significantly predicted teachers' organizational commitment (R=.338, R2=.114, Adjusted R2=.105, F (3,293)=12.563, P<0.01).

Age, the total length of service, and attitude dimension together, accounted for a variance of 10.5%. In Model 4, influence is included. It is seen that the established model caused a significant change in R2 (ΔR2=.199, P<0.01), and age, total length of service, attitude, and influence dimensions together significantly predicted teachers' perception towards organizational commitment scores (R=.56, R2=.313, Adjusted R2 =.304, F (4,292) = 33.274, P<0.01). Age, total length of service, attitude, and influence dimensions together accounted for a variance of 30.4% in teachers' OC. According to β, the influence of the predictive variables on OC based on decreasing order was: Influence attitude, length of service, and age. The t-test results of the regression coefficients depicted that the influence dimension was

an important predictor of OC. Attitude, length of service, and age had no significant effect. Thus hypothesis 5 was supported partially.

Discussion

This present study examines the influence of teachers' PE on their commitment in private schools in Antalya province. Teachers are very highly perceived attitude, and influence. Consistently to the present finding, teachers who are empowered believe they have self-confidence, a positive attitude towards their profession, and more autonomy in undertaking tasks (Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Likewise, consistent with the present study, a study in Banjarmasin showed that teachers' commitment in elementary schools was very good (Aslamiah, 2019).

The present study also found that there were no statistically significant differences across different school levels, gender, and marital status in teachers' perception scores towards attitude dimension, influence, and organizational commitment. In line with the present study, Koberg et al. (1999); Menon and Kotze (2005); Spreitzer (1995), and Ozaralli (2003) revealed that gender didn't make difference in terms of PE. Incongruent with the present study, primary school teachers have a high commitment to their school goals (Yu et al., 2002). In addition, in contradiction with the present study, men generally experienced more empowerment (Fourie, 2009; Gecas, 1989; Hechanova et al., 2006; Koberg et al., 1999; Zimmerman, 1995) In terms of level of education, in line with the present study, Koberg et al. (1999) found level of education has not relationship with feelings of PE. However, various scholars found that there was positive and linear relationship level of education and PE (Fourie, 2009; Gecas, 1989; Ozaralli, 2003; Sarmiento et al., 2004).

There was a positive and significant association between attitudes and influences, between influence and commitment, and between attitudes and commitment. However, there was no association between attitude and total work experience and between attitude and ageThis study was affirmed by Sarmiento et al. (2004) who did not discover the positive relationship between teaching years' experience and PE in Canada. By contrary to the present finding, in terms of age, Gecas (1989) and Ozaralli (2003) found that age significantly correlated with PE. Based on working experience, as opposite of the present study, Huang et al. (2006), Koberg et al. (1999), McDermott et al. (1996) and Ozaralli (2003) also discovered that more experienced employees have greater feelings of empowerment. Inconsistency with the present study, Singh and Gupta (2015) discovered older employees (more than 45) incline to be highest commitment.

Consistent with the present study, a study in Turkey by Özdemir & Gören (2017), in Malaysia by amid, Nordin, Adnan & Sirun (2013), and in Saudi by Jomah (2017) found that teachers' levels of organizational commitment have a relationship with their psychological empowerment. This finding are supported by more previous studies such as by Chen and Chen (2008), Hamid, Nordin, Adnan & Sirun (2013), Jha (2011); Kraimer, Seibert, & Liden (1999). Incongruently, Dee et al. (2002) publicized that attitude (competence) cognition has no association with organizational commitment.

Four models were obtained by including age, total length of service, attitude, and influence showed that age, total length of service, attitude, and influence dimensions together significantly predicted teachers' perception towards organizational commitment scores. Age, total length of service, attitude, and influence dimensions together

accounted for 30.4% variance in teachers' OC. According to the β, the influence of the predictive variables on organizational commitment based on descending order was: Influence attitude, length of service, and age. Consistent with the present study, PE has an influence on the OC of employees (Ambad & Bahron, 2012; Dee, Henkin & Singleton, 2006; Özdemir & Gören, 2017). Work autonomy (one of the influence dimensions) had an impact on the OC of teachers (Dee, Henkin & Singleton, 2006). Consistent with the present study, attitude did not influence OC significantly (Ambad & Bahron, 2012). Finally, in line with the present result, the study showed that length of service and age didn't have significant relationship with PE and OC. This is in consistent with Ambad & Bahron (2012) and Titus (2000).

Conclusion and Recommendations

This present study examines the influence of teachers' psychological empowerment on their commitment in private schools in Antalya province. Teachers very highly perceived the value of their work or task and believed in their competency to carry out a task (attitude), and they highly felt the freedom in carrying out tasks and create an effect on schools' success (influence). The present study also found that there were no statistically significant differences across different school levels, gender, and marital status in teachers' perception scores towards attitude dimension, influence, and organizational commitment. There was a positive and significant association between attitudes and influences, between influence and commitment, and between attitudes and commitment.

The current study can be expanded by including other variables such as leadership styles by Setyaningsih and Sunaryo (2021), Özdemir and Gören (2017 and Uma and Jayabharathi (2016),

job satisfaction by Yu (2002), teaching competency by Shukla (2014). Setyaningsih and Sunaryo (2021), and contextual factors by Seigal & Gardner (2000) are mediators between PE and OC. Methodologically this study can be investigated beyond quantitative approach by using qualitative research methods. Therefore, based on the findings from this study, building the social, intellectual, and professional capital of teachers is important to empower them psychologically and to enhance their commitment to the school. A strong and equity reward system would enhance teachers' feelings of autonomy, competence, influence, and love of their profession. Understanding this will give up-to-date information to bridge the information gap and will help school administrators and policymakers design appropriate empowerment policies and strategies. This study was delimited school teachers and it can be expanded by including university instructors to illuminate how organizational commitment of instructors can be influenced by psychological empowerment.

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Assessing the Implementation of School Discipline Policy In Ghanaian Basic Schools

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Abstract

As part of the effort to create safer and more protective learning environments in Ghanaian schools, the Ghana Education Service in 2017 officially banned all forms of corporal punishment and required teachers to adopt a positive discipline toolkit based on a manual prescribed as an alternative to corporal punishment. This study sought to investigate the implementation of the alternative positive discipline policy in the basic schools of Ghana. The study utilized qualitative research approach to gather data from 15 teachers through semi-structured interviews. Based on thematic analysis, the study showed that the teachers used many discipline methods per the policy on school discipline. They included writing lines, manual work, physical punishments, time-out periods, classroom rules, appointment and withdrawal of positions, and counselling to manage students' behavior. The study, however, found that teachers perceive the positive discipline methods to be ineffective in managing students' behavior compared to the use of corporal punishment. The implication drawn from the study was that despite the use of some alternative discipline methods

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by the teachers, they have not abandoned all forms of corporal punishments in schools. The study therefore recommended, among other things, that school leaders and other authorities institute surveillance and monitoring systems to check violators and sanction teachers who refuse to employ the non-violent discipline methods prescribed by the Ghana Education Service.

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Introduction

School safety issues have become a topical discussion in education because of the need to make the school more effective and improve learning experiences of all learners (Gagnon et al., 2021). School authorities must ensure that the school environment is psychologically, socially and physically safe from threats, harassment or harm in all parts of the school (Bastable et al., 2021; Heekes et al., 2022). This is in recognition that the degree of feeling safe inside schools shapes the learners' educational behavior such as commitment to school attendance and the progress in their educational achievement (Abusamra et al., 2021; Quail & Ward, 2022). Similarly, feeling safe at school is found to be associated with enhanced classroom engagement, academic success, and overall student well-being (Durrant & Ensom, 2017; Heekes et al., 2022). Consequently, the 2030 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) outline the need to end all forms of abuse, torture, and violence against children (Target 16.2), with a particular focus on learning environments in schools (Target 4a) (United Nations, 2016).

Despite the global call and declaration to develop safe schools, there is evidence that many schools across the globe subject students to different forms of corporal punishments as a behavior management strategy (Matofari, 2021; Quail & Ward, 2022). Corporal punishment relies on harsh punitive measures to establish deterrence of undesirable behavior (Mendenhall et al., 2021). Examples of such punishment include spanking, hitting, pinching, squeezing, smacking, scratching, slapping, making a child kneel on painful objects, and forcing a child to stand or sit in painful positions for long periods of time (Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection, 2018). According to Agbenyega (2006), corporal punishment has over the years been an accepted form of punishing students in Ghana. It compelled students to learn and improve their academic standards and also assisted them to be conformists and morally upright (Yeboah, 2020).

That notwithstanding, corporal punishment can have dire and enduring consequences on children across many domains (Heekes et al., 2022), including academic, emotional, and social lives of the students (Gershoff et al., 2017; Mahlangu et al., 2021). Research has established that continuously exposing children to corporal punishment makes them repeat offences and may become incorrigible and more entrenched in deviant behavior (Heekes et al., 2022). Moreover, there is evidence that violence against children feeds violence in the wider society (Quail & Ward, 2022), fosters aggression (Gershoff et al., 2017), and harms the mental and behavioral development of children (Betancourt & Khan, 2008).

As part of the effort to create safer and more protective learning environments in Ghanaian schools, the Ghana Education Service (GES) in 2017 officially banned all forms of corporal punishment occurring at

the basic (i.e., kindergarten, primary, and junior high) and senior high school levels. Instead, the GES directed that a Positive Discipline Toolkit manual which gives alternatives to corporal punishments be adopted by all teachers (Kuwornu, 2019). The new policy aimed at inculcating desired behavior into school children through participatory approaches, promoting mutual respect between the teacher and student, and employing reformative responses to misbehavior that commensurate offences (Gunu, 2019; Yeboah, 2020).

However, after five years of its implementation (i.e., 2017 to 2022), no information was available to show the teachers had a training to implement the policy. Also, no record showed that the policy was reviewed since its inception. Our literature search revealed that no study had been conducted to determine the success or otherwise of the policy. The situation appears to create a gap in the extant literature. The preoccupation in the current study was to fill the void and contribute to knowledge in the field of leadership and policy in schools. The study addressed the following research questions:

1. What positive disciplinary methods are employed by teachers to manage students' behavior following the ban on corporal punishment in schools?
2. How do teachers perceive the effectiveness of the policy on school discipline?

Although corporal punishment was prevalent at both basic and secondary education levels, this study focused on the former because learners at that stage are within the formative period of life, requiring much attention to avoid delinquency in later years. The study was necessary considering that the United Nations Convention on Rights of the Child (UNCRC) has banned corporal punishment and required

all nations to take all appropriate measures to ensure that school discipline is administered in a manner consistent with the child's human dignity and in conformity with the present Convention (Kumar et al., 2022). Thus, if Ghana has abolished corporal punishment in schools and has directed all teachers to employ positive disciplinary strategies, it would be instructive to investigate how the policy directive has been implemented in schools. Doing so may complement the government's effort at eliminating corporal punishment and foster the use of positive discipline methods to create a safe school environment for all students.

Research context: The school discipline policy of Ghana

In 2017, the Ghana Education Service (GES) introduced a school discipline policy for implementation at the basic and secondary levels of education. With the support of the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the Service developed a set of tools for implementing positive discipline in schools (Kuwornu, 2019; Yeboah, 2020). The positive toolkit offers options for effectively applying positive discipline for different forms of misbehavior and proposes suitable proactive or reactive measures for addressing them (Coverghana.com.gh, 2022).

The positive toolkit has four levels (Coverghana.com.gh, 2022; Gunu, 2019; Kuwornu, 2019). At level one (creating a disciplined environment), school leaders and teachers spell out rules and set expectations for students. They are also supposed to express approval of and encourage good behavior and set an environment of mutual respect that recognizes teachers' authority. The prescribed disciplinary methods at this level include a classroom rule book, notice board poster, encouragement, and classroom behavior statement.

At level two, which concerns early detection/intervention, school leaders and teachers institute non-punitive actions intended to remind students of standards of behavior and expectations and the importance of conforming to them. Teachers investigate the reasons behind the identified misbehavior or the conditions that encouraged it to address. Strategies to be employed include an explanation, caution, agreement, and student behavior log.

At level three (repeated/more serious offences), schools institute corrective measures to draw attention to the severity of offences if they are repeated severally. The teacher at this level must combine deterring measures with counselling, agreements, and consistent follow-ups on the student's response to the actions taken. Finally, at level four, where students engage in chronic, dangerous, and disruptive behavior, schools are expected to institute rehabilitative measures such as inviting other members of the school administration and the child's family to support in the assessment of the child's behavior and determination of an appropriate response. Tools such as reflection period, writing lines, cleaning, designated seating position, and extra tasks are prescribed for level three, while withdrawing a responsibility, letter to parents, parent-teacher meeting, counselling, and daily report are prescribed in level four.

Literature Review

Due to the harmful physical, mental, and behavioral effects of corporal punishments on students (Gershoff et al., 2017; Yeboah, 2020) and the lack of evidence that corporal punishments make school safer and increase students' academic achievement (Heekes et al., 2022), there is a global push for the use of alternative positive disciplinary strategies to manage students' misbehavior in schools. These

alternative disciplinary approaches provide a more supportive environment for behavioral management and guide the behavior of students by paying attention to their emotional and psychological needs (Gagnon et al., 2021). They provide support services for students to address their specific needs and help them to take responsibility for making good decisions and understanding why those decisions are in their best interests (Crawford & Burns, 2020). Several alternative disciplinary strategies have been highlighted in the literature and they include behavior education plan, conflict resolution, guidance and counselling, detention and in-school suspension, and social and emotional learning (Jean-Pierre & Parris-Drummond, 2018).

The behavioral education plan requires that an assigned staff member engages with a student twice daily, before and after classes (Goodman-Scott, 2013; Quail & Ward, 2022). The students, following a behavioral analysis and assessment, is expected to maintain a daily progress report on his/her behavior which would be rated and commented by the teachers and to signed by parents at home each day. The students then receive a reward during the day's end check-out when they behave adequately all day based on the school's code of conduct. Another alternative disciplinary strategy employed in managing misbehavior in school is guidance and counselling which assist students to acquire self-regulation skills through the exploration of emotions, motives, consequences of behavior, and positive reinforcement of good behavior (Gunu, 2019; Jean-Pierre & Parris-Drummond, 2018). Exploring the alternative disciplinary methods used by teachers in Nyeri Central Sub-County in Kenya, Kagoiya, Kimosop, & Kagema (2017) found that majority of the teachers used guidance and counselling as a method of instilling discipline.

Other studies have advocated praising and encouraging students for appropriate behaviors and systematic reinforcement for progress; home contact which involves calling home and explaining to the students' parent(s) exactly what happened and seek support in helping the child succeed in school; maintaining a stimulating and active class environment; encouraging students' autonomy by allowing them to think for themselves, and to monitor their own behavior and letting their conscience guide them; allowing children to participate in setting rules and identify consequences for breaking them which will empower them to learn how to manage their own behavior; teaching students conflict resolution and mediations skills, including listening actively, speaking clearly, showing trust and being trustworthy, accepting differences, setting group goals, negotiating, and mediating conflicts; detention/time-out and removing privileges; manual punishment; and establishing a reinforcement system which involves positive reinforcement systems used by individual teachers to reward proper behavior (Gunu, 2019; Jean-Pierre & Parris-Drummond, 2018; Prins et al., 2019; Quail & Ward, 2022).

The perceived effectiveness of the alternative disciplinary strategies in managing students' misbehavior and maintaining discipline in schools has been explored in some African context. Generally, results from these studies show that the use of alternative disciplinary strategies in maintaining discipline in schools remain problematic, ineffective, time consuming, and further complicate the issue of disciplining students in schools (Maphosa & Shumba, 2010; Matofari, 2021; Mayisela, 2021; Nene, 2013). Other studies further found that alternatives to corporal punishment have negatively affected discipline at schools because learners no longer fear the consequences of engaging in disruptive behavior (Moyo et al., 2014;

Mtswevi, 2008; Nene, 2013). Mtswevi (2008) observed that after the banning of corporal punishment in schools in South Africa, most educators felt powerless, incapacitated, and helpless in dealing with learner indiscipline in schools. In other instances, learners take advantage of educators since they know that the punishment given, may not be equal to the pain of corporal punishment (Agesa, 2015; Mayisela, 2021).

Theoretical framework: Behavioural Theory

This study is grounded in the behavioural theory to behaviour management which assumes that learned challenging behaviours can be unlearned and replaced with positive behaviours (Browne, 2013; Jean-Pierre & Parris-Drummond, 2018). The focus of behavioural theory is therefore to reinforce positive behaviour and eliminate challenging behaviours through rewards and punishments (Browne, 2013; Quail & Ward, 2022). According to the behaviour theory, while children will repeat a behaviour if it is being rewarded, they are less likely to repeat a behaviour if sanctions are issued (Gershoff et al., 2017; Heekes et al., 2022). Educators reward desired behaviour with praise and enjoyable prizes and punish undesirable behaviour by withholding all rewards. Behaviours that are followed by positive consequences increase their frequency and probability of occurrence. The researchers considered the theory relevant to the study because teachers in Ghanaian basic schools are used to corporal punishment as a discipline strategy, until the recent ban, and thus it is probable that they would resort to other forms of punitive punishments other than caning as well as rewards to achieve desired behaviour in students following the ban on corporal punishments.

Method

Research approach & setting

To gain insights into the alternative disciplinary measures employed by teachers following the ban on corporal punishment in Ghanaian basic schools, the study utilized the qualitative research approach. We conducted the study guided by the assertion that qualitative researchers are interested in studying human beings in their natural setting, attempting to make sense of, or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). The approach was deemed appropriate for the research problem investigated in the study as it allowed participants to describe the nature of alternative disciplinary measures they employed in their context and settings.

Research setting

The study was conducted in selected basic schools in the La Nkwantanang-Madina Municipal Assembly of the Greater Accra region of Ghana. The La Nkwantanang-Madina Municipality is one of the 29 districts in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana with an estimated population of 244676 comprising of 123830 females (50.6%) and 120846 males (49.4%) (Ghana Statistical Service, 2021). Almost 36% of the economically active segment of the population in the Municipality are engaged in commerce. The Municipality has 21 Kindergartens, 61 primary schools, 53 Junior High Schools (JHS), and two Senior High Schools in the public school system with 1,426 teachers (La Nkwantanang-Madina Municipal Assembly, 2020). The study was conducted in this municipality because as part of its strategic plan, it aims to improve equitable access to education, quality of education, and education management in all their schools (La Nkwantanang-

Madina Municipal Assembly, 2020). To achieve this, it is expected that educational leaders and teachers would create a safe and violent-free school environment for the learners through an effective implementation of the prescribed alternative discipline methods in all schools.

Sample and sampling techniques

The researchers employed convenience sampling strategy to select five public basic schools in the Municipality. Considering that all basic schools in Ghana are mandated to employ the positive discipline strategies and reframe from using corporal punishment as a discipline strategy, the researchers assumed that any basic school in the municipality could be selected to assess the implementation of the policy in an exploratory study. It is anticipated that such exploratory study could inform future studies to draw larger sample to inform policy on discipline in schools.

With reference to the selection of the study participants, we employed purposive sampling technique. The selection criteria were that the selected teachers should have been in active service prior to the ban of the corporal punishment as a discipline strategy. The goal of sampling in qualitative studies is to select cases to learn a great deal about issues of great importance to the purpose of the research (Patton, 2002). The rationale therefore was to gain insight from teachers who had possibly employed corporal punishment as a discipline method prior to the ban and had thus gained enormous experiences in dealing with disciplinary actions both before and after the ban. By employing the eligibility criteria in the selected schools, 45 teachers qualified to participate in the study out of the total number of 63 teachers (Table 1). We further employed convenience sampling method to select three qualified participants from each school based on their availability and

willingness to participate in the research but on a first-come, first-served basis (Luborsky & Rubinstein, 1995).

Table 1.

Breakdown of participants according to their schools

Name of school	Number of teachers	Number of teacher eligible	Number of teachers selected
School A	11	8	3
School B	13	10	3
School C	12	7	3
School D	13	11	3
School E	14	9	3

Data collection method and procedure

We gathered data through face-to-face semi-structured interviews. The one-on-one semi-structured interviews enabled the participants to freely express themselves and to provide privacy. It further enabled the researchers to follow-up on answers given by the participants and to observe the body languages of participants. All the interviews were conducted by one of the research team in each of the seven schools. In order not to disrupt school activities, the interviews were conducted after school hours. We designed an interview guide based on the literature we reviewed, the positive toolkit prescribed by the GES, and our experiences as practitioners in the education sector of Ghana. After seeking the consent of the participants, we digitally recorded each interview session which lasted between 30 - 45 minutes. The interview strategy enabled the researchers to elicit from participants detailed information about their experiences and opinions

on the use of positive discipline methods and the challenges encountered in maintaining discipline following the ban on corporal punishment. Some key questions employed include: what disciplinary methods do you use to ensure discipline in your classroom? What challenges do you face in dealing with student indiscipline in your school? What challenges do you face in implementing the positive disciplinary methods in managing student misbehaviour? How effective is the alternative discipline methods in addressing student misbehavior in your school? Probing and follow-up questions were used to seek for clarification from interviewees.

Ethical considerations

To meet ethical requirements, we sought permission from the education directorate and principals of the selected schools. We also ensured that each participant verbally consented to participate in the research. We informed them their participation was voluntary and they could withdraw at any stage. We also guaranteed the privacy and anonymity of the participants by not revealing their real names or identity; thus, acronyms (T1 – T15) were used for all the participants. Finally, we sought the consent of the participants before we recorded each interview session.

Trustworthiness and reliability

To ensure rigor, we reflected on our position before the start of the research and assumed the outsider position because we intended to detach ourselves from the data. Further, we used member checking, where after transcribing the interviews, we gave participants the transcript to verify if the notes reflected an account of what took place. We also used the peer debriefing technique and allowed three colleagues to review the entire research report before journal

submission. We again utilised the thick description strategy by providing a detailed account of the various steps used in the study.

Data analysis

To analyze the data gathered for the study, thematic analysis technique was chosen as it was best suited to the research problem investigated. This analytical technique aimed at identifying, organizing, analyzing, and reporting patterns (themes) within the data (Cohen et al., 2007; Silverman, 2010). First, data generated were transcribed verbatim and manually by the researchers and read through several times for familiarity. While doing this, the researchers made notes about initial ideas (codes) whilst looking out for commonalities. The researchers then organized the codes into descriptive categories and finally into the two broad themes derived from the two research questions that guided the study. For example, codes such as 'cleaning', 'pick around', 'sweeping' and 'empty dustbins' were put under the category 'manual work' while codes such as 'ask to stand', 'kneeling down', 'raise your hand', and 'stand at the back' were put under the category 'physical punishment'. These two descriptive categories (manual work and physical punishment) were put under the first theme 'Alternative disciplinary strategies of teachers'. Direct quotations of interviewees' views were used to enhance credibility and authenticity of findings.

Results

To present the results, we have categorized the data into two broad thematic areas in line with our research objectives, namely alternative disciplinary strategies of teachers and teachers' perceptions of effectiveness of the policy on school discipline.

Alternative disciplinary strategies of teachers

The analysis of participants' responses to the implementation strategies of the policy on school discipline led to the use of writing lines, manual work, physical punishments, time-out periods, classroom rules and consequences, appointment and withdrawal of positions, and counselling. Table 2 presents the number and details of respondents associated with each of the themes and sub-themes.

Table 2.

Respondents associated with each theme and sub-themes

Theme 1: Alternative disciplinary strategies of teachers		
Sub-theme	**Number of participants**	**Details of participants**
Writing lines	11	T-1, T-3, T-4, T-5, T-6, T-7, T-9, T-10, T-11, T-12, T-14
Manual work	11	T-1, T-3, T-4, T-5, T-6, T-7, T-9, T-11, T-12, T-13, T-14
Physical punishment	11	T-1, T-3, T-4, T-5, T-6, T-7, T-9, T-11, T-12, T-13, T-14
Time-out	9	T-4, T-5, T-6, T-7, T-9, T-11, T-12, T-13, T-14
Classroom rules and consequences	12	T-1, T-3, T-4, T-5, T-6, T-7, T-9, T-10, T-11, T-12, T-13, T-14
Appointment and removal from positions	8	T-3, T-4, T-5, T-9, T-10, T-11, T-12, T-13
Counselling	12	T-1, T-3, T-4, T-5, T-6, T-7, T-9, T-10, T-11, T-12, T-13, T-14
Pupils conversant with the cane	12	T-1, T-2, T-4, T-5, T-6, T-7, T-8, T-9, T-10, T-11, T-12, T-15
Theme 2: Teachers' perceptions of effectiveness of the policy on school discipline		

Sub-theme	Number of participants	Details of participants
Pupils conversant with the cane	12	T-1, T-2, T-4, T-5, T-6, T-7, T-8, T-9, T-10, T-11, T-12, T-15
Do not generate immediate result	11	T-3, T-4, T-5, T-6, T-7, T-9, T-10, T-11, T-12, T-13, T-14
Affect the power and reverence of teachers	13	T-1, T-2, T-4, T-5, T-6, T-8, T-9, T-10, T-11, T-12, T-13, T-14, T-15
Affecting instructional time	10	T-2, T-5, T-6, T-8, T-9, T-10, T-11, T-12, T-13, T-14
Affect the academic performance of pupils	8	T-4, T-5, T-8, T-9, T-11, T-13, T-14, T-15
Increasing workload of teachers	14	T-1, T-2, T-3, T-4, T-5, T-6, T-8, T-9, T-10, T-11, T-12, T-13, T-14, T-15

Result obtained from eleven participants showed that writing lines is one of the alternative discipline methods that the teachers employed to reprimand misbehaving students. According to them, the practice involved asking misbehaving students to write many lines of a single word or sentence, sometimes to fill a whole exercise book. For instance, T-3 indicated that "… we make them write sentences. Depending on the severity of the offence, sometimes they write 100 lines or 200 lines with good handwriting". T-1 used the same disciplinary method but in a different manner as evidenced in the following extract:

> *We've been using so many disciplinary measures such as the writing lines method. For instance, if a child is late to school, his/her punishment can be to take a sheet and write "I will come to school early always" … I make the offender write what he or she ought to have done right several times and present to me.*

Some interviewees also reported that by using this strategy,

they asked misbehaving students form words out of bigger words. In her own words, T-5 said that:

> *Another thing that I have practised is to write on a manila card, any word, but words not familiar to the pupils … a little above their level. So, if a child misbehaves in class, the child goes to pick that word and sits in a corner alone to write a number of words that can come out of that bigger word.*

However, the interviewees were of the view that the pupils regarded the writing of lines as an activity easy to perform, making it appear they were not penalised.

Aside from writing method, twelve participants employed manual work such as cleaning, littering, weeding, sweeping, and scrubbing in place of the defunct corporal punishment. The teachers made offending pupils to clean the school compound. For example, T-7 noted that "I engage them in grounds work such as weeding, sweeping, and picking around. If they don't want to be useful in the class, they can be useful outside the class". T-11 adopted a similar disciplinary method and made her pupils "… clean classroom louvres or scrap the washrooms. The teachers' concern with this disciplinary method is that it cannot be meted out during instructional hours.

The third disciplinary method that eleven teachers used to correct erring pupils was physical punishments such as kneeling, sitting on the floor, standing in class, and carrying placards or weaving snail shells on the neck. Teachers reported that they asked students who misbehave to kneel down in the classroom for about 15 minutes. Alternatively, they may instruct their pupils to stand for a while. Interviewees however argued that this approach did not address classroom misbehavior as some recalcitrant pupils used the

opportunity to distract the class. According to the teachers, while some pupils made funny jokes, others made gimmicks, inducing their colleagues to laugh loudly during lessons. Some participants also reported that they asked misbehaving students to carry placards or weaved snail shells on their neck for some time. It emerged that misbehaving students could carry the placards or weaved snail shells on their neck for a whole day or for the period of a lesson until another teacher comes for the next lesson.

Time-out was the fourth disciplinary method employed by nine participants to manage learner-deviant behavior. Based on the technique, pupils found guilty were required to stay in a quiet place and reflect on their conducts for some time, after which they were invited to report on how they felt being there alone and whether they would repeat the deviant behavior. Narrating how she implemented the method, T-7 revealed the following:

> *… when pupils fight in my class, I take them out to sit under a tree alone. After some time, I invite them to tell me how they feel about the loneliness. After listening to them, I ask if they are happy to repeat the behavior that brought them the punishment. Usually, the reply is a no, so I use the opportunity to advise them and ask them to check on others who fight in class and report them to me. With that duty, they check themselves to make sure no one else fight and they are very critical in ensuring that they behave well.*

Other interviewees reported that during the breaktime, the misbehaving students are made to remain in the class, sit there quietly and reflect over their conducts.

Fifth, setting classroom rules and consequences for violating the rules emerged as an alternative discipline strategy employed by

twelve teachers in managing students' behavior. Participants reported that students under the guidance of their teachers have set classroom rules such as: return from break on time; do not bring food or water to class; do not eat in class; no singing and dancing in class; do not go out without permission from your teacher or class prefect; and do not sleep in class. Similarly, some of the corresponding punishments for violating those rules were: scrub the urinal after school; you will make the louvres clean/clean white board after class; pick refuse/sweep class after school; scrub the toilet for three days; wear placard and pick rubbish; wear snail shell chain; and read and answer three passages. According to the interviewees, students are collectively involved in the formation of classroom rules and thus they actively support their implementation. T-12, for example, indicated that:

> *Students make rules by themselves under the guidance of the class teacher. We put them into groups, like four-member groups, and then they will discuss it among themselves. They discuss the offence and then decide on the appropriate punishment if it is repeated for a number of times. They will do all these things and then we come together as a class, then each group comes to present their possible offences and then the punishment…. Then those that the whole class will agree on with the help of the teacher, they will paste them on the wall to guide them in their day-to-day class activities.*

Interviewees reported that once a student violate any rule, he or she is called to the board to read the offence and its corresponding punishment. The student is then given the punishment and the entire class monitor and follow up on the culprit to ensure that he or she does the punishment.

The sixth disciplinary method the teachers employed to correct deviant behavior of pupils was appointment and removal from

leadership positions. Out of the 15 participants in the study, eight participants utilized this as an alternative discipline strategy. The result showed that there were instances when teachers purposely appointed misbehaving students to hold leadership positions to reform them. The following excerpt is a participant's explanation of how he appointed a truant pupil to a leadership position change his habit:

> *What we have been doing is, if a child misbehaves a lot, we invite the child and assign him or her a role with the intention that he or she will change his attitude. An example was a child who was absent for several days from school and his parents reported him to the school. What we did was to assign a role to the child to be the class prefect which made him to always come to school. He realized that if he didn't come to school, the class prefect position will be taken away from him. We realized that he enjoyed being the class prefect so now he's been coming to school all the time. [T-9]*

According to the data, apart from appointments, the teachers also chose to revoke the appointment of pupil leaders as punishment for committing grievous offences and deterring other students. Participants reported that, in some instances they revoked the appointment for a short period of time and then re-instated them when they realize a change in behavior. However, there were other instances where the appointment was revoked forever, and the position given to someone else.

The last prescribed disciplinary method employed by twelve teacher-participants of this research to correct deviant pupil behavior was counselling. According to the teachers, they engaged misbehaving pupils in one-on-one or group counselling. However, when their efforts failed to yield results, they referred the culprits to the school

disciplinary committee, the school management committee (SMC), or the executive of parent-teacher associations. Using counselling as a behavior management strategy, the interviewees noted that they investigated and probed on what could explain the students' misbehavior. They used the opportunity to understand the misbehavior and ascertained whether the problems that the student may be facing at home could be a contributory factor to his or her deviant behavior. For example, T-4 commented that:

> *Sometimes when the students come to school, you could see from their behavior in the classroom, that some may be having other challenges from the house, like monetary issues and may be sometimes they don't even eat at home before they come to school. If you don't investigate further, you may unjustifiably punish the student without really solving the problem. We employ counselling in such situations to understand the misbehavior of students better. So, when they are misbehaving in school, we even call for the parents to enquire more about what is happening in the house to really understand the child's behavior.*

Teachers' perceptions of effectiveness of the policy on school discipline

This section presents results on the perceived effectiveness of the positive discipline methods in managing students' behavior in their schools. Overall, twelve interviewees indicated that the positive discipline techniques have not been effective in managing students' behavior. They argued that most children are conversant with the cane and act appropriately only when they see it. For example, T-8 observed that "I do not use the prescribed toolkits because students are so conversant with the cane that it is the only thing that would make them listen". T- 2 echoed that "to be honest with you, I do not really use these

methods. I only use the cane whenever they do wrong in the classroom". T-15 added that "the method is so new to us, and the students are much more disciplined when the cane is around". According to them, prior to the ban on corporal punishment, students were more composed in and out of the classroom because they knew that they would be caned should they misbehave. However, after the ban, these same students have become unbothered of what punishment may be given to them because they are aware that whatever the case, the cane they feared so much will not be used on them. Some participants argued that the alternative discipline method is not effective because it is not in alignment with the African culture, thus their preference for corporal punishment. T- 10, for example, argued that:

> *I would say this is not our culture, you see this in somewhere in Europe. The corporal punishment is the African culture, it is the Ghanaian culture. It makes them very attentive to instruction. So, this new method is not really effective.*

Thus, most participants believed that students best obey when they are aware that they will be canned should they misconduct themselves.

Eleven participants further indicated that unlike the corporal punishment, most of the positive disciplinary methods do not generate immediate results as the cane did. T-11 lamented the situation, saying "… with the corporal punishment, immediately, you are able to correct the child right there. The child is right aware of the reason why he/she is being punished." They added that it did not generate immediate results because aspects of it were performed in most Ghanaian homes by children as routine duties. As a result, their pupils did not recognize them as punishment to correct deviance. In the view of T-14, "... most

of the methods prescribed in the new policy rarely cause any pain, and thus the essence of the punishment is not achieved… children take it as normal things that go on at home."

Moreover, thirteen participants spoke about how the positive disciplinary method has somewhat taken away the power and reverence that comes with the teaching profession. Thus, making students indifferent about their attitude towards their teachers and academics in general. T-8 commented that:

> *Children do not take us serious anymore when it comes to discipline. They do not take us serious anymore with some of these alternative ways of disciplining them. For instance, you are teaching, and the child is misbehaving in the class, and you ask them to come and sit in front of the class. You think it is a way of curving the disturbance. The student would sit down and be doing something to make the other students laugh. And this is a whole thing all together. The GES is telling us there is always a way but meanwhile they know very well it is the corporal punishment which was effective during their days as students.*

T-10 echoed that:

> *Students don't respect us these days. That is why indiscipline in our schools have been on the rise. … A child can stand in front of you and talk to you as if you are equals, because they know you cannot hit them with the cane. You try to hit them, and they tell you 'I will take you to the police station or social media'. Just last week a teacher tried using the cane, and the student told him point blank he would take the teacher to the police station. So, most teachers now do not care how you behave; at the end of the month, I will get my pay. Whatever way*

you want to behave it is not our problem; it is between you and your parents.

Ten interviewees from the study also mentioned that the alternative disciplinary methods require supervision and monitoring thereby affecting instructional hours. According to them, they prepare their lesson plan or scheme of work for a designated period of time but because of the fact that there has to be supervision when they issue out punishments using the alternative discipline methods, the schedule hours assigned for their lessons do not suffice. This makes teachers not to finish up with the work scheme on time. According to them, this affects the learning objective because even though they do not finish the syllabus on time, they still have to set questions on it, and this makes the work so difficult. For example, T-15 noted that:

It takes us back in so many ways because you prepare your scheme of work for this term. I have about 23 weeks and I expect to complete about 12 topics. If they fail to adhere to some of these instructions and they take us back, some topics that's supposed to take us 2 weeks will take us 3 weeks. How will we end up completing the whole setup for the particular semester?"

Again, eight interviewees disclosed that the alternative methods of discipline really affect the academic performance of some of the students. They observed that because there is no infliction of pain, some students do not really find the urgency to study, and they do whatever that they want. And this in turn affect their academic performance. T-4 noted that "this disciplinary method is really affecting students' academic performance. Because they learn when they want to. And it's really bringing down the overall academic achievement. T-14 also added that:

> *It really affecting them, but they think that they have the freedom now to do whatever they want. Because as I said, discipline goes with performance so if you do not want to be disciplined, you cannot perform… they would not study because they know after all there is nothing you can do to them other than making them write lines. Recently there was a mock exam for the form 3s and the highest in my subject was 63 percent. And this was the best student, you can imagine what the others would get.*

Others commented that since they are not applying the cane, they sack misbehaving students from their class which affect them academically. T-13, for example, commented that "the moment I walk you out, it doesn't mean I'm going to stop teaching. I'm going to continue the lesson. So irrespective of your state if you are a bad student it will go against you".

Finally, fourteen interviewees complained how this new method of discipline has really increased their workload. They argued that this is so because whatever discipline method they are employing is being supervised and they have to ensure that students have really done what they are supposed to do very well. T-1 commented that:

> *As I am saying, you tell the child to write lines and you have to go through the sentences to see if there are mistakes. That is another work. I am a math teacher and now I have to go through the English work. I cannot give it to an English teacher to go through and mark for me. I cannot do that because they also have their own work to do. So that is another work for us. But with corporal punishment when a child misbehaves you call them and give them some lashes and they go back and sit. No need for any double attention.*

Discussion

This study sought to explore how teachers at the basic level of education in Ghana implemented a new policy on school discipline following the ban on corporal punishment in pre-tertiary schools. The results have shown that teachers used many disciplinary methods to manage pupil indiscipline behavior per the prescriptions in the policy (see the section on Research Context). Many of the prescribed discipline methods support extant literature advocating non-violent discipline measures to create safer learning environments for children, especially in the developing world (Gagnon et al., 2021; Jean-Pierre & Parris-Drummond, 2018; Quail & Ward, 2022). It is an indication that teachers are making effort to implement the positive toolkits prescribed by the GES to be implemented by all teachers. Some of the measures also appear more educative than punitive. For example, the teachers could use writing lines as an opportunity to improve the writing skills and vocabulary level of pupils in early grades, where research suggests that only 2% of them in the developing world can read (Ministry of Education, 2016; World Bank, 2004).

Furthermore, engaging pupils in light manual work such as cleaning, littering, weeding, sweeping, and scrubbing validates aspects of the literature advocating the use of non-abusive physical tasks to correct the indiscipline behavior of children (Kagoiya et al., 2017; Ntuli & Machaisa, 2014). However, assigning such manual punishments to pupils during instructional times is likely to negatively impact their academic performance (Moyo et al., 2014; Nene, 2013).

Again, using a time-out to either remove pupils from the classroom for a short time or bar them from participating in desired school activities may provide an opportunity for sobre reflection on

bad behavior and to learn from mistakes (Gunu, 2018; Jensen et al., 2018). It may also reduce or eliminate verbal and physical aggression, noncompliance, and disruptive or inappropriate behavior (Quail & Ward, 2022). However, the absence of alternative arrangements to compensate for lost learning times could negatively affect the child's academic performance.

Moreover, the results showed that establishment of classroom rules and consequences for violating such rules was employed in managing students' misbehavior. This support previous studies that have found that teachers in other jurisdictions managed students' behavior by setting rules and consequences to guide classroom (Gagnon et al., 2021; Moyo et al., 2014). It emerged that since the students collectively participated in setting the classroom rules, they collaborated in the implementation process. This supports the view that when students input are solicited and integrated in creating classroom rules, their voices are promoted in the decision making process and this encourage them to promote the changes they want and assume responsibility for their ideas (Alter & Haydon, 2017; Jean-Pierre & Parris-Drummond, 2018). It could also promote self-discipline, empower them to learn how to manage their own behavior, and then support them to learn to abide by such rules and regulations (Kagoiya et al., 2017; Mendenhall et al., 2021).

Again, the revelation that to manage misbehaving pupils, the participants deliberately appointed them to hold school leadership positions or withdrew them from such positions supports earlier research suggesting that withdrawal of privileges as punishment helps to minimize the occurrence of some behavioral problems (Gunu, 2019; Quail & Ward, 2022). Additionally, the management of pupils through one-on-one or group counselling sessions bolsters studies by Onyango,

Aloka, and Raburu (2018) and Gunu (2019) that consider guidance and counselling an effective alternative method of discipline employed in managing student behavior. It helps to elicit appropriate behavior from students since teachers take the needed steps to probe and understand the deviant learner's situation before offering guidance and counselling to them and their parents (Kagoiya et al., 2017).

Theoretically, it is evident from the study results that most of the discipline strategies employed by the teachers align with the behavioural theory, which encourages rewards and punishment to achieve desired behaviour (Browne, 2013; Jean-Pierre & Parris-Drummond, 2018). Teachers asking misbehaving students to write lines or form words out bigger words, engage in manual work such as cleaning the school compound, assigning physical punishments such as kneeling or siting on the floor, appointing misbehaving students to hold school positions or withdrawing them from such positions, and punishing those who violated school rules all aimed to reinforce positive behaviour and eliminate challenging behaviours though rewards and punishments. The expectation is that such misbehaving students are less likely to repeat the misbehaviour once they are sanctioned. This is likely to lead to immediate compliance and may not address students' disruptive behaviours overtime (Kagoiya et al., 2017; Quail & Ward, 2022).

Despite the use of various alternative disciplinary methods by participants, evidence gathered from the study showed that the teachers perceived most of them as ineffective in managing pupils behavior. Participants maintained that the students were so conversant with the cane and that was the only strategy that would make them listen. They further argued that some of the alternative discipline methods were perceived to be household chores that are carried out in

a typical Ghanaian home and thus they are not punitive enough for students and they rarely cause any pain, and thus the essence of the punishment is not achieved. These views seem to suggest that while corporal punishment does more harm than good in both the short and long term (Mayisela, 2021), most teachers in the study were not comfortable with the implementation of the alternative disciplinary measures and were likely to resort to canning and other corporal punishments. Past studies in Ghana have suggested that the use of corporal punishment is often justified based on firmly held cultural, religious, and social beliefs and practices (Agbenyega, 2006; Ministry of Gender Children and Social Protection, 2018). Therefore, it could be inferred that teachers in the study found it difficult to comply with the new forms of discipline due to their religious beliefs, cultural norms, and the fact that they are accustomed to corporal punishment as a form of discipline. Moreover, these teachers were likely to have experienced corporal punishments when they were students, and may, therefore find it difficult to abandon them now (Heekes et al., 2022; Mahlangu et al., 2021).

The study results further indicated that unlike the corporal punishment, the alternative disciplinary methods do not generate immediate results and has somewhat taken away the power of teachers and reverence that comes with the teaching profession. These results are consistent with other studies that have found that following the ban on corporal punishment, teachers feel disempowered in their ability to maintain discipline in schools and there was a dramatic increase in students' disregard for teachers' instructions in schools (Agesa, 2015; Maphosa & Shumba, 2010; Mayisela, 2021). Participants further reported that since the alternative disciplinary methods require supervision and monitoring, it negatively affects instructional hours,

affect the academic performance of the students, and have really increased the workload of teachers. These results are consistent with studies that have found that the implementation of alternative disciplinary methods in schools are time consuming and strenuous (Ntuli & Machaisa, 2014) and has added additional burden to the workload of teachers (Agesa, 2015; Kagoiya et al., 2017).

Conclusion, implications, and recommendations

With the banning of corporal punishment in Ghanaian pre-tertiary schools, teachers and educational leaders are expected to implement the policy on school discipline prescribed by the Ghana Education Service to create a safer school environment for all children. The current study has highlighted a variety of discipline measures the teacher-participants employed to manage pupil deviancy. It does appear that the various discipline methods the teachers used are in line with the four levels of application of the positive toolkit prescribed by the Ghana Education Service. The results showed that teachers employ proactive/preventive measures which clearly spell out rules and expectations from students. They had also instituted non-punitive actions intended to remind students of laid out standards of behavior and made effort to investigate the reasons behind the identified misbehavior or the conditions that encouraged it in order to address. Thus, although the teachers were pessimistic about the effectiveness of the policy, on their own, they utilised preventive and corrective measures and drew pupils' attention to the severity of their infractions. Where necessary, they also worked collaboratively with parents and other stakeholders to manage pupil indiscipline.

Nonetheless, the results in the study also indicated that teachers do not perceive the alternative disciplinary measures to be

effective compared to the use of corporal punishment. Among other things, teachers in the study felt that the alternative disciplinary methods are not effective because children act appropriately only when they see the cane, that they do not generate immediate results, that they have taken away their power and respect, and that they have increased the workload of teachers. It could be deduced from the frustrations of teachers that the support systems that must be instituted in schools to promote and facilitate the effective implementation of the new policy on school discipline were not in place. This could explain the position of the teachers that the alternative disciplinary methods are ineffective compared to the corporal punishment and thus their inability to abandon all forms of corporal punishments in schools. Teachers have to still deal with large class sizes, supervise misbehaving students who were punished, and combine that with teaching without any support staff. In such a situation, teachers may express frustration and think that corporal punishment, which is quick to administer, is effective in managing students' behavior.

These results have implications for educational leaders and authorities regarding the implementation of the directive on the ban of corporal punishment in schools. Since some teachers are hesitant in using the new techniques and resort to corporal punishment and other punitive punishments, school leaders need to institute surveillance and monitoring systems to check violators. They need to sanction teachers who are refusing to employ such non-violent discipline strategies. Doing so has the propensity to develop the values of self-respect, empathy, and respect for pupils and their rights. They need to further cooperate with teachers to identify the challenges confronting them in implementing the new discipline policy in their schools. We

further recommend that the Ghana Education Service, an agency responsible for implementing all educational policies at the pre-tertiary level, assist in providing support staff for teachers with large class sizes to support in the implementation of the positive discipline methods. Also, educational authorities need to initiate regular training programmes to develop the capacity of teachers and school leaders to enable them to discipline their students using positive and nonviolent behavior management techniques.

Despite the insight drawn from the study on the effectiveness of the policy on school discipline, it has certain limitations. First, the study employed a qualitative research approach and thus relied on the views of a few participants in one educational district. The results obtained from the study can, therefore, not be generalised to other educational settings. Also, the study explored only the views of teachers and did not capture those of other key internal stakeholders in the school environment, such as headteachers and students. Again, in presenting the study results, a global presentation strategy was adopted, and we do not address differentiation across schools as well as other variables. Further studies may therefore explore the issue in other educational districts and employ methodologies that can draw on a larger sample to guarantee the generalisation of results across the country. Moreover, future studies should focus on differentiation in implementing the positive disciplinary strategies across schools in rural and urban districts, public and private schools, basic and secondary schools, male and female teachers, and other school characteristics.

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Evaluation of Image Studies in the Field of Education: A Systematic Literature Review

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Abstract

In the present-day competitive landscape, the importance of image has increased significantly, whether it is on an individual level, within organizations, or on a larger scale. Image refers to the overall impression that a person holds in their mind regarding a concept, object, person, group, organization, institution, geographical region, or country. This mental representation is shaped by their past experiences and sensations, and it greatly influences the choices individuals make. The research aims to provide a systematic literature review on image research to promote image research. This research was carried out with a systematic review approach. The data of the research were obtained from the image articles published in the field of education in the journals scanned in Web of Science (SCIE, SSCI, AHCI). In the analysis of the data, bibliometric analysis and descriptive analysis technique, one of the content analysis techniques, were used. 48 research articles from 2002 to 2022 were critically reviewed and analyzed by applying a systematic literature review approach. The results showed that image studies were grouped under three themes: concept image, teacher image, and organizational image. The results also revealed what the inputs and outputs of corporate image were.

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Introduction

In order to be recognized, attractive, reliable and reputable, individuals and organizations that want to make a difference in today's competitive environment need to create and maintain a positive image and revise and renew the existing image. Image is a phenomenon that describes people, organizations, cities, countries and objects positively or negatively (Aksoy & Bayramoğlu, 2008). Image is a summary picture in the mind of an individual of thoughts, perceptions, beliefs and attitudes that an individual creates based on voluntary or involuntary impressions as a result of planned or unplanned messages from an object, person, group or organization (Polat & Arslan, 2015).

The image perception of any person or organization in the individual or society affects the status of that person or organization (Çavuşoğlu, 2014), success (Bulduklu, 2015) and attitudes and behaviours towards the person or organization (Polat, 2011a). In this context, it is important for people or organizations to create a positive image both in their relations with their environment and in reaching their goals.

Conceptual Framework

When reviewing the literature, it becomes evident that the concept of image is explored from various perspectives. Epistemologically, image refers to the cognitive and psychological depiction that individuals construct in their minds about a person,

institution, product, event, and so on (Dinçer, 1998). It represents people's perceptions of an object, institution, or another individual, which may not always align with reality. Consequently, everyone holds their own image, but for it to be positive, proactive efforts must be undertaken to enhance it (Okay, 2002). Considering these definitions, it can be inferred that image is subject to change over time, is unique to each person, can be positive or negative, arises consciously or unconsciously, and emerges as a consequence of interaction.

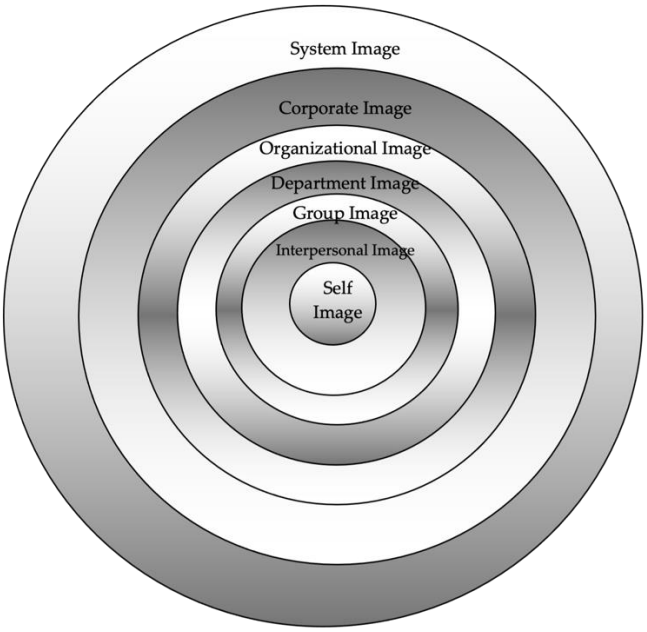
Image studies were previously only limited to the field of marketing. In this period, the concept of image was generally studied as product image, brand image and retail sales image (Berner, 1994). Considering the concept of image in disciplines other than marketing has diversified image classifications, sometimes different classifications have been made in these studies and sometimes the same image type has been named in different ways. Factors such as the fact that image is a multidimensional and dynamic concept and the concept of image is handled by different disciplines have caused different image classifications that do not completely overlap with each other to take place in the literature.

Researchers working on the subject of image have divided the concept of image into different dimensions and therefore, concepts such as mirror image, current image, desired image, multiple image, corporate image, ultimate image, peculiar image, product image, derived or shared image, deceptive image and optimum image have emerged (Iheme, 2013). Huber (1987) classified image types as umbrella image, product image, brand image, self-perceived image of the institution, foreign image, current image, desired image, positive image, negative image, transfer image. While Jefkin (1998) divided the image into six: mirror image, current image, desired image, corporate

image, multiple image, good or bad image. Smith (2013) discussed image under five topics: self-image, corporate image, current image, desired image, and multiple images. On the other hand, Koschnick (1995), who works in the field of marketing, classified and conceptualized image types as ideal image, multiple image, mirror image, product image, corporate image, generic image, self-image, corporate image, branch image, brand image, store image, perceived image and wage image. By integrating different image classifications in different disciplines, Polat and Arslan (2015) classified image types as: present (current) image and desired (ideal) image according to the time of image perception; external image (perceived image of the institution) and internal image (the self-perceived image of the institution) according to the perceiver; abstract image and concrete image according to the nature of the message forming the image; positive image and negative image according to the quality of the perceived image; personal image, group image, department image, organizational image, corporate image and system image according to the levels of image perception; product image, brand image, transfer image and umbrella image according to the dominant factor in the formation of image perception.

Figure 1.

Image Types According to the Level of Image Perception



(Polat & Arslan, 2015).

The concept of personal image can be further explored through two subcategories: self-image and interpersonal image. Self-image, akin to the concept of self-perception in psychology, refers to how an individual perceives themselves (Ker-Dinçer, 2001). In other words, self-image can be described as the way an individual sees themselves in their personal reflection (Polat & Arslan, 2015). On the other hand, interpersonal image pertains to the impressions formed when encountering an individual for the first time (Polat & Arslan, 2015). Ak (1998) posits that self-image, focusing on an individual, involves evaluating one's appearance, body language, communication style, achievements, and the reflection of their inner world. Conversely,

Vural (2002) suggests that an individual's image encompasses everything that others perceive and think about that person (as cited in: Okumuş, 2013). When discussing physical image, it becomes evident that it plays a role in shaping personal image, emphasizing elements such as physical appearance and traits (Clifford & Walster, 1973; Adams, 1975; Türkkahraman, 2004). The Oxford Psychology Dictionary (2016) defines physical image as "the visible characteristics of a person, including height, skin color, hair style, gender, and the outwardly manifested features of hereditary structure."

Occupational image refers to the collective perceptions held by relevant individuals, such as customers, superiors, subordinates, and friends, regarding an employee's competencies and character (Roberts, 2005). It can also encompass the generalizations individuals make about a specific profession (Gottfredson, 1981). Occupational image involves a wide range of generalizations formed by individuals about a particular occupation.

Group image refers to the overall mental picture individuals create based on their voluntary or involuntary impressions during planned or unplanned interactions with a group. It encompasses the thoughts, perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes formed by individuals regarding a particular group. In essence, group image represents the perceived image of groups as perceived by individuals. Similarly, department image denotes the summarized perception of a department or unit within an organization. It is formed in the minds of individuals through their planned or unplanned interactions. In other words, department image represents the perceived image of specific parts or units comprising groups within the organization (Polat & Arslan, 2015).

Organizational image refers to the immediate mental representation individuals hold about an organization. It encompasses the thoughts and associations that come to mind when individuals encounter the organization's name, logo, or other visual cues (Gray & Balmer, 1998). Organizational image is the collective perception of an organization, comprising positive, negative, or neutral ideas, as well as the impressions formed in various situations related to that organization (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). Furthermore, Nguyen and LeBlanc (2001) suggest that organizational image consists of the combined perceptions of occupational image, behavioral image, and visual image.

Corporate image refers to the perception that institutions establish in the minds of their various target audiences. It involves managing the image through the interaction between corporate behavior and corporate communication. The concept of image encompasses physical image, corporate communication, and corporate behavior within an institution. Thus, corporate image comprises the overall impression formed by the corporate appearance, behavior, and communication (Peltekoğlu, 2009).

System image, on the other hand, refers to the perceived image of an entire system. It is formed by the collective impressions of individuals who interact with the system, whether directly or indirectly, through planned or unplanned interactions (Polat & Arslan, 2015).

It is seen that image studies are carried out both in the field of education and in other disciplines. However, no studies were found that evaluated the results of these studies holistically. Applications that classify and combine information obtained from multiple sensors are widespread. By combining information from multiple sensors, it

enables better analysis and decision making for the relevant situation than using a single sensor. Multi-sensors that analyse data by combining data to identify bottlenecks that cause problems in individual and organizational life will make significant contributions to productivity (Karakuş, 2018). According to Akarçay-Ulutaş and Boz (2019), bringing together the results and perspectives of different studies on similar subjects and seeing different dimensions on the subject together will contribute to the advancement of social sciences in a holistic structure.

It has been observed that systematic review studies, which are carried out by selecting and analysing existing researches aimed at revealing international knowledge in a more systematic way and within the framework of certain criteria, have increased in recent years (Hammad & Hallinger, 2017). However, few studies were found in the search made in databases on image, and there were very few studies that were not related to image studies in the field of education (Hu & Shen, 2022; Linsner, Sotiriadou, Hill, & Hallmann, 2021; Plumeyer, Kottemann, Böger, & Decker, 2019; Sageder, Mitter & Feldbauer-Durstmüller, 2018). Therefore, this research focused on evaluating image studies in the field of education holistically. Evaluation of image studies in the field of education with the systematic analysis method and descriptive content analysis will contribute to the field and will also be a source of inspiration for future research.

The aim of this study is to make a systematic analysis of image studies in the field of education scanned in Web of Science (SCIE, SSCI, AHCI). For this purpose, answers to the following questions will be sought:

a) What are the bibliometric features of the articles?

b) What image types do the articles cover?

c) What is the thematic classification of the articles?

d) What are the antecedents and outputs of the image in the articles?

Method

Research Design

The research aims to provide a systematic literature review on image in the field of education. This research was carried out with a systematic review approach. A systematic review is the synthesis of publications related to the research question by bringing them together within the framework of predetermined criteria in order to answer a specific research question. Systematic review studies aim to scan the scientific publications produced in a certain field or discipline in general or to make new analysis on the findings of studies on a particular subject (Higgins & Green, 2011).

Data collection

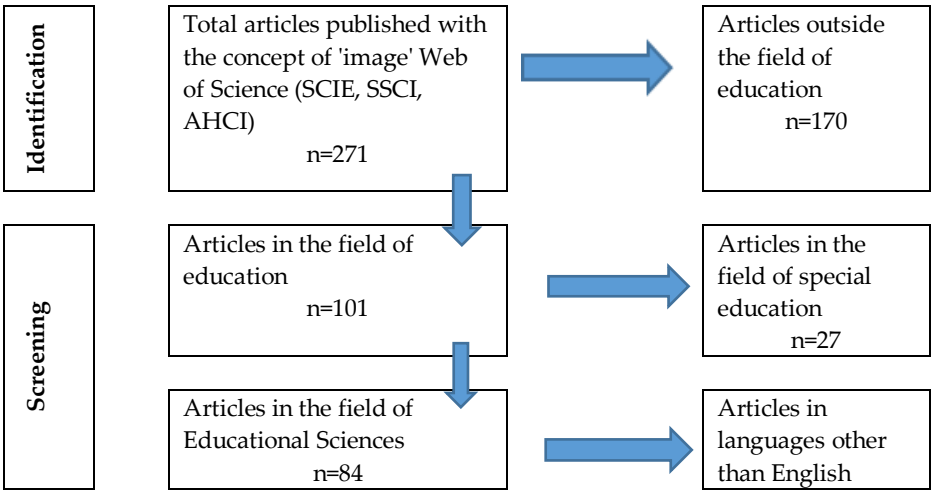
Articles about image published in the field of education in journals indexed in Web of Science (SCIE, SSCI, AHCI) formed the data set of the research. A search was made with predetermined keywords without entering the year range and it was seen that there were not many articles in the first search. Thus, the articles published between the year of the first article (2002) and the last date of the search (03.03.2022) were included in the study group. In this step, the type of articles to be analysed, the databases to search for articles and the date range of articles were determined. Research focuses on peer-reviewed journal articles published in Web of Science during 2002–2022. In this

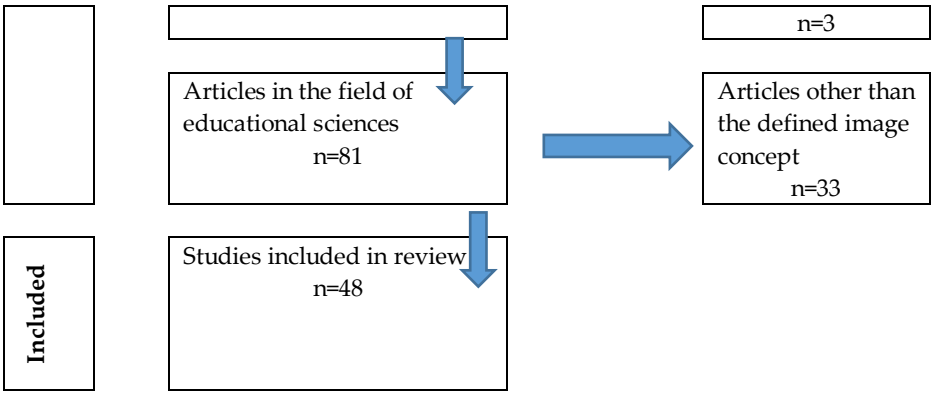
step, articles were identified by defining search terms, searching, removing duplicates, checking the relevance of the articles. Thus, articles containing one of the concepts of "image, organizational image, teacher image, manager image, university image, school image, image and education" were selected in the title, keywords or abstract. In this step, 271 articles published in Web of Science were identified. A total of 170 articles on the topic of image were excluded from the review as they fell outside the field of education. Among the remaining 101 articles in the field of education, 27 focused specifically on special education and were excluded. Additionally, 3 articles were excluded as they were written in languages other than English. As a result, 81 articles within the field of education were included in the content review. However, 33 articles were excluded because they were not directly related to education. Analyses were made on 48 articles.

The review selection process, adapted from Page et al. (2021), is illustrated in the PRISMA flow chart in Figure 2.

Figure 2.

PRISMA Flow Chart Diagram of Study Selection Process in the Review.





Data analysis

In the analysis of the data, bibliometric analysis and descriptive analysis technique, one of the content analysis techniques, were used. In systematic analysis studies, bibliometric analyses are used to quantitatively reveal the general status of existing publications related to a certain discipline or subject area. Bibliometric analyses focus on author, citation, journal, country and similar variables in order to reveal the roles of different stakeholders in scientific studies rather than examining the content of existing studies (Yalçın & Esen, 2016). Descriptive content analysis, on the other hand, is a systematic compilation method to reveal the general trends and results of research on any subject or discipline (Çalık & Sözbilir, 2014). Researches based on descriptive content analysis summarize the current situation regarding a particular subject and sheds light on future research to eliminate the deficiencies in the field (Gough, Oliver, & Thomas, 2017). Such studies have the potential to contribute to the knowledge in the field by increasing the quality of theoretical and empirical research (Hallinger, 2013).

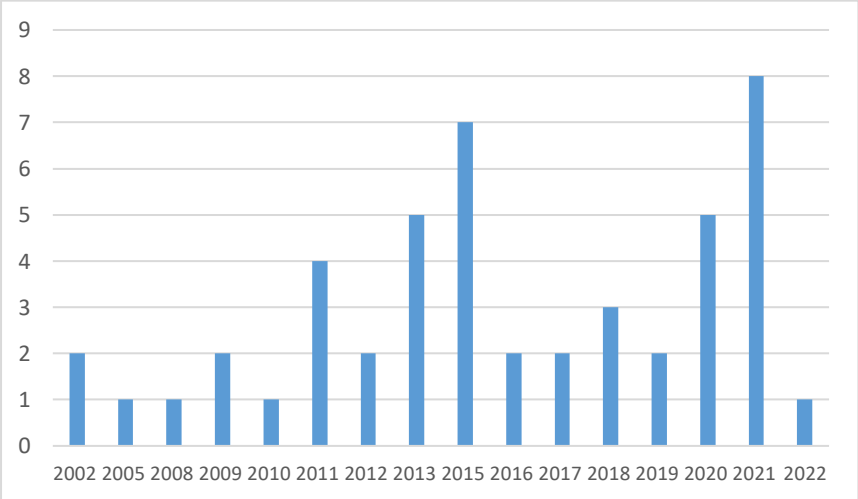
In this step, 48 articles were analyzed. For each article, information was collected about the authors, methodology, main results, and contributions. An Excel spreadsheet includes the authors' codes, the year of publication, the authors' country of origin, the research design, the field analyzed. The coding scheme was tested by sharing files with three scientists before being analyzed. In addition, techniques such as systematization, tabulation, and clustering are applied and main topics are determined based on a thematic analysis.

Findings and Discussion

Descriptive Findings

Number of articles by year

In the analysis according to the publication years of the articles published in the ISI, it is seen that the first study was published in 2002 and the number is increasing gradually (Graph 1). The increase in 2015 and 2021 is remarkable.



Graph 1. Number of articles by year of publication

There were publications in 31 different journals scanned by ISI (WoS) (Table 3). The journal with the most publication (6 articles) is the Journal of Marketing for Higher Education. Three articles were also published in Education and Science and Journal of Baltic Science Education. In other journals, one or two articles were published. When the journals are examined in terms of Q order, the most published group is the journals in the Q4 group (10 articles). Six articles were published in the Q1, Q2 and Q3 groups. It was not determined which Q group the 3 articles belonged to. The effect values of the journals varied between 5.112 and 0.682 (the effect value of 4 journals could not be found). Few of the published journals had high impact value and most of the publications had low impact value.

Table 1.

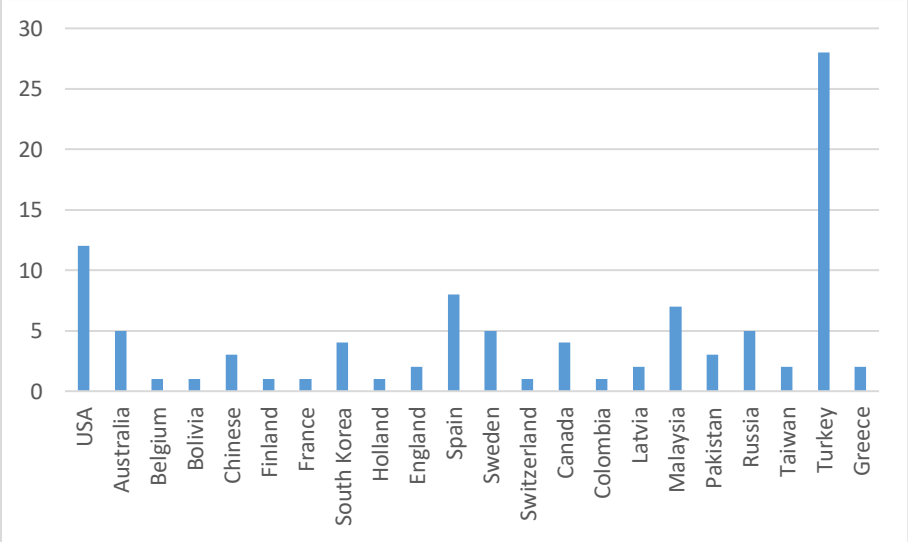
Distribution of Articles by Published Journals

Journal	f	%	Q	Impact value*
Journal of Marketing for Higher Education	6	12,50	Q1	4.495
Journal of Baltic Science Education	3	6,25	Q4	1.075
Education and Science	3	6,25	Q4	0.822
Teaching and Teacher Education	2	4,17	Q1	5.112
Educational Research	2	4,17	Q2	3.415
Journal of Educational Research	2	4,17	Q4	2.647
Asia-Pacific Education Researcher	2	4,17	Q2	2.618
Asia Pacific Education Review	2	4,17	Q3	2.093
Research in Science & Technological Education	2	4,17	Q4	1.896
Paedagogica Historica	2	4,17	Q4	0.682
Eurasian Journal of Educational Research	2	4,17	--	--

Journal of Teacher Education	1	2,08	Q1	4.923
Higher Education	1	2,08	Q1	4.767
Studies in Higher Education	1	2,08	Q1	4.536
Educational Review	1	2,08	Q1	3.585
International Review of Research in Open and	1		Q2	3.487
Distributed Learning		2,08		
Journal of Studies in International Education	1	2,08	Q2	3.466
Teaching in Higher Education	1	2,08	Q2	3.280
International Journal of Science and Mathematics	1		Q3	2.295
Education		2,08		
Research papers in education	1	2,08	Q3	2.268
International Journal of Technology and Design	1		Q3	2.209
Education		2,08		
Sage Open3	1	2,08	Q2	2.100
European Early Childhood Education Research Journal	1	2,08	Q3	2.074
Linguistics and Education	1	2,08	Q4	1.887
Education and Urban Society,	1	2,08	Q4	1.524
Asia Pacific Journal of Education	1	2,08	Q4	1.520
Educational sciences: Theory and practice	1	2,08	Q4	0.782
History of Education	1	2,08	Q4	0.718
EURASIA Journal of Mathematics, Science and	1		Q3	--
Technology Education		2,08		
British Journal of Religious Education	1	2,08	--	--
Energy Educ Sci Technol Part B	1	2,08	--	--
Total	48	100		

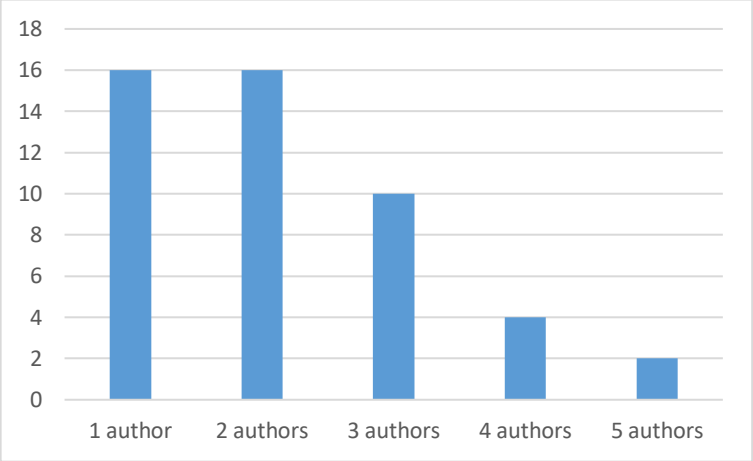
1- Impact factor for the last five years
2- Education & Educational Research in SSCI Edition
3-Social Sciences, Interdisciplinary in SSCI Edition

There have been publications on image from 22 different countries. Turkey has the most publications. Other countries with the highest number of publications are the USA, Spain, Malaysia, Sweden, Austria, and Russia.



Graph 2. Authors by country of employment

When the articles were examined in terms of the number of authors, it was seen that the articles with one and two authors were in the majority. The number of articles with collaborative work by authors from different countries is quite limited.

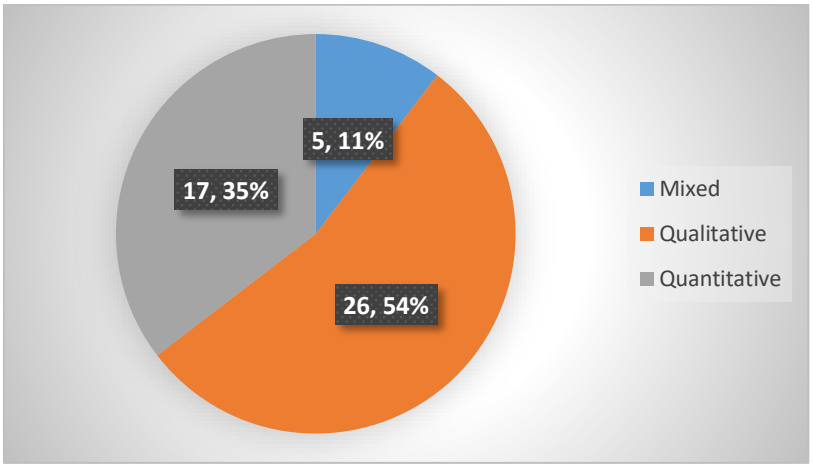


Graph 3. Articles by the numbers of authors

Research design Findings

Findings related to the method

Five of the studies (11%) were conducted in mixed design, 17 (35%) in quantitative design, and 26 (54%) in qualitative research design.



Graph 4. Articles by research design

Two of the studies in the mixed design were conducted in explanatory sequential design, two of them were conducted in exploratory sequential design and one of them was a case study. Most of the quantitative studies (12/17) were conducted as correlational research. Others were made in the descriptive model (5/17). In qualitative studies, mostly document analysis (11/26) was used. Content analysis was used in four studies, case studies in two studies, descriptive studies in two studies, embedded theory in two studies, metaphor analysis in one study, text analysis in one study, interview in one study, phenomenology in one study, and narrative research-narrative inquiry in another study.

Researchers generally conducted their research by collecting data from the countries in which they work. However, in the studies that collected data from different countries of the country where they work, the studies were generally conducted by collecting data from one country. However, while data were collected from two different countries in 5 studies, data were collected from 3 countries in one study.

Most of the research data were collected from university students (23/48) and 8 of them from students receiving teacher training and two studies from international students. 5 studies were conducted with secondary school students, 4 studies with high school students, one study with both secondary and high school students, and one study with data collected from primary school students. Five studies were conducted with the data collected from teachers. One study was conducted with imam-hatip high school teachers, one study was conducted with postgraduate teachers, and 3 studies were conducted with data collected from teachers working in schools at all levels. While two studies were conducted with graduate university students,

one study was conducted with the people around the school. Most of the qualitative studies have been made by analyzing magazines, newspapers, newspaper advertisements, government reports, textbooks, course catalogues, cartoons, photograph archives, novels, and musical pieces.

In the quantitative part of the studies, data were collected using questionnaires and scales. To collect qualitative data, interview forms, semi-structured and structured questionnaires, reports, documents, written texts, stories, newspapers, magazines, web pages, internet forums, visuals, novels, cartoons, drawings, advertisements, songs, DAST (Draw a Scientist Test), metaform forms, observations were used as data sources.

In the analysis of the data, the structural equation model (9/17) was mostly used for quantitative research. EFA and CFA were used for scale development studies. Other analyses used in quantitative studies are descriptive statistics (X, %, f). In qualitative research, the most used analysis technique is DASTT-C (Draw a Science Teacher Test – Checklist), rubric (8/26), content analysis (6/26), descriptive analysis (5/26), discourse analysis (3/26), inductive analysis (3/26) and Draw-An-Inventor Test – Checklist (DAIT-C) (1/26) were used.

Results for image types

According to the time of image perception, almost all of the studies (47/48) are about the current image. Only one study focused on the ideal image (Cuddapah & Stanford, 2015). When the studies are examined according to the quality of the message that creates the image, it has been seen that studies based on both concrete and abstract images are made. When the studies were examined according to the quality of the perceived image, it was seen that the studies generally

focused on the positive image (46/48), and only 2 (2/48) studies included the negative image. When we look at the studies in terms of image classification according to the perceiver, it has been seen that all of the studies are based on internal stakeholders, and no external image studies have been found.

According to the levels of image perception, 14 of the studies focused on group image, one on department image, 9 on organizational image, 11 on corporate image, and one study on system image. It can be said that 14 conceptual image studies are related to personal image.

When the studies were examined according to the dominant factor in the formation of image perception, it was seen that most of the studies were based on the product image perception, and a few studies were focused on the image of the brand. There are no studies based on transfer and umbrella image perception.

Thematic analysis results

The selected articles were examined in terms of content and it was seen that they were gathered under three main themes. Of the 48 studies conducted, 13 are related to concept image, 14 to teacher image, and 21 to organizational image (Table 2). As can be seen, most of the studies are about organizational image.

Table 2.

Thematic Analysis Results

Main Themes	Sub Themes	Code	Author/-s (Year)	f
Concept image	Images of scientists	Images of scientists	Kaya, O. N., Doğan, A. & Öcal, E. (2008)	6

			Medina-Jerez, W., Middleton, K. V., & Orihuela-Rabaza, W. (2011). Subramaniam, K., Esprívalo Harrell, P., & Wojnowski, D. (2013). Toğrol, A. Y. (2013). McCarthy, D. (2015). Emvalotis, A., & Koutsianou, A. (2018).	
		Environmental scientist images	Dikmenli, M., Cardak, O., Oztas, F., & Yakisan, M. (2010).	1
		The images of the inventor	Lee, E., & Kwon, H. (2019).	1
	Image of education-teaching concepts	Mental images of science teaching	Duban, N. Y. (2013).	1
		Images about classroom management	Akar, H., & Yildirim, A. (2009).	1
		The progressive image of education.	Braster, S., & del Pozo Andrés, M. D. M. (2020)	1
	Place image	National images	Åkerlund, A. (2015).	1
		City image	Ma, A. H. S. (2021).	1
Teacher image	Teacher's image	Images of science teachers	Hulings, M. (2022) Tatar, N. (2015).	2
		General teacher's image	Andrews, D., & Lewis, M. (2002) Gordon, J. A. (2005).	8

			Craig, C. J. (2012) Aslan, N. (2016). Grunder, H. U. (2016). Chang-Kredl, S., & Colannino, D. (2017). Kestere, I., & Kalke, B. (2018). So, K., & Park, N. (2022)	
		Ideal teacher image	Cuddapah, J. L., & Stanford, B. H. (2015)	1
	Images of teacher students	Student teachers' pedagogical images	Fung, L., & Chow, L. P. (2002)	1
		Images of teacher students	Niikko, A. (2020).	1
	images of academic	Images of academic teachers	Brodin, E. M., Rydén, J. B., Ljungqvist, M., & Sonesson, A. (2021)	1
Organizational image	Image of the schools	Organisational image of the school	Akman, Y., & Ozdemir, M. (2019). Kalkan, Ü., Altınay Aksal, F., Altınay Gazi, Z., Atasoy, R., & Dağlı, G. (2020).	2
		Image of basic schools	Ereş, F. (2011)	1
	Image of higher education	University brand image	Chen, Y. C. (2015). Schlesinger, W., Cervera-Taulet, A., & Wymer, W. (2021)	4

		Alcaide-Pulido, P., O'Sullivan, H., & Chapleo, C. (2021). Zaman, U., Aktan, M., Baber, H., & Nawaz, S. (2021).	
	Prestigious image	Draelants, H. (2012).	1
	Image of higher education institutions	Brown, R. M., & Mazzarol, T. W. (2009). Polat, S. (2011a). Polat, S. (2011b). Atabek, G. Ş., & Atabek, Ü. (2015). Wilkins, S., & Huisman, J. (2015). Alcaide-Pulido, P., Alves, H., & Gutiérrez-Villar, B. (2017). Vinichenko, M., Kirillov, A., Frolova, E., Pochinok, N., & Kaurova, O. (2018). bin Mohd Amin, M. R., Kumar Piaralal, S., Rosli bin Daud, Y., & Bin Mohamed, B. (2020). Bae, S., Grimm, A. T., & Kim, D. (2021). Erkan, I., Unal, S., & Acikgoz, F. (2021)	11

	Manzoor, S. R., Ho, J. S. Y., & Al Mahmud, A. (2021).	
Higher education country image	Li, J., Liu, F., & Rojas-Méndez, J. I. (2013)	1
University Image Attractiveness	Wilkins, S., & Huisman, J. (2013).	1

Findings about concept image

Most of the studies on concept image are related to scientist image (8). In addition, there were three studies on education and training concepts and two studies on geographical location image.

Most of the studies on the scientist (Emvalotis, A., & Koutsianou, 2018; Kaya, Doğan & Öcal, 2008; McCarthy, 2015; Medina-Jerez, Middleton, & Orihuela-Rabaza, 2011; Subramaniam, K., Esprívalo Harrell, & Wojnowski, 2013; Toğrol, 2013) intended to describe the general scientist. One study (Dikmenli, Cardak, Oztas & Yakisan, 2010) focuses on describing the scientist. One study (Dikmenli, Çardak, Öztaş & Yakışan, 2010) focuses on the environmental scientist image, while another study (Lee & Kwon, 2019) focuses on describing the image of the inventor.

Table 3.

Studies on Concept Image

Author/-s (Year)	Main findings
Kaya, O. N., Doğan, A. & Öcal, E. (2008)	Most of the students have a stereotypical male scientist image who wears eyeglasses and lab coats.
Medina-Jerez, W., Middleton, K. V., & Orihuela-Rabaza, W. (2011)	Students perceive image of scientists differs according to nationality, grade and school type.
Subramaniam, K., Esprívalo Harrell, P., & Wojnowski, D. (2013)	The image of the scientist differs according to the ethnicity of the participant. The amount of the indications of danger in the drawings are related to gender. Male participants draw these images more often than females.
Toğrol, A. Y. (2013)	Women and men do not see a female scientist as a stereotypical scientist image in the society. The stereotypical image of scientists is: a smiling bald man wearing a lab coat and glasses, with facial hair, and works indoors alone.
McCarthy, D. (2015)	Female scientists appear in almost 48% of the drawings. Smiling scientists are common.
Emvalotis, A., & Koutsianou, A. (2018)	Greek primary school students have common stereotypical images related to the scientist's activities, not to their appearance.
Dikmenli, M., Cardak, O., Oztas, F., & Yakisan, M. (2010)	High school students draw displaying both positive and negative images of a scientist.
Lee, E., & Kwon, H. (2019)	Students have stereotypical images of inventors.

	Tools which are used for building and fixing things such as hammers, spanners, and screwdrivers are used as symbols of inventors by students.
Akar, H., & Yildirim, A. (2009)	The constructivist learning process may change of the image in teacher candidates' conceptions of classroom management.
Duban, N. Y. (2013)	13.08% of the pre-service teachers of science and technology courses have student centered images. 62.62% of the pre-service teachers have images between student-centered science teaching and traditional science teaching. 24.30% of the pre-service teachers have traditional science teaching images.
Braster, S., & del Pozo Andrés, M. D. M. (2020)	Elements of the image of new progressive education are being creative, expressive and including physical activities; including students' peer-working; not just receiving instruction; and students' working both inside and outside of the school.
Åkerlund, A. (2015)	To transfer the national images internationally, two important factors are language education and education system. In Germany, Swedish is taught as a foreign language to pass on the Swedish national self-image to Germany.
Ma, A. H. S. (2021)	The city image is as important as university reputation in international student destination choice in the Asian context.

Studies on education concept image are related to mental images of science teaching (Duban, 2013), images about classroom management (Akar & Yildirim, 2009) and the progressive image of education (Braster & del Pozo Andrés, 2020).

There are two studies about the geographical places where education is given. One of these studies (Åkerlund, 2015) is about the Swedish image (national images) of students learning Swedish in Germany, and the other study (Ma, 2021) is about the university attractiveness of the city image of higher education.

Findings about teacher image

Of the 48 studies, 14 were related to teacher image. Eight of the 14 studies described the current image of teachers (Andrews, & Lewis, 2002; Aslan, 2016; Chang-Kredln & Colannino, 2017; Craig, 2012; Gordon, 2005; Grunder, 2016; Kestere, & Kalke, 2018; So & Park, 2022). One study focused on the ideal image of teachers (Cuddapah, & Stanford, 2015).

Two studies specifically focused on the image of science teachers (Hulings, 2022; Tatar, 2015). Two studies examined the image of the candidate teacher (Fung, & Chow, 2002; Niikko, 2020) and one study examined the image of the academician. As can be seen, the majority of the studies focused on the general image of the teacher, regardless of the branch.

Table 4.

Studies on Teacher Image

Author/-s (Year)	Main findings
Andrews, D., & Lewis, M. (2002)	Teachers create a professional group by taking part in the process of creating image.
Gordon, J. A. (2005)	The studies between 1996 and 2001 put forward the fact that there are changes in teacher image and the respect for teachers in Japan.

Craig, C. J. (2012)	The image of "butterfly under a pin" is defined as an unwelcome image of a teacher and a curriculum maker, by feeling not being in charge but being answerable to administrators and consultant decrees.
Aslan, N. (2016)	The concept of "teacher" is described as a guide to society, citizenship and democratic values by Spanish participants. Turkish participants describe "teacher" as a guide to dedication, traditional values, emotional support and enlightenment.
Grunder, H. U. (2016)	Good teachers are capable of designing and delivering instruction for their students to acquire sufficient content in an atmosphere suitable for learning.
Chang-Kredl, S., & Colannino, D. (2017)	The best teachers have subject knowledge and how to present that knowledge very well, have respectable personal qualities, are affectionate towards relationships with the students, and have a lasting impact on the student's life. The worst teachers are not qualified, not fair or incapable of their teaching skills, does not have pleasant personality traits, are indifferent or damaging towards students, and does not have a long-lasting impact on the students.
Kestere, I., & Kalke, B. (2018)	The ideal Soviet teacher image is defined as a modest, serious, asexual young and middle-aged female.
So, K., & Park, N. (2022)	The specific teacher images are formed by educational policies related to non-discursive situations. The particular teacher images can affect teachers' everyday practices.
Tatar, N. (2015)	The image of science teachers was thought to be teacher-centered, however it turns out student-centered later on.
Hulings, M. (2022)	A good science teacher is described as patient, well-informed in his/her subject, leader to help students explore and investigate, beside showing their expectations openly.

	A bad science teacher is described as a teacher who is unfriendly and controlling, monotonous, assigns exercises only on paper and does not teach in-depth.
Fung, L., & Chow, L. P. (2002)	Student teachers have an image of a Nurturing image about themselves, which is a more child-centered approach, however their practices in classrooms show they have a mix image of the Apprenticeship and the Transmission image, which are teacher-centered approaches.
Niikko, A. (2020)	The teacher students' images about themselves as teachers and about children emphasize teachers' and children's social and emotional features. They have traditional and stereotypical images.
Brodin, E. M., Rydén, J. B., Ljungqvist, M., & Sonesson, A. (2021)	The four dominant ideologies of academic teaching which are teaching as moulding students, processing students, benefitting from students, scholarly responsibility, contributed to constructing eight discursive images of teachers which are superior man, inadaptable academics, all-round labourers, political critics, incompetent teacher, teaching researcher, disciplinary experts, and societal critic.
Cuddapah, J. L., & Stanford, B. H. (2015)	The ideal teachers are the ones who are knowledgeable, enthusiastic, caring and student-centered in a grounded, organized yet flexible, not romanticized. The teachers of student teachers influence their ideal teacher images.

Findings on organizational image

While only three of the 21 studies on organizational image are related to the image of schools, the majority of them are related to the image of higher education institutions. One of the studies on the organizational image of schools is about the image of primary education schools (Ereş, 2011), and the other two (Akman, & Ozdemir,

2019; Kalkan, Altınay Aksal, Altınay Gazi, Atasoy & Dağlı, 2020) focused on the organizational image of the school at all levels.

When the studies on higher education institutions are examined, the majority of the studies (11/18) focuses on the general institutional image of higher education institutions (Alcaide-Pulido, Alves & Gutiérrez-Villar, 2017; Atabek, & Atabek, 2015; Bae, Grimm, & Kim, 2021; bin Mohd Amin, Kumar Piaralal, Rosli bin Daud & Bin Mohamed, 2020; Brown, & Mazzarol, 2009; Erkan, Unal, & Acikgoz, 2021; Manzoor, Ho, & Al Mahmud, 2021; Polat, 2011a; Polat, 2011b; Vinichenko, Kirillov, Frolova, Pochinok & Kaurova, 2018; Wilkins, & Huisman, 2015). One study focuses on the prestigious image (Draelants, 2012) and four studies focus on the university brand image (Alcaide-Pulido, O'Sullivan & Chapleo, 2021; Chen, 2015; Schlesinger, Cervera-Taulet & Wymer, 2021; Zaman, Aktan, Baber & Nawaz, 2021). In addition, one study focuses on university image attractiveness and one study focused on higher education country image (Li, Liu & Rojas-Méndez, 2013).

Table 5.

Studies on Organizational Change

Author/-s (Year)	**Main findings**
Ereş, F. (2011)	The visual image of school building, principal and teachers, professional image, and behavioural image have an important value when compared to the visual appearances of the principals and teachers.
Akman, Y., & Ozdemir, M. (2019)	The organizational attractiveness has a partial mediating role between the variables of organizational image and organizational loyalty.
Kalkan, Ü., Altınay Aksal, F., Altınay	The leadership style of school principals predicted school culture, and school culture predicted organizational image. Along with these, school

Gazi, Z., Atasoy, R., & Dağlı, G. (2020)	culture has a mediating role of organizational image and leadership styles.
Chen, Y. C. (2015)	Service recovery is positively associated with a university's brand image; and relationship quality is positively associated with a university's brand image.
Alcaide-Pulido, P., O'Sullivan, H., & Chapleo, C. (2021)	There are some cultural differences in terms of shaping brand image of universities. For example, communication through institutional website is important for English and Portuguese undergraduate students while social issues and ethical concerns is more important for Spanish students. Also, the campus facilities are important for English and Spanish students.
Schlesinger, W., Cervera-Taulet, A., & Wymer, W. (2021)	University brand image is an effective impact of a positive word-of-mouth intentions among graduated students. The influence of university brand on students' satisfaction and university identification affects alumni word-of-mouth positively.
Zaman, U., Aktan, M., Baber, H., & Nawaz, S. (2021)	Forced-shift to online learning has a significant positive affect on international students' learning engagement and university brand image. International students' learning engagement has a partial mediating role between forced-shift to online learning and university brand image.
Draelants, H. (2012)	The prestigious image exerts an undeniable attraction on numerous students, however prestigious image affects its effect on their feeling of accessibility is not clear.
Wilkins, S., & Huisman, J. (2013)	Feedback resulting from personal affairs and recommendations are the most effective aspect creating the images of universities formed by students. Elite institutions can take advantage of the positive home campus images they have which is based on heritage and prestige, and this influences the images which form the international branch campuses positively.

Li, J., Liu, F., & Rojas-Méndez, J. I. (2013)	The country in which the higher education institution is located has an insignificant influence on students' selection of the institution, alone. However, together with the local partner institution image, it has a significant influence.
Brown, R. M., & Mazzarol, T. W. (2009)	The loyalty of students is predicted by student satisfaction and student satisfaction is predicted by the perceived image of university in Australia.
Polat, S. (2011b)	The perceived organizational image predicts university students' academic achievement. The perceptions of quality image, social environment image, sports image, general outlook, entertainment image, and physical infrastructure image and are positively related with academic achievement, The perception of accommodation-food image have no influence on students' academic achievement.
Polat, S. (2011a)	Perceived organizational image of the university according to students is at "moderate level". While students' perceptions of general outlook and physical infrastructure image, social atmosphere image, program image and entertainment image are at "moderate level", their perceptions of sports image and accommodation-food image is at "low level"
Atabek, G. Ş., & Atabek, Ü. (2015)	Turkish universities have been at the first stages of their image building process. Newspaper advertisements are an important aspect for universities' image building process.
Wilkins, S., & Huisman, J. (2015)	Information and opinions gathered with the help of personal relationships and the media, which form the organizational image of the university, is quite effective on the membership intentions of prospective students.

Alcaide-Pulido, P., Alves, H., & Gutiérrez-Villar, B. (2017)	Image of a university is formed by four aspects, which are national and international recognition, external communication and values, facilities, and economic value.
Vinichenko, M., Kirillov, A., Frolova, E., Pochinok, N., & Kaurova, O. (2018)	In order to solve the problems related to forming of a favorable image for universities; it is important to increase teachers' level of satisfaction and motivation, teachers' scientific and research function, to improve attractiveness and trust for teachers and students.
bin Mohd Amin, M. R., Kumar Piaralal, S., Rosli bin Daud, Y., & Bin Mohamed, B. (2020)	University image does not have a moderating effect on the relationship between service recovery satisfaction and justice dimensions.
Bae, S., Grimm, A. T., & Kim, D. (2021)	On universities' websites, there are some little differences in the text and visual images, even though the organizational and national settings are different.
Erkan, I., Unal, S., & Acikgoz, F. (2021)	All of the factors that are quality of academics, education, research, and physical conditions affect university image positively. The quality of research affects the university image mostly. University image is really effective on students' supportive attitudes.
Manzoor, S. R., Ho, J. S. Y., & Al Mahmud, A. (2021)	Image extends the university image model and recreate image variables, which in turn builds satisfaction among students, contributes to students' citizenship behaviors such as advocacy, feedback, helping and tolerance.

Findings on the antecedents and outcomes of organizational image

The studies were also examined in terms of the models established in terms of the antecedents and outputs of the image, and only some of the studies on organizational image (14/48) were made by establishing a model. In the model of 9 studies (Akman, & Ozdemir, 2019; bin Mohd Amin, Kumar Piaralal, Rosli bin Daud & Bin Mohamed, 2020; Brown & Mazzarol, 2009; Li, Liu & Rojas-Méndez, 2013; Ma, 2021; Manzoor, Ho & Al Mahmud, 2021; Polat, 2011b; Schlesinger, Cervera-Taulet & Wymer, 2021; Wilkins & Huisman, 2015), image was considered as an antecedent and independent variable, while in the model of 5 studies, image was considered as the output variable (Åkerlund, 2015; Alcaide-Pulido, O'Sullivan & Chapleo, 2021; Chen, 2015; Kalkan, Altınay Aksal, Altınay Gazi, Atasoy & Dağlı, 2020; Zaman, Aktan, Baber & Nawaz, 2021). In only one study, image was considered as a mediating variable (Erkan, Unal & Acikgoz, 2021).

Table 6.

Antecedents and Outputs of Organizational Image

Author/-s (Year)	Independent variable	Moderator variable	Dependent variable
Akman, Y., & Ozdemir, M. (2019)	Organisational image	Organisational attraction	Organisational loyalty
Kalkan, Ü., Altınay Aksal, F., Altınay Gazi, Z., Atasoy, R., & Dağlı, G. (2020)	Leadership styles	School culture	Organisational image
Chen, Y. C. (2015)	Service recovery	Relationship quality	Brand image

Alcaide-Pulido, P., O'Sullivan, H., & Chapleo, C. (2021)	University facilities National and international recognition and awareness, Economic value External communications and values		Brand image
Schlesinger, W., Cervera-Taulet, A., & Wymer, W. (2021)	University brand image	Satisfaction identification	Positive word-of-mouth
Zaman, U., Aktan, M., Baber, H., & Nawaz, S. (2021)	Forced-shift to online learning Perceived harm	International students' learning engagement	University brand image
Li, J., Liu, F., & Rojas-Méndez, J. I. (2013)	Country image Higher education country image Local institution image Attitude toward behaviour Subject norm Received behavioural control		Enrolment intention
Brown, R. M., & Mazzarol, T. W. (2009)	Image	Perceived value Customer satisfaction	Customer loyalty

Polat, S. (2011b)	Organizational image		Academic achievement
Wilkins, S., & Huisman, J. (2015)	University image		Attachment to institutions
bin Mohd Amin, M. R., Kumar Piaralal, S., Rosli bin Daud, Y., & Bin Mohamed, B. (2020)	Image of university	Organizational justice Service Recovery Satisfaction	Repurchase intention Word of mouth Trust Loyalty
Erkan, I., Unal, S., & Acikgoz, F. (2021)	Quality of academics Quality of education Quality of research Quality of physical conditions	University image	Supportive attitudes
Manzoor, S. R., Ho, J. S. Y., & Al Mahmud, A. (2021)	University image	Satisfaction	Citizenship behaviour
Åkerlund, A. (2015)	Foreign language curriculum and textbooks		Country image
Ma, A. H. S. (2021)	Academic reputation, city image.		International student Destination choice

As seen in Table 6, the antecedents of the image in the studies conducted are leadership styles, school culture, service recovery, relationship quality, university facilities, national and international recognition and awareness, economic value, external communications and values, forced-shift to online learning, perceived harm,

international students' learning engagement, quality of academics, quality of education, quality of research, quality of physical conditions, foreign language curriculum and textbooks. The outputs of the image in the studies are organizational attraction, organizational loyalty, satisfaction, identification, positive word-of-mouth, enrolment intention, customer loyalty, perceived value, customer satisfaction, academic achievement, attachment to institutions, organizational justice, service recovery, repurchase intention, word of mouth, trust, loyalty, supportive attitudes, citizenship behaviour, international student destination choice.

Conclusions and Further Research Directions

As a result of the research, an increasing trend was observed in the number of journals scanned in the Web of Science database in the field of education. It is estimated that this number will increase even more with the internationalization of education in the future. Although the number of image articles is increasing, it is difficult to say that the quality of the articles is that high when the Q and Impact values of the published journals are examined. For this reason, publishing in journals with a lower Q value and a higher impact value will make the image issue more important. Image has been studied by a limited number of academics in a limited country in the world, usually with one or two authors. Conducting collaborative studies in different countries will allow comparisons at the world and regional scale.

When we look at the studies in terms of method, quantitative studies are in the majority, whereas studies in mixed design are very few. The need for mixed research method designs has also increased to eliminate the deficiencies of a single method and to conduct more qualified research (Greene, 2005). Therefore, there is a greater need for

mixed-pattern research in future studies in terms of establishing and testing an image-related model. In addition, a single type of data collection and analysis technique was used in the studies. Theories developed with data obtained with small, homogeneous study groups are subject to criticism. Over time, it is possible to reach conceptualizations covering a large number of cases and people with different characteristics, by clustering these studies or by diversifying data and methods (Estabrooks, Field, & Morse, 1994). Diversification in research is the use of different methods, data sources, researchers, and perspectives to cross-check data and interpretations (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Conducting studies in which different data collection and analysis techniques are used together will further increase the validity and reliability of articles on image. Very few studies have been observed in which the views of the data collected groups were compared. Collecting data from multiple groups will facilitate comparisons.

According to Akay (2005), organizational image management is a systematic, multi-faceted process that includes plans and policies for the organization to display a positive image in the internal and external environment and to eliminate negative thoughts towards itself. The greater the harmony between the external image and the internal image, the stronger the personality and image of the organization get now and, in the future, and the organization will be more effective against the outside (Bakan, 2004; Köktürk, Yalçın, & Çobanoğlu, 2008). In this sense, organizations should constantly compare their external images with their internal images, and they should direct their image management activities according to the results (Polat & Arslan, 2017). For this reason, in content image studies, external image measurements should be made and evaluated together,

as well as internal image studies. The positive organizational image formed as a result of effective image management can make the organization more original than other organizations. In addition, a positive organizational image may cause the products and services offered by the organization to be more attractive to stakeholders (Polat & Arslan, 2017). In terms of image management, it is necessary to look at the negative image features as well as the positive image features. When the studies are examined in terms of image types, the studies generally focus on one type of image (e.g., current image, positive image, interior image). In order to obtain more accurate results and comments on image, studies should be conducted with different types of images are considered together (e.g., current image-ideal image, positive-negative image, interior-external image).

Studies on concept image in the field of education mostly focus on the image of scientist. The results obtained from the drawings of the studies conducted in different countries and times show that the drawings are formed based on stereotypes and in a similar way. For this reason, it requires new researches with different techniques to create a more realistic image. In addition, the image of other concepts such as teacher, academician etc. can be studied in future research, apart from the concept of scientist. Studies on teacher image have focused on general teacher image without branch and education level. Image studies based on teachers' branches and studies based on the image of teachers at different levels (e.g., primary school, secondary school, high school, university) will both allow the comparison of research and shed light on professional development. Organizational image studies mostly focus on the image of higher education institutions. The number of studies focusing on the organizational image of schools is very few. Conducting research that will reveal the

organizational image of schools at different levels will contribute to the literature.

Knowing what the antecedents and outputs of organizational image are makes the work of managers easier and provides an effective image management opportunity for managers. Knowing the factors that play a role in the formation of image perception can contribute to the realization of organizational goals by providing managers with an effective image management opportunity (Polat & Arslan, 2017). While studies on the antecedents and outputs of image were not preferred in studies on the theme of conceptual image and teacher image, they were carried out in studies on the theme of organizational image, especially in studies focusing on the image of higher education institutions. Making a study based on the conceptual image-based model may be difficult due to its content, but the model can be established and tested by determining the antecedent and output variables for the formation and effects of the teacher image. In addition, based on the antecedents and outputs of organizational image, the models in these studies can be tested in different countries or new models can be established and tested.

As with any research, this study also has limitations. This research is based on articles about image based on educational topics in the Web of Science database. Books, papers and fields other than education in this database are excluded. With the same method, future studies can be done to cover other databases, fields of science, books and papers.

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