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**COMMUNICATION, CLIMATE AND MANAGERIAL FLEXIBILITY REGARDING
SCHOLARLY PRACTICES IN UNIVERSITIES, AND FACULTY'S ACADEMIC
INTELLECTUAL LEADERSHIP: A STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELING**

DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

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Communication, Climate and Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices in Universities, and Faculty's Academic Intellectual Leadership: A Structural Equation Modeling

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(Doctoral Dissertation)

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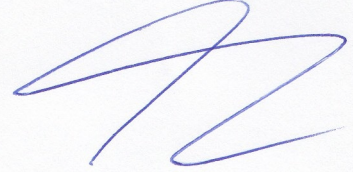
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I hereby declare that the doctoral dissertation "Communication, Climate and Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices in Universities, and Faculty's Academic Intellectual Leadership: A Structural Equation Modeling", was written by me without any contradictory help in terms of academic ethics and values, and all sources which I have benefited during the research have been fully cited in references.

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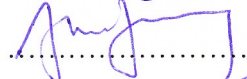
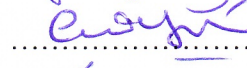

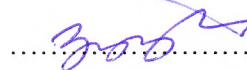


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Abstract

Communication, Climate and Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices in Universities and Faculty's Academic Intellectual Leadership: A Structural Equation Modeling

Recent changes in higher education area have brought new duties to academics such as developing innovative teaching methods, generating alternative resources, leading cooperation with government and industry, participating in international research networks, representing disciplines and institutions. These new duties and academics' traditional roles, as knowledge producer and public intellectual, constitute their intellectual leadership. As well as examining the fulfilment of these behaviors by faculty as senior academics, it is important to investigate the effects of their personal characteristics and universities' organizational features on their leadership. Accordingly, the purpose of the research is to examine the influence of faculty's personal characteristics on their leadership, and to explore relations among communication, climate and managerial practice flexibility in universities and their leadership. For this purpose, data were collected from 504 Turkish faculty by online questionnaire consisting of Organizational Communication, Organizational Climate, Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices, Academic Intellectual Leadership scales. The data set was analyzed by using Descriptive, Inferential and Correlation Analysis techniques, and Path Analysis within Structural Equation Modeling. Results show that faculty's gender, seniority, titles, disciplines and administrative duties have significant influence on their leadership. Analysis also revealed that faculty give priority to behaviors which primarily contribute to the development of their disciplines, and communication in universities has a strong impact on their leadership via the mediation of organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices. Consequently, university managements, to empower faculty's academic intellectual leadership, should generate more positive atmosphere and maximize the efficiency of institutional practices by establishing functional communication systems in their institutions.

Özet

Üniversitelerdeki İletişim, İklim ve Bilimsel-Sosyal Uygulamalara İlişkin Yönetsel Esneklik ile Öğretim Üyelerinin Akademik Entelektüel Liderliği: Bir Yapısal Eşitlik Modellemesi

Yükseköğretim alanında son dönemde yaşanan değişimler, akademisyenlere yenilikçi öğretim metotları geliştirme, alternatif kaynaklar üretme, devlet ve endüstri ile işbirliğine öncülük etme, uluslararası araştırma ağlarına katılma, disiplinlerini ve kurumlarını temsil etme gibi yeni görevler getirmiştir. Bu görevler ile birlikte geleneksel rolleri olan bilgi üreticiliği ve kamu entelektüelliği, akademisyenlerin entelektüel liderliğini oluşturmaktadır. Üst düzey akademisyenler olan öğretim üyelerinin bu davranışlarının irdelenmesi kadar, öğretim üyelerinin kişisel ve üniversitelerin örgütsel özelliklerinin bu liderlik davranışları üzerindeki etkisinin belirlenmesi de önemli görünmektedir. Bu anlamda; araştırmanın amacı, öğretim üyelerinin kişisel özelliklerinin entelektüel liderlikleri üzerindeki etkisinin ve öğretim üyelerinin liderlikleri ile üniversitelerdeki iletişim, iklim ve yönetsel uygulama esnekliği arasındaki ilişkilerin incelenmesidir. Bu doğrultuda; araştırma verileri 504 Türk öğretim üyesinden Örgütsel İletişim, Örgüt İklimi, Bilimsel-Sosyal Uygulamalara İlişkin Yönetsel Esneklik ve Akademik Entelektüel Liderlik ölçeklerinden oluşan online anket ile toplanmıştır. Verilerin analizinde Betimsel, Çıkarımsal, Korelasyon ve Yapısal Eşitlik Modellemesi kapsamında Yol analizleri gerçekleştirilmiştir. Analiz sonuçları; cinsiyet, kıdem, ünvan, disiplin ve yönetim görevi değişkenlerinin öğretim üyelerinin liderlikleri üzerinde etkili olduğunu göstermektedir. Ayrıca, öğretim üyelerinin önceliklerini disiplinlerine katkı sağlayıcı davranışların oluşturduğu ve kurumlarındaki iletişimin örgütsel iklim ve bilimsel-sosyal uygulamalara ilişkin yönetsel esneklik aracılığıyla entelektüel liderliklerini etkilediği belirlenmiştir. Bu sonuçlara göre, öğretim üyelerinin akademik entelektüel liderliklerini güçlendirmek için üniversite yönetimlerinin işlevsel iletişim sistemleri oluşturarak, kurumlarındaki iklimi ve uygulamaların etkinliğini geliştirmeleri gerektiği söylenebilir.

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Chapter I

This chapter, to introduce the basis of the research, comprises statement of the problem, purpose, significance, assumptions and limitations of the research, and definitions of some concepts related to the research.

Introduction

In the 21st Century, during which rapid development into science and technology is increasing, people graduating from different majors of universities with various qualifications are accepted as a key intellectual, human and social capital for all countries. In this regard, one of main missions of higher education institutions is to ensure education that provides these people with the qualities and skills to become individuals of sophisticated creativity, and to realize their own learning, to produce new knowledge and to transmute this knowledge into products (Ergün, 2011). Besides teaching, all higher education institutions and especially universities have other missions to produce new knowledge as outcomes of their research and development activities (Welch, 2005a) and contribute social life with their activities of community engagement (Sandmann, Thornton & Jaeger, 2009).

Academics are the essential human resource of universities to achieve these missions effectively (Scott, Coates & Anderson, 2008). Hence, academics are expected to carry out many duties and responsibilities. Some of them are leading research, producing income, preserving scientific and professional standards, helping their colleagues' career advancement, being a role model, influencing public debates, leading teaching and learning, affecting universities' directions and representing their departments and universities (Bolden et al., 2012).

The behaviors and activities exhibited by academics while they fulfil their duties and responsibilities were termed *Intellectual Leadership* by Macfarlane (2011), and the

intellectual leadership actions of academics were categorized by Macfarlane (2011; 2012), based on Tight's (2002) study, into 6 dimensions as *Role Model*, *Mentor*, *Advocate*, *Guardian*, *Acquisitor* and *Ambassador*. For actualization of these academics' behaviors and activities which affect the success of universities directly, the most critical determinant is the work environment of academics within their universities.

The prior factor influencing academics' opinions related to the efficacy of their working environment is their general perceptions about their organizations, which is called *Organizational Climate* (Özdede, 2010). Another factor shaping the work environment in universities is *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices*, which is created by alternative practices executed by management to facilitate academics' activities (Brehony & Deem, 2005). *Organizational Communication*, defined as the inside and outside information exchange used to achieve the aims of the organization, is another important variable indirectly affecting the work environment in universities through the agency of organizational climate and managerial practice flexibility and perhaps directly affecting academics' productivity (Gizir & Gizir, 2005; Şimşek, 2011).

Statement of the Problem

Some news articles in the Turkish media such as *Time-Serving Professor Just for Salary* (Sürek, 2012), *Insufficient Academics for their Students* (Keskin & Burucu, 2013) and *Plagiarism Suicide* (Aydın, 2012) caused to raise many serious questions about discharge of academics' duties and responsibilities within intellectual leadership. Although it is acknowledged that not all academics can accomplish the duties and responsibilities expected of them, this situation is not only the responsibility of academics themselves but also higher education system and university management in Turkey (Atila, 2009). After a rapid increase in the number of universities during last three decades, there are 71 foundation and 108 public

universities in Turkey. In 1992, 24 public universities (22.22%) were established and 50 public universities (46.30%) were established after 2005 (Günay & Günay, 2011; <http://www.yok.gov.tr/>, 16.05.2014, updated 11.06.2015). Many of these young public universities do not have adequate physical infrastructure and convenient institutional systems, and need more academic and administrative staff (Aypay, 2015; Çetinsaya, 2014). Therefore, as in many higher education institutions of other developing countries, academics in these young Turkish public universities do not have enough time and suitable work conditions to carry out research, service activities and collaborative projects with their colleagues because of their huge teaching loads and scanty institutional resources.

Additionally, Turkish public universities have meager governmental funds, mainly for basic expenses such as staff salaries and maintenance of physical structures, and do not have strong resources from external sources (Kavak, 2011). Thus, managers in Turkish universities can only operate limited practices to develop institutional services for academic activities. Turkish universities also are affiliated to nation-wide central management structure, The Council of Higher Education, Turkey (YÖK), and academics have to follow heavy bureaucratic processes because of strong hierarchical system in their institutions. Thus, interactions between staff and management and the participation of academics in decision-making are very constricted (Arabacı, 2011; Günay, 2011). Furthermore, YÖK provides universities in each year with a limited number of positions to appoint new staff and promote existing ones, so academics' perceptions towards their institutions can be affected positively or negatively by their managements' preferences related to academic appointments or promotions (Aypay, 2015; Özer, 2011). In this regard, many public universities in Turkey cannot provide suitable work conditions for academics to display intellectual leadership behaviors. This reality is confirmed by academics' recent criticisms about the decreasing quality in higher education, students' complaints related to managerial issues and many

judicial disputes increasing day by day between academics and higher education institutions (Ekinici & Burgaz, 2007; Erkutlu & Chafra, 2014).

The most important feature of universities, conducive to this unfortunate situation, is the compliance level of work environments provided for academics (Chan, 2012). Providing individual autonomy in work place is necessary to fulfil the duties of academics; this is provided by flexible structures in universities (Adonisi & van Wyk, 2012). Hence, university managements should create flexibility by means of alternative practices to support academics regarding research and development activities, teaching and learning issues, and involvement in communal and social progress.

Flexibility in administrative approaches and implementations, as well as influencing the general atmosphere in organizations, is influenced by the organizational climate, which is formed as a result of the interactions among the stakeholders of the organization and is one of the important determinants for the completion level of responsibilities expected from personnel (Noordin, Omar, Sehan & Idrus, 2010). Academics' perception of the organizational climate affects their commitment, job satisfaction, and devotion to fulfilling their duties (Özdede, 2010). In this sense, a positive organizational climate in universities can be seen as an important factor for providing the environment to display intellectual leadership behaviors by academics.

Moreover, the quality of organizational communication is a key ingredient in providing flexibility and the appropriate climate in organizations (Martin & Uddin, 2006; Skorstad & Ramsdal, 2009). Like all organizations, the usage of formal and informal communication channels in universities effectively contributes to forming the flexible structure for conveying academics' expectations and demands to relevant units in a convenient way during the process of performing their duties (Drew, 2009). Besides, the efficient use of organizational communication channels helps to actualize positive interactions

among academics and administrators, so it expedites the creation of a more positive atmosphere for employees in the organization (Cojocaru & Stoican, 2010).

Given the above, the investigation of the academics' intellectual leadership behaviors based on academics' own perceptions can be a suitable way to respond to the negative assessments about academics in different parts of the community. Moreover, specifying the relationship between the factors affecting the academics' accomplishment level of their duties and responsibilities, such as managerial practice flexibility, climate and communication in universities, and faculty's academic leadership may identify many important practices to assist academics' rising productivity. Accordingly, the research subject is the examination of direct and indirect relations among organizational communication, organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities, and faculty's academic intellectual leadership.

Problem sentence. Is there any significant relationship between faculty's perceptions about organizational communication, organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities, and their intellectual leadership?

Research questions. During the research, besides aiming to investigate of faculty's perceptions about communication, climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities and their academic intellectual leadership, the examination of the intermediary relations among these variables within the theoretical model is envisaged (see Figure 1). To form this theoretical model, the mutual relations among research variables mentioned in previous sections were used as basis, and these relations enunciate that functional communication systems have powerful influence on faculty's academic leadership owing to its contribution in the positiveness of climate and the effectiveness of academic

support practices in universities. Accordingly, the theoretical model of the research proposes that there is no directly strong relation between the quality of organizational communication in universities and the display level of faculty's academic intellectual leadership behaviors, but there is indirectly strong relation between organizational communication in universities and faculty's academic intellectual leadership forming by the agency of organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities.

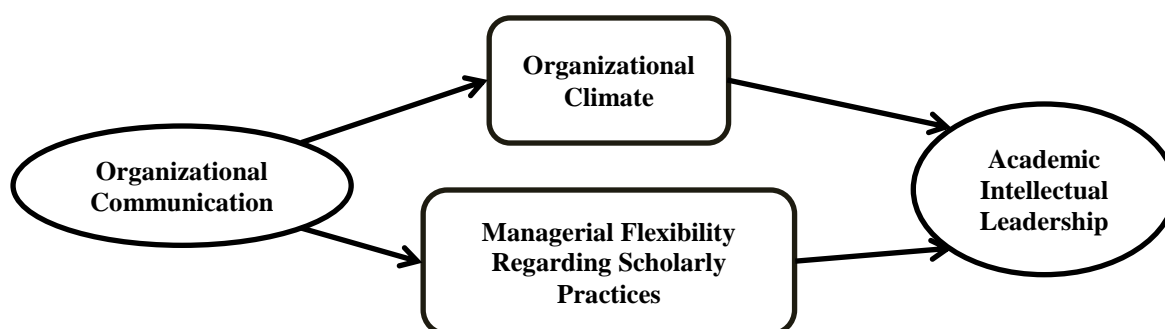


Figure 1. The theoretical model of the research

In accordance with the model, research questions are...

1. What are the levels of faculty's perceptions about organizational communication, organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities, and their academic intellectual leadership?
2. Are there any significant differences in faculty's perceptions about organizational communication, organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities, and their academic intellectual leadership according to gender, seniority, academic titles, disciplines, administrative duties, and establishment dates and geographical regions of their universities?
3. Are there any significant relations among faculty's perceptions about organizational communication, organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities, and their academic intellectual leadership?

4. Do faculty's perceptions support the structure in the model which proposes an indirect relationship between organizational communication and academic intellectual leadership by the mediation of organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices?

Purpose of the Research

The purpose of the research is to explore the intermediary relations between Organizational Communication, Organizational Climate and Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices in universities, and faculty's Academic Intellectual Leadership. For this purpose, the first aim is to assess the faculty's behaviors within intellectual leadership, and the situations of support practices for scholarly activities, climate and communication in universities. The second aim is to identify faculty's personal and institutional variables which cause significant differences on their perceptions about communication, climate and managerial practices flexibility, and their intellectual leadership. Another aim of the research is to query the relation between organizational communication and academic intellectual leadership by the agency of organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices, besides examining the relations among communication, climate, managerial practice flexibility and intellectual leadership.

Significance of the Research

Initially, the research provides rich evidence to understand the meaning of academic intellectual leadership and to interpret Macfarlane's (2011) theoretical model's competency about covering the most of faculty's intellectual leadership behaviors and activities. Moreover, the research is important in terms of providing opportunity for the self-evaluation of faculty about their teaching, research and service activities as a reply to unfavorable

judgments against academics in different segments of society. Thus, a data collection tool to evaluate faculty's academic intellectual leadership was developed based on literature related to academic, professorial and intellectual leadership (Bolden et al., 2012; Conroy, 200; Evans, Homer & Rayner, 2013; Macfarlane, 2011; 2012; Macfarlane & Chan, 2014). Then, another important issue is to detect differences in faculty's academic intellectual leadership, perceptions about managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices, climate and communication in universities according to their personal variables such as gender, seniority, academic title, etc. in order to specify 'what kinds of managerial supports for academics with different personal specifications need to accomplish their responsibilities'.

Additionally, reciprocal relations between organizational communication, organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities, and faculty's academic intellectual leadership behaviors were explored. Herewith, the scale for assessing managerial practice flexibility was formed by using the results of interviews with senior academics about scholarly support mechanisms in universities. Further, the connection between communication and academic intellectual leadership forming directly or mediating indirectly through climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices was examined. Therefore, as another important aspect of the research, knowledge emerging from these relations provides a theoretical framework about the organizational characteristics of universities affecting faculty's academic intellectual leadership.

Furthermore, varied specifications of universities with different establishment dates and geographical locations, which affect academics' intellectual leadership behaviors, such as procedures, technics, processes, assistances, contributions, etc. were detected by means of observations and investigations in Turkey. Similar investigations and observations were made to understand the work environment conditions created by several universities from Australia which are in the World Top 50s for different scientific disciplines. This opportunity for

comparison contributes to ascertaining the actions expected from academics and assures practical recommendations, including the examples of mechanisms for facilitating the duties and responsibilities of academics, to be presented to university administrators and higher education policy makers.

Assumptions of the Research

- It is accepted that the perceptions of faculty who are registered in ARBİS (*Araştırmacı Bilgi Sistemi [Researcher Information System]*) of TÜBİTAK (*Türkiye Bilimsel ve Teknolojik Araştırma Kurumu [The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey]*) reflect the perceptions of faculty who are not registered in ARBİS.
- It is assumed that the data eliminated during data purification process in the research do not cause to distort the general results related to the perceptions of faculty who participated in data collection phases.
- It is presumed that faculty in the sample of the research worked at their universities for long enough to be informed about support mechanisms executed by management for their scholarly activities.

Limitations of the Research

- In the research, managerial practice flexibility is hedged around the support practices in universities towards teaching and learning, research and development, scholarly publication and participation in community service and social life, based on managerial flexibility as a dimension of organizational flexibility and flexible organizational structure.

- The population and the sample of the research are limited to faculty, because research assistants do not have teaching responsibility, and lecturers and instructors do not have research duties.
- Faculty who work in foundation universities are not included in the research because of the managerial, operational and financial differences between public and foundation universities.
- Faculty who were accessed by e-mail in data collection phases of the research are limited with faculty who are registered in ARBİS.
- The data of the research was gathered, limited by the interview form for managerial practice flexibility, besides *Personal-Institutional Information* form and *Academic Intellectual Leadership, Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices, Organizational Climate* and *Organizational Communication* scales in the questionnaire.
- The content of the *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices Scale* is constrained according to the examples within the results of interviews with Australian and Turkish faculty who have different academic titles from various disciplines and universities.
- In the research, faculty's academic intellectual leadership behaviors are dealt with in five dimensions as *Acquistor, Advocate, Ambassador, Guardian* and *Mentor*.

Operational Definitions

Organizational communication. Organizational Communication emphasizes the transmission of news, information and demands, which include individuals' knowledge, skills, attitudes and emotions, reciprocally among structures comprising the organization by

using different channels, to ensure the continuity of organizational functions and operations (Eroğlu, 2013; Harris & Nelson, 2008; Robertson, 2005).

Organizational climate. Organizational Climate is the general perception atmosphere surrounding the organization which affects individuals' behaviors and is affected by these behaviors, and is given form by organizational structures, operational activities and features of mutual relations (Karadağ, Baloğlu, Korkmaz, & Çalışkan, 2008; Mullins, 2007; Schulz, 2013).

Managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices. Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices is the variety of managerial practices within the scope of teaching, research and service activities to ease the duties and responsibilities expected to be fulfilled by academics, and to provide competitive advantages for higher education institutions (Campbell, & O'Meara, 2014; Ceylan, 2001; Mintzberg, 2014).

Academic intellectual leadership. Academic Intellectual Leadership indicates academics' behaviors of 'being role model and mentor for less experienced colleagues', 'protecting standards of their scientific fields' and 'representing their institutions', and activities within 'producing knowledge', 'expanding their disciplines', 'transferring their expertise to the public' and 'influencing social debates' (Akdemir, n.d.; Davis, 2001; Macfarlane, 2012).

Chapter II

This chapter explains comprehensively the theoretical background of organizational communication, organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices and academic intellectual leadership, as variables in the research, in the light of the literature related to organizational behaviors, management and leadership, especially in educational perspectives.

Theoretical Background

Organizational Communication

Human beings as a part of community have a special skill to create a better personal understanding of themselves and their environment, to establish harmonious relations with others and to benefit from the knowledge which is mankind's heritage. This skill is called '*Human's Communication Power*' and communication is described as sharing emotions, ideas and information between at least two people using different tools and methods (Keskin-Vural, 2012; Yüksel, 2013). According to this definition, communication has some core elements, and these are *Sender*, *Message*, *Coding*, *Channel*, *Receiver* and *Feedback* (Harris & Nelson, 2008).

In the communication process, *Sender* starts the communication with conveying a message, and his/her communication skills, attitudes, experiences and knowledge as well as environmental, social and cultural specifications are important all along the way. *Message* is a notice, idea, emotion, belief or information, which is coded with language, music, art or motions by the sender, conveyed to the receiver. *Coding* is a combination of transference of the information, idea, emotion, or belief in message by sender and interpreting the meaning of the message by the receiver. *Channel* is one of the communication tools carrying messages from the sender to the receiver such as talking, writing, picture, photograph, motion,

television, radio, movie, newspaper, etc. *Receiver* is a person (or a group of people) who is the target of the sender's message, and he/she (or they) usually gives response to the message. *Feedback* is the receiver's responses or answers to the message of the sender, and the receiver become a sender when the receiver starts responding to the message (Günbayı, 2007; Harris & Nelson, 2008; Yüksel, 2013).

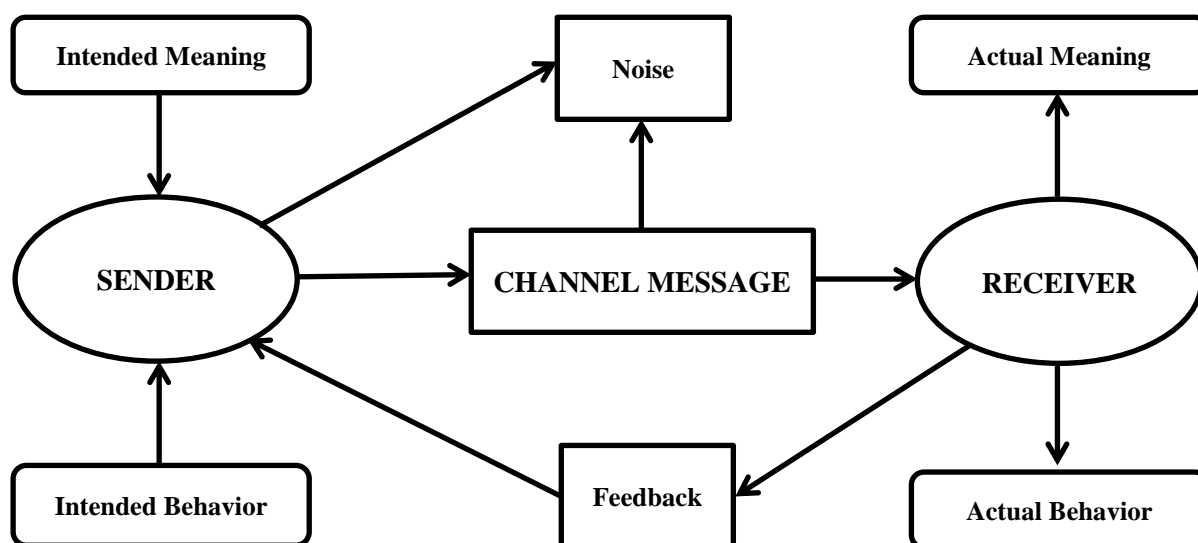


Figure 2. Interaction between sender and receiver in communication (Yüksel, 2013, p. 33).

On the other hand, organizations such as institutions, companies, foundations, clubs, parties, hospitals and schools are established by people to reach their common goals, so they have to communicate with others in organizations, sometimes as a sender or a receiver. This mutual interplay is called '*Organizational Communication*' and defined as 'sharing information, emotions, savvines and approaches within messages among units and employees in organizations by using all kind of tools and equipment as channels' (Aydın, 2005). Some organizations, especially universities as the largest educational institutions, cover so many interactions between people that they must have powerful communication structures to continue to accomplish their missions effectively (Beytekin & Arslan, 2013; Nordin, 2013).

Organizations can survive much longer if their structures support three ways of communications which are top-down, bottom-up and horizontal communications. Besides, communication channels have to cover both formal and informal communication opportunities to access all types of information from inside and outside of the organizations (Baron, 2006; Çetinkanat & Sağnak, 2010). All of these ways and channels are used to achieve the main purpose of organizational communications, that is to contribute to the coordination of works, problem solving, information sharing and conflict management (Polat & Arslan, 2004). For this purpose, organizational communication comprises functions like generating goals and standards, transferring facts and information, making decisions, influencing and leading others, and evaluating the results (Hoy & Miskel, 2010).

Functions of organizational communication. In organizations, communication is necessary for providing information, setting regulations, integrating units, managing resources, convincing and socializing of people (Gülner, 2007). Besides, institutional identities are conveyed, organizational crises are managed and interactions with both internal and external stakeholders are pursued by means of organizational communication (Tourish & Hargie, 2004). Healthy communication in organizations, especially in human resource-based organizations like higher education institutions, also provides benefits such as ‘opportunities for management to access information needed in decision-making’, ‘perceiving the managerial decisions by employees’, ‘improving people’s sense of sharing’, ‘decreasing the conflicts and pressures in workplace’, ‘contributing the actualizing of organizational activities steadily and cooperatively’ and ‘expediting the change processes by creating trust towards organizational change’ (Bakan & Büyükmeşe, 2004; Shockley-Zalabak & Ellis, 2000).

These benefits of effective communications in organizations are named ‘*Functions of Organizational Communication*’. They are indicated by *Scott and Mitchel* as ‘control’,

‘motivation’, ‘expressing emotions’ and ‘delivering information’, and by *Thayer* as ‘gathering or giving information’, ‘sending or assessing hints’, ‘affecting others or influenced by others’ and ‘coincidental interactions’ (as cited in Tutar & Yılmaz, 2003). Likewise, Gürgen (1997) gathered functions of organizational communication into four main groups; 1. *Providing information*: For performing activities to reach the aims of organizations, employees need to know ‘What, How and Why they do?’, so information must be provided for them. 2. *Convincing and Impressing*: Employees should believe that they gain many benefits for their effort, so they must be influenced by leaders using with different communication channels in organizations. 3. *Commanding and Instructive Communicating*: Employees mostly get directions from their superiors as a description for ‘how they should their work more effective’ and need sometimes to learn recent updates in their job from their directors, so administrators must use communication systems in organization for giving directions or educations to their employees. 4. *Combination and Coordination*: For achieving organizational goals, employees should be assembled around these common goals and their individual performances should complete others, so communication opportunities must be used to continue mutual interactions between employees for keeping the integrity of their efforts. In that case, organizational communication should be based on theoretical frames to fulfil all of these functions effectively.

Theories of organizational communications. Organizational communication covers many structural elements like communication channels and directions, size and complexity of organizations and people who are the stakeholders of organizations, so it has been theoretically influenced by sociology, psychology, industrial psychology and organizational behaviors (Hecht, 1978, as cited in Şimşek, 2011). Also, management sciences have many theoretical frames derived from these disciplines within communication perspectives. Hence,

communication in organizations mostly has been accepted as a part of management and appraised by using management theories historically (Miller, 2012).

Between 1900 and 1930, the Classic Management Approach borrowed from mechanical mentality for communication and recognized it as a management tool which can be used to control employees. In this sense, vertical communication gained importance in organizations during Classic Management Approach. Then, the significances of human relations and other socio-psychological factors were realized in the Neo-Classic Approach (1930-1965), in which people's desires to take on responsibilities, work and achieve are natural. The importance of communication in organizations, however, was arisen from the idea of 'happy employees are more productive and they can increase their contributions for the behalf of organizations'. The next approach, Modern Management (1960-1980) was based on the System Approach in which interactions among people, structure and environment are a whole and the whole is more than the total of the parts. Likewise, the Cybernetic Approach, dealing with the machines-people transmissions, indicates that the communication in open systems is ensured and controlled by itself, so not only vertical but also other types of communications are important for the well-being of organizations. Moreover, with the great success of Japanese firms at the beginning of 1980s, Cultural Theories brought a new dimension into organizational communication, and the idea of becoming a family in organization gained importance. Therefore, organizations started to deal with employees' whole life along with Z theory (combination of American and Japan management mentalities); this has created more participatory and democratic understanding in organizational communication besides more collaborative and equitable communication structures.

On the other hand, *Herbert Simon* mentioned organizational communication systems and their necessities at a first time in 1947, and organizational communication started to be

studied at speech departments in American Universities since 1950s. Organizational communication, afterwards, was accepted as an academic discipline after an organizational communication department was established by the International Communication Association, and organizational communication symposiums which were sponsored by NASA in 1967 and 1968 (Kreps, 1986, as cited in Şimşek, 2011). With the acceptance of organizational communication as a scientific discipline separately, two main approaches have been developed, '*Information Flow/Process Approach*' and '*Perceptual/Attitudinal Approach*' (Goldhaber, Dennis, Richetto & Wiio, 1984).

In the Information Flow/Process aspect, organization is defined as 'a communication system which processes information related to environmental factors in subsystems and gives this information to larger systems'. There are three main elements; Structural Factors, Communication Roles and Channel-Message Factors, to influence this information flow system in organizations. In other words, the structure of the information system, people's communication roles in a system and, channels and message used by these people are seen as important variables for processing information in an organization. In addition, the key belief in Perceptual/Attitudinal Approach is that person's mental and emotional perceptions about institution affect his/her behaviors in an institution. These perceptions are divided in three categories '*Relations: Climate Perception*; general assessment of communication climate', '*Information: Information Sufficiency Perception*; having adequate information and accessing necessary information by employees' and '*Institution: Satisfaction Perception*; employees' emotions of membership, institutional identity, satisfaction and commitment'. In short, this aspect covers employees' answers to questions like 'Are they satisfied with information sharing in an organization?', 'Can they get enough feedback for sent information by them?', 'Can they join into decision-making?', 'Are they supported or rewarded for their effort?', etc.

At this point, all these theoretical frames become essential to perform the operation of organizational communication smoothly.

Operation of organizational communication. The communication process is actualized with the sequence of the sender's coding a message, sending the message via the proper channel, the receiver's getting the message and the receiver's giving a response. Organizational communication, however, covers this whole process for different directions, such as vertical, horizontal and transversal communications among people. Besides, organizational communication operates formally and informally by verbal, non-verbal and written communications by using one- or bi-directional communication tools and methods (Dubrin, 1997; Solmaz, 2013; E. Yılmaz, 2007; Zorn & Taylor, 2004).

Formal communication is the information flow internally or externally within the frame of rules which are adjusted by authorized people. This type of organizational communication is mainly composed of the messages, in top-down direction, going from seniors to juniors about what juniors should make and their feedback related to juniors' performance, in below-up direction, going from juniors to seniors about juniors' reports, besides other messages and reports among seniors and juniors in horizontal or transversal directions. Moreover, formal communication is operated by using diverse communication methods such as face-to-face conversations, meetings, phone calls, seminars, in-service training, focus group discussion, etc. On the other hand, informal communication is the type of communication not organized by authorized people, and emerged thanks to the interactions of unofficial groups for raising the speed and efficiency of affairs in institutions. Information which is not verified by the real sources spreads quickly via informal communication among employees, and this information becomes old news before it is verified by formal channels. Within informal communication, news mostly is transferred among employees or unofficial

groups as rumor or gossip. There are, however, some barriers which disrupt the formal or informal organizational communication, and they should be minimized for avoiding the negative effects of gossip and rumors in organizations.

Barriers of organizational communication. Both sides of communication are people, and they interact socially in organizational life. In these social platforms of organizations, individuals can share their emotions, ideas, desires and expectations via organizational communication. That exchange of messages between employees sometimes is queered by different factors (Babarinsa, 2012; Keskin-Vural, 2012). They are named as ‘Communication Barriers’ and generally categorized below (Bakan & Büyükmeşe, 2004).

Cultural differences. People sharing similar cultural elements have many common points with others, so they can communicate much more easily and quickly.

Lack of feedback. Feedback is essential to understand the message is delivered in-time and decoded by the receiver correctly, or not.

Status distinctions. Authorization differences based on hierarchical structure in organizations can cause lack of contacts with some employees on different management levels.

Lack of receiver’s attention. The receiver does not have enough motivation to decode the message correctly because of messages coming often along the improper channels or in the wrong times.

Information over loading. Employees, especially managers, are exposed too much information related to their jobs and cannot easily decide the useful ones.

Problems based on e-communication. In the information age, nearly all organizations use electronic communication systems, and this situation may cause some technical problems.

Physical conditions. Complexity of organizations, distance between units, diversity of communicational channels, etc. can inhibit (or facilitate) communication in organizations.

Distrust. The receiver sometimes suspects messages, senders or communication channels, so he/she does not trust the information in these messages.

Organizational mistakes. Lack of definitions of responsibilities, authorization insufficiency, unclear aims, etc. may become obstacles to organizational communication.

Personal differences. The sender's or the receiver's personal goals, senses, emotions and habits affect their attitudes towards coding or decoding messages.

As a result, communication barriers, which are mostly based on organizational structures, personal differences, hierarchical status, cultural factors or language variety, should be removed, in order to set up operative and effective communication systems in organizations. To create healthy organizational communication, managers and also employees must activate communication by means of some techniques like explaining themselves influentially, listening effectively, responding properly, using non-verbal communication frequently, etc. (Alipour, 2011; Yavuz, 2010a). Further, if people interact with each other by using much more effectual and understandable ways, their perceptions towards the general atmosphere surrounding the organization, that is called '*Organizational Climate*', are affected positively.

Organizational Climate

Although there are many different definitions for organization in the literature which are based on several aspects like common interests, distribution of power, coordination of people's efforts or sharing information among people, the generally accepted definition is a hierarchical structure in which people interact with each other around common purposes and resources, and authorization and communication occur between people depending on their

official positions within the organization's unique culture and climate (Barnard, 1994; Etzioni, 1964; Schein, 1970, as cited in Karadağ et al., 2008). According to this definition, one of the primary characteristics giving dissimilar identities to organizations is the general atmosphere in the organization, termed *Organizational Climate*. Litwin and Stringer (1968, as cited in Aydın, 2005) described the organizational climate as the subjective effects of the formal structure of an organization, which is a social system composed of people, managers' official or unofficial behavior styles and environmental factors, on associates' attitudes, beliefs, values and motives. In another recent definition, "Organizational climate is the meanings and evaluations that individuals give to the various processes and structures in their work environment, such as the meanings attached to jobs, co-workers, leaders, pay, performance expectations, promotion opportunities and equity of treatment" (Schulz, 2013, p. 466).

According to Mullins (2007), organizational climate as the general atmosphere surrounding an organization consists of the power of employees' belonging, interest, feelings of goodwill and morale level. Such perceptions of employees are influenced by factors like organizational structure, management support, rewards, taking risks, participation in decision-making, communications, conflicts, a sense of belonging, acceptance team work and organizational image (Arabacı, 2010). All these organizational or personal factors behind the climate affect organizational performance besides employees' individual efforts. In higher education institutions, for instance, "organisational climate may either facilitate staff participation and effectiveness in teaching, research and scholarly activities or create barriers to this participation" (McMurray & Scott, 2013, p. 962). Similarly, in all organizations, climate can be supportive or prohibitive, open or closed, healthy or unhealthy, positive or negative. Thus, the types of the climate in organizations should be known, in order to increase the contributions of organizational conditions in employees' perceptions related to their satisfaction with organizational performance as well as their individual performance.

Types of organizational climate. Organizational climate has usually been regarded as a straight line with two different ends, which indicate negative and positive climate perceptions. These negative and positive directional end points are clarified with diverse names like ‘bureaucratic and democratic’, ‘prohibitive and supportive’, ‘unhealthy and healthy’ or mostly ‘open and closed’ (Balcı-Bucak, 2002; Cemaloğlu, 2006; McMurray & Scott, 2013). In an open climate, managers’ and employees’ behaviors towards each other are sincere, supportive and flexible. On the contrary, in a closed climate managers focus on details which causes a bureaucratic setting as a limitation in manager-employee interactions, so that employees are not perceived to be free (Aypay, Taş & Boyacı, 2012; Campbell & O’Meara, 2014; Memduhoğlu & Şeker, 2010).

According to Halpin (1966, as cited in Hocaniyazov, 2008), besides open and closed climate, there are more types of organizational climate such as independent, controlled, sincere, paternalistic, bureaucratic, supportive and innovative climates. In *Independent Climate*, managers and employees focus on keeping their relations at a certain distance for their job independence. Completing duties is essential for *Controlled Climate* and employees generally do not break the rules formed by the highest management level. *Sincere Climate* gives priority to satisfying social needs in organization, and managers try to keep relations in a family mood. In *Paternalistic Climate*, managers usually do not like to spend time with employees and control their performance, so that morale, sincerity and work-orientation are generally low in the organization. Organizations with *Bureaucratic Climate* have certain lines of authority and responsibility, and they are depend on the powerful and effective performance control. For *Supportive Climate*, strengthening employees’ well-being by management is in the centre of organizational efforts, and its specifications are open relations, friendship, collaboration, encouragement, socialization, individualistic freedom and trust. After raising competition in the market, many organizations became much more reformist

with their *Innovative Climate* which is risk-taking, result-oriented, forceful, diligent, defiant, enterprising and operative.

As another perspective, Litwin and Stringer (1968, as cited in Özdede, 2010) defined three different types of organizational climate; these are authoritarian, democratic and success-oriented climates. *Authoritarian Climate* emphasizes the exact descriptions of duties and usage of formal power. Thus, in this climate type, there is a high external political pressure, an over-dependence of employees to their managers, a low motivation and intensive conflicts in organizations. On the contrary, *Democratic Climate* is composed of collaborative work, loyalty to groups, avoiding punishment and mutual cooperation. Also, participating into decision-making, sharing ideas freely, being a team-member and helping others are encouraged in this type of organizational climate. In *Success-Oriented Climate*, for continuity of achievement, innovation and internal competition are supported. This climate type, which includes high trust, unity and commitment emotions, satisfies the employees' requirements and encourages people to use their creativity.

In addition, organizational climate sometimes has been mentioned with organizational culture. Organizational climate usually indicates the internal employee impressions about organization while culture relates to the external global perspective of the organization (Bess & Dee, 2008; Buluç, 2013). In this sense, one of the frameworks used extensively in organizational culture and climate studies in higher education research is Quinn and Rohrbaugh's Competing Values Framework (Schulz, 2013). This competing values framework consists of four climate types (but mostly accepted as organizational culture types); *Clan*, *Hierarchy*, *Adhocracy* and *Market* climates as shown in Figure 3.

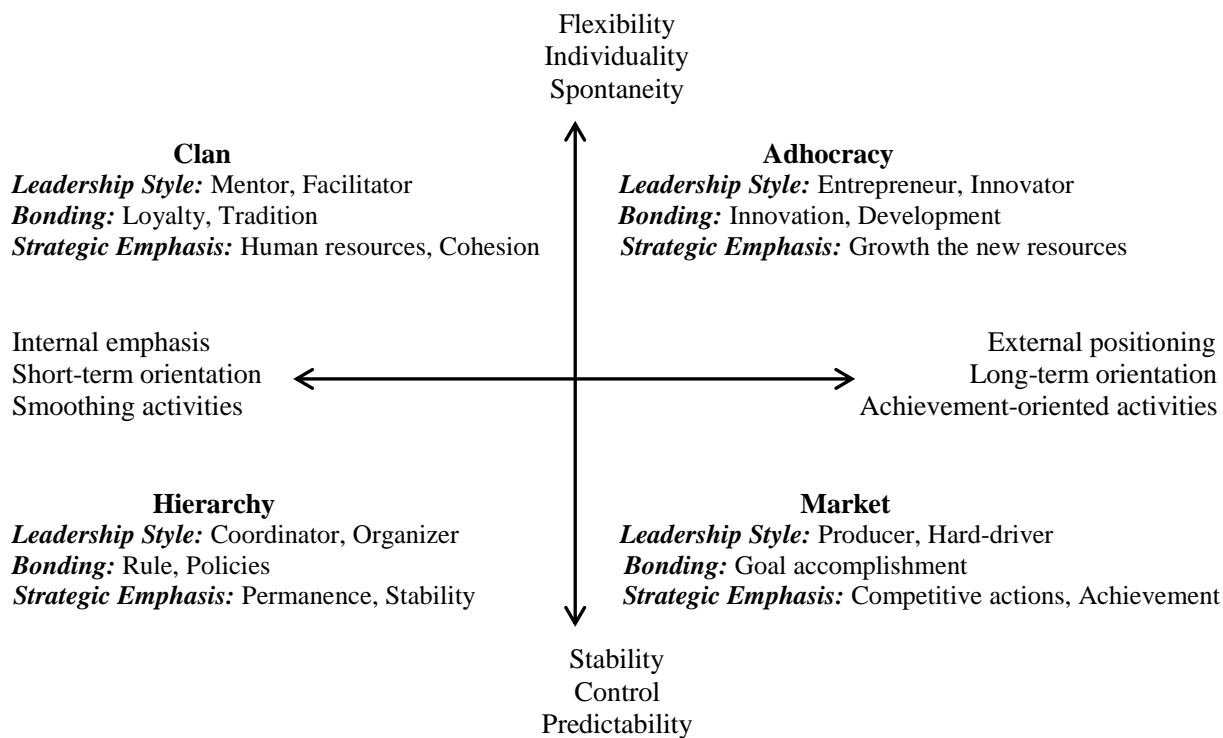


Figure 3. Quinn and Rohrbaugh's competing values framework (Schulz, 2013, p. 467)

As a result, the types of organizational climate are usually evaluated with two ends of the line, and they show different climate perceptions like 'closed or open', 'unhealthy or healthy', 'bureaucratic or democratic', 'prohibitive or supportive', etc. Thus, in the research, organizational climate perceptions of faculty have been assessed as low and high, indicating negative and positive ends. In addition, organizational climate types comprise some important aspects like organizational structure, individuals or environmental conditions; these are known as '*Organizational Climate Dimensions*'.

Dimensions of organizational climate. Researchers have studied organizational climate from different aspects. They sometimes focused on organizational structure, organizational process or people's features. *Robert A. Stringer*, who has many studies on organizational climate, combined these aspects and formed six different dimensions for

organizational climate as *Structure, Standards, Responsibility, Recognition, Support and Commitment* (Giles, 2010).

Structure reflects employees' sense of being well-organized and having a clear definition for their roles and responsibilities. *Standards* measure the feeling of pressure to improve performance and the degree of pride employees have in 'doing a good job'. *Responsibility* reflects employees' feelings of 'being their own boss' and not having to double-check decisions with others. *Recognition* indicates employees' feelings of being rewarded for a job well-done by an appropriate balance of reward and criticism. *Support* reflects the feeling of trust and mutual support that prevails within a work group and employees can get help if they need it. *Commitment* reflects employees' sense of pride in belonging to the organization and their degree of commitment to the organization's goals and their high levels of personal loyalty. (Stringer, 2002, pp. 10-11)

In another approach, *Yücel Ertekin* evaluated organizational climate within three dimensions: *Individual, Organizational* and *Environmental* specifications (as cited in Özdede, 2010, p. 50). *Individual Specifications* comprise employees' trust, sensitivity, friendship respectability and satisfaction perceptions, and promotion-progression opportunities, obstructiveness and risk-taking in organizations. On the other side, organizations' size, structure, purposes, politics and reward-salary systems, communication channels, monitoring-control mechanisms and advancement opportunities, organizational responsibilities, clarity, conflicts and incoherency, and decision-making and leadership are *Organizational Specifications*. As another dimension, *Environmental Specifications* are mostly related to organizations' physical peripheries and employees' individual surroundings such as restrictive or motivational environments, work conditions (tedious, pleasant, etc.), harmony, administrative support or pressure and criticizing management.

On the other hand, *Udai Pareek*, having an experience over three decades of organizational climate, supposes that organizational climate should only be discussed in terms of the various ‘organizational processes’. These organizational processes carry over within a firm and the ‘motives’, positive or negative, are created among employees as a result of the perception of these processes (Kunnanatt, 2007). According to *Udai Pareek’s* claim, organizational climate is composed of twelve organizational processes and six motives as shown in Figure 4. Furthermore, as dimensions of organizational climate, organizational processes and climate motives are influenced by many factors negatively or positively.

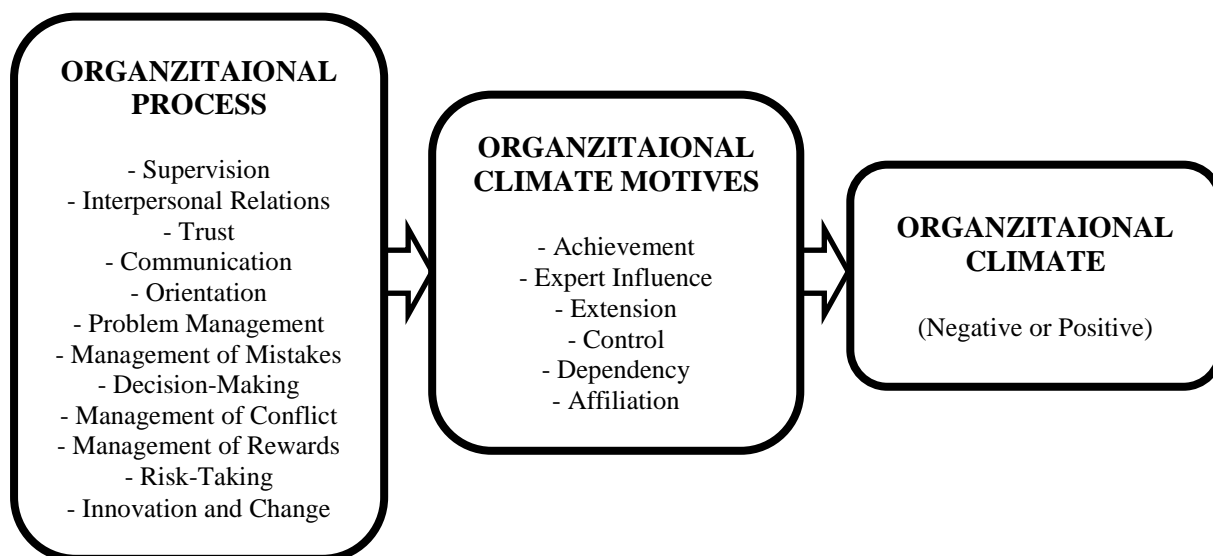


Figure 4. Pareek’s the organizational climate process (Kunnanatt, 2007, p. 179)

Affecting factors of organizational climate. Organizational climate is formed by many components based on organizational, environmental and employees’ personality specifications. There are several determinants internally and externally affecting these specifications as well as organizational climate. Researchers, according to the related literature, named them as ‘Organizational Climate Factors’, which are leadership, values, the

nature of the works, development and advancement opportunities, responsibilities, history of organizations, strategies, political structures, etc. (Kılınç-Ergülen, 2011; Reynold, 2006).

Nature of the job. The climate is affected by the nature of jobs or work emphases in the organizations, and they mostly indicate the priorities of organizations. For example, industrial or commercial companies are more product-oriented organizations while medical or educational institutions like universities are more human-oriented work places.

Organizational structure. Organizational structure indicates ‘managerial operations’, ‘hierarchy of authority’ and ‘requirements for operations within this hierarchy’. According to this definition, departments or units in the physical layout, administrative and control mechanisms, transferring of authority, job descriptions and employees’ duties are essential elements for organizations.

Leadership style. Organizations have some managerial values influencing the relations and satisfactions of employees such as ‘participation in decision-making’, ‘communicating effectively with others’ and ‘indicating their ideas freely’. Leaders should be a model or representative of these values by their behaviors and management styles in organizations.

Political frame. Political frame is defined as ‘the nature of the organization’s internal politics and the degree of agreement of employees to perform their works successfully within this political structure’. Political frames in organizations sometimes create conflicts in employees’ goals and self-interests, and they cause job dissatisfaction among employees.

Evaluation. Evaluation is organizations’ procedures to assess employees based on data, gathering regularly and systematically to provide feedback which is intended to create professional growth for them. If these feedback are reflected in employees’ incomes, they may cause either positive or negative effects on employees’ performance according to their experiences related to the evaluation.

Promotion. Promotion is defined as ‘internal advancement opportunities for employees in organizations’. Promotion is a motivator which has a positive effect on organizational climate by means of the contribution to job satisfaction, and is regarded as the result of the hard work and dedication of employees.

Professional development opportunities. To improve their product quality, organizations create many chances for their employees to gain new skills and to provide current knowledge related to their jobs. Such organizations which recognize the importance of providing opportunities for professional development of employees raise the level of productivity, morale and employees’ individual satisfaction.

Responsibility. Employees mostly have the desire to experience the emotions that come from a high degree of success besides its moral and economic benefits, so that they need jobs which allow them take more responsibilities. Hence, they can reach higher standards in their jobs and feel greater individual satisfaction if they have responsibilities for their own decisions and actions.

Regard for personal concerns. The regard for personal concerns refers to the official responses of institutions to individual issues among employees that have a chance to affect employees’ well-being and performance positively. If they perceive that their organization takes their personal concerns or needs into consideration, the outcome is usually an enhancement of their dedication and commitment.

Personality of members. Some employees might be more ambitious than others, some might be more sensitive or others might be more skeptical, more dedicated, excited, friendly, educated, etc. These personal traits of employees give shape to their individual goals, interests, needs and expectations within organizations, so employees’ personalities identify their perceptions related to their organization and their unique positions.

Moreover, Stringer (2002), in his study of organizational climate, defined five determinants: *Leadership Practices*, *Organizational Arrangements*, *Strategy*, *External Environments* and *Historical Forces* (see Figure 5). They are divided into two categories, controllable and uncontrollable determinants of climate in organizations. Leaders should be aware of all these determinants and direct their efforts to use them for creating better atmosphere in organizations although some of them are not controllable.

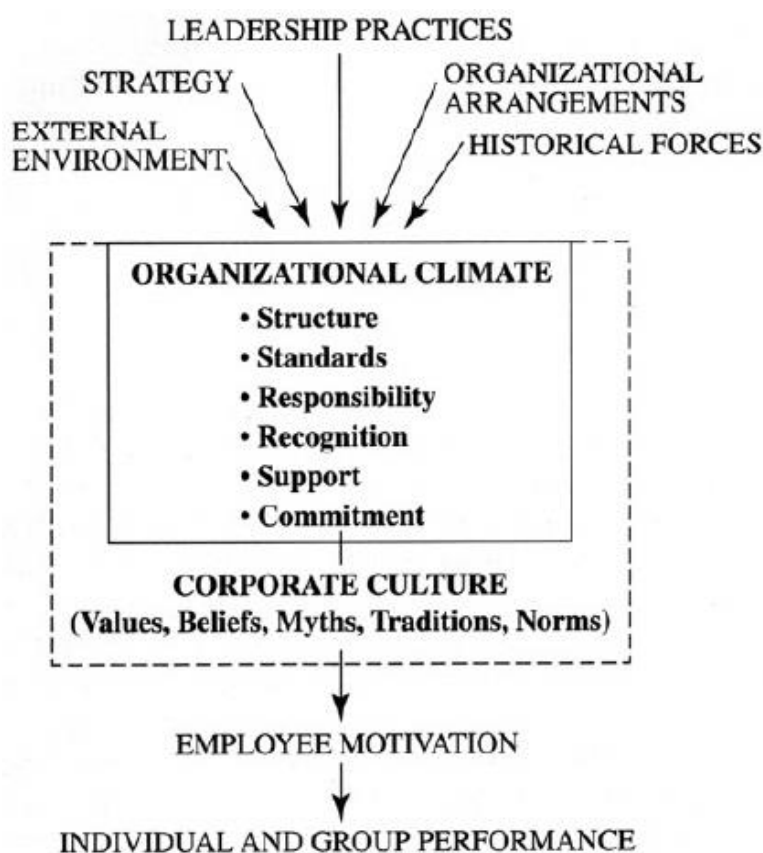


Figure 5. An organizational performance model (Stringer, 2002, p.18)

Leadership Practices, *Organizational Arrangements* and *Strategy* can and should be controlled by leaders. *External Environment* and *Historical Forces*, while not controllable, must also be considered, as they have significant impact on organizational climate. The behavior of the leader (*Leadership Practices*) is the single most important

factor in determining organizational climate. Since *Organizational Arrangements* and *Strategy* have been identified as controllable, it makes sense that they too would have a significant impact on the tone and feelings within the organization. The *External Environment*, though determined to be out of the control of the leader, can create pressure for leaders and can also allow for positive opportunities for the entire organization to flourish. Likewise, the uncontrollable *Historical Forces* must be communicated, discussed, and understood to the best of the leader's ability. (Thomas, 2007, p. 26)

As a result, many organizational, environmental and human based factors affect the organizational climate. Most of them, such as leadership, politics, evaluations, personal development opportunities in organization, individual concerns and personality of employees, influence employees' motivations, commitments and satisfactions. Moreover, these broad range factors and their effects cause organizational climate to form with varied features.

Characteristics of organizational climate. Organizational climate and its characteristics have been studied by different researchers. Some of them accepted these characteristics as the reflection of climate in organizations. Others, however, focused on the outcomes of positive climate only as the characteristics of organizational climate.

Batlis (1980, as cited in Özdede, 2010, p. 43), for instance, indicated the climate characteristics as;

- Organizational climate generates the politics and behavior of organization members, especially top managers.
- Organizational climate is based on the members' perceptions about the work conditions in the organization.

- Organizational climate is an important foundation for interpreting the work environment in the organization.
- Organizational climate is a pressure source which steers the activities in the organization.

Mullins (1989, as cited in Hocaniyazov, 2008, p. 21), another well-known researcher, specified the features of positive organizational climate as;

- The integration of organizational and individual goals
- The organizational structure as suitable for the requirements of socio-technic systems
- Democratic functions of the organization created by all participation opportunities
- Fairness in politics, practices and staff's relations
- Reward, support and joint responsibilities between different layers of the organization
- Discussion of contradictions to remove polarization completely
- Managerial attitudes and leadership styles for variant work situations
- Psychological contracts between employees and the organization
- Determination of staff's individual features, differences, needs and expectations
- Attention to the quality of work life and job design
- Opportunities for personal development and career advancement

According to Al-Shammari (1992, as cited in Çetin-Gürkan, 2006, p. 65), organizational climate has four specifications. The first specification is that, all types of organizational climate are perceptual and include psychological aspects. Hence, organizational climate indicates the perceptions of the individuals in the organization as a social unit. As a second specification, all types of organizational climate are intangible, so individuals use others' experiences and behaviors to create their own climate perceptions. Another specification is that organizational climate embraces similar principles of perception

like other physiological concepts because of climate's perceptual and intangible aspects. Organizational climate, as a last specification, is definitional and not assessable. Thus, for the description of the climate in the organization, employees are mostly asked 'What they saw in their work environments, not what they saw bad or good'.

In their study related to the climates of higher education institutions, Seashore-Louis, Holdsworth, Anderson & Campbell (2007) indicated four different climate characteristics, *Collaboration*, *Competition*, *Openness* and *Individualism*. As a result of many scientific studies performed by larger teams nowadays, *Collaboration* has become an essential element for research in universities. The forces behind *Collaboration* are resource constraints, higher expenses of high-tech research facilities and the economic partnership of higher education institutions with business. However, many researchers are involved in *Competition* against the same teams' members. These competitive situations happen usually between younger researchers to get the attention of their senior researchers or to work together with them on a shared publication. Also, both senior and successful young researchers feel insecure about being 'scooped', so that they generally do not prefer *Openness* about their research. These concerns lead to a climate of secrecy in universities in which findings and results of research are kept confidential or not shared completely. Besides, academics mostly have been educated to study independently and their career advancements are based on *Individual* successes like personal authorship, research funding creation, etc., although cooperative studies are more productive. These approaches motivate faculty to become individualist producers. On the other hand, by dint of conjugate interactions between organizational climate and management, the characteristics of climate have many reflections on management process in organizations.

Management in Organizations

People come together and collaborate in achieving their goals which they cannot cope with individually. This association of people is conducive to establishing new structures, as known organizations, to satisfy their needs (Hoy & Miskel, 2010). *Chester I. Bernard* (as cited in Aydın, 2005) described an organization as a system of (at least two) people's activities which are consciously combined. According to *Edgar H. Schein* (as cited in Polat & Arslan, 2004), an organization is the coordination of a group of people's efforts to accomplish clear and common goals by arranging the division of labor (and functions) within the hierarchy of an authority and responsibility. This labor division for the coordination of people's efforts brings about different roles in organizations. These roles represent positions and statuses in organizations, and their values are based on other roles within the system. Accordingly, for the continuity of organizational processes, one of the most important roles is management which gains its worth from other roles in organizations (Aydın, 2005).

Management, in general, is all activities for providing collaboration and coordination among a group of people on behalf of the effective actualization of common goals. Likewise, management in organization refers to a set of actions such as orienting, assessing or controlling the human and material resources to achieve organizational goals (De Boer, Goedegebuure & Meek, 2010). According to this definition, management in an organization can be divided into six essential headings, as management is a) a process consisting activities like planning, coordination, decision-making and assessment, b) to combine resources, c) to use resources, d) to act towards goals, e) an action for delivering efforts to success, and f) to form an organizational unity (Black & Porter, 2000). On the other hand, Aydın (2005) indicates that management as a process is composed of seven steps as 'decision-making', 'planning', 'organizing', 'communication', 'coordination', 'orienting' and 'evaluation'. Moreover, different theories with varied perspectives regarding human and organizations have

been developed related to these management processes (Beycioğlu, 2007; Bursalıoğlu, 2012; Bush, 2003; Çelik, 2012; Freeman, 2010; Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Yalçın, 2009).

Initially, *Freidric W. Taylor* gave a start to the Classical Management Theory in 1895 by his article 'Piecework System' and he published his book 'The Principles of Scientific Management' in 1911. At the same time, *Henry Fayol* is one of the pioneers of classical management theory with his book 'General and Industrial Management'. Another person who contributed to this theory with his '**P**(lanning)-**O**(rganizing)-**S**(taffing)-**D**(irecting)-**C**o(ordinating)-**R**(aporting)-**B**(udgeting)' formula for management process is *Luter Gulick*. *Lyndall Urwick*, as another classical management theorist, indicated that there must be a clear authority line in organizations, so everyone can know their own duties and responsibilities. Moreover, *Max Weber* subscribed the theory with ideas about bureaucracy in his book *Protestant Morality and the Humour of Capitalism*. In this theory, people have been generally accepted as machines for production and their emotions, ideas, fears and excitements have been ignored. Besides, management mentality of the theory is based on efficiency, so management operates organizations according to 'recipe techniques' and do not pay attention to individual and social environment of organizations. These theorists mostly have dealt with the formal structure of organizations, and emphasized the commanding leadership, authoritative control and doctrinaire foundations.

On the other hand, by completing the gaps and deficiencies of classical theory, Neo-Classical Management Theory arose with *Elton Mayo's* Hawthorne Studies (1927-1932). Neo-classic theory's primary fulcrum, and also a missing part of classical theory, is that people usually act in accordance with their emotions and ideas. According to the theory, an organization will benefit from effort on the part of employees if management shows more sensibility towards them. Also, the theory indicates that there are some informal leaders and groups; the relationship between employees, their informal leaders and group members is a

very important determinant for group members' performance in organizations. Therefore, appreciating, rewarding and motivating employees, their willingness to work together and the level of collaboration, and the ambiances of respect, affection and trust in organizations are decisive ingredients for human behaviors, so that management should use these ingredients to provide efficiency and quality in organizations.

As another management theory, *Douglas McGregor* developed 'X and Y Theories' for indicating authority-based and human-based management perspectives. Theory X asserts that employees do not like to work and escape from working as much as possible, so they should be compelled to work and controlled with punishment usage by authoritative figures. However, Theory Y states that employees' individual goals are combined with organizational goals to obtain higher efficiency from employees' performances, so employees should be emboldened to use human relations and rewards, and personal development opportunities should be provided for them by management. Later, *William Ouchi* enunciated Theory Z as the combination of X and Y Management Theories. He compared American (mostly based on Theory X) and Japanese (mostly based on Theory Y) Management Cultures and synthesized these theories to create Theory Z as another management perspective. This theory advocates that managers and employees can become a family and share responsibilities by participating together in all types of decision-making processes.

Classical theory stands on some principles of organizational structures while neo-classical theory highlights the importance of human relations in organizations. On the other hand, System Approach (e.g. Social System, General System and Open System) as a modern management theory emphasizes both institutional and human dimensions of organizations. *Chester Barnard*, one of the prior researchers studying on System Approach, contributed to the approach with the definition of organization as 'a dynamic social system, aiming to satisfy employees' individual needs besides its own aims, based on cooperative interactions among

employees' in his book titled 'Functions of Manager', in which there are some different definitions about the system by different researchers. One of these definitions, the Social System, developed by *Talcot Parsons*, is based on roles, rules and values, and is composed of events and relations among people. *Ludwig Bertalanffy*, in another system definition, indicates that the General System is combination of complex and interactive parts. *Daniel Katz and Robert L. Kahn* described the Open System as 'a system takes some energy from its environment and processes this energy to produce outputs' (see Figure 6).

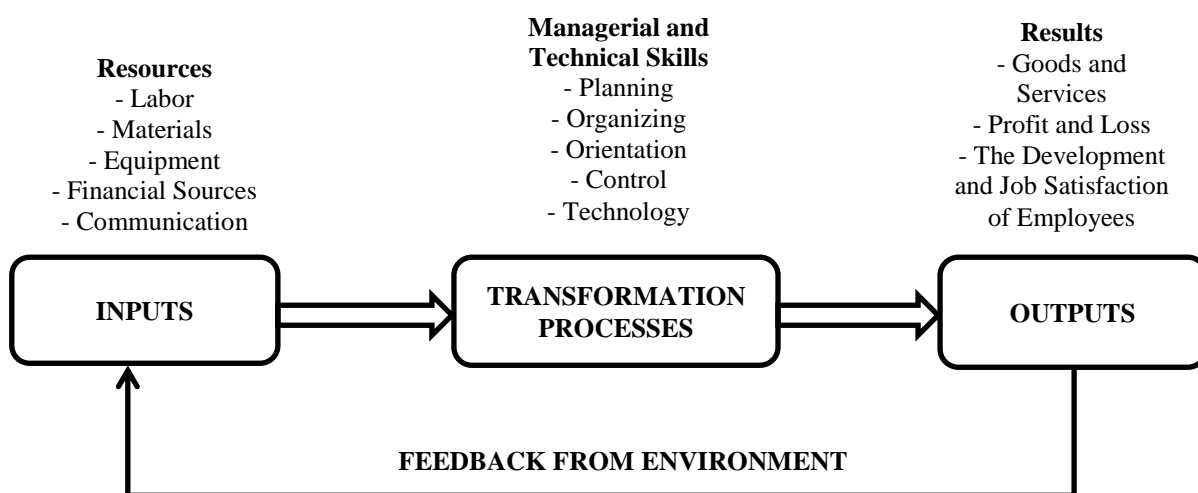


Figure 6. The educational institution as an open system (Hoy & Miskel, 2010, p. 35)

As an example of Open System, educational organizations take some inputs like students, parents, teachers, managers, money, buildings, knowledge, teaching materials, etc., and then employ them in some processes such as decision-making, communicating, coordinating, teaching-learning activities and assessment to produce outputs for society like graduates with new knowledge, more experienced teachers and well-educated human resources. The Open System has a feedback operation for getting information related to its processes and products from the environment to prevent the deviations from organizational

goals by rectifying its actions. On the other hand, the changes which occur in stakeholders' expectations and environments of organizations influence the management approaches as well as organizational features which are intertwined with management.

Organizational features in management. The density of alterations in the internal and external environment of organizations identifies their capacity for change. As one of the important organizational features, this capacity of organizations is called 'Organizational Change', and was defined by Poole and van de Ven (2004, p. 11) as "a difference in form, quality, or state over time in an organizational entity, which may be an individual's job, a work group, an organizational subunit, the overall organization, or larger communities of organizations, such as industries". Organizational changes can happen slowly or quickly, planned or unplanned and unremitting or intermittent thanks to varied causes. Higher education institutions, for example, have to adapt new situations created by many external factors like globalization, marketization, mass education, government regulations, technological advancements, major political and social events, and quick organizational expansion (Kondakci, van Den Broeck & Devos, 2006; Ka-Ho Mok & Welch, 2002; Kurultural, 2004). Moreover, the nature of the works, stakeholders' demands, managerial personnel changes, policy-making processes, existing organizational structures, power distribution, political relations, organizational cultures and individuals' characteristics are some internal forces for change (Chapman & Austin, 2002; Erkan, 2011; Stefani, 2008). Therefore, to cope with these different complex change factors, the management in organizations should create learning systems to access and use newly knowledge for adaptation into recent conditions (Boonstra, 2004).

Learning systems in organizations are important to increase employees' efforts by improving their individual skills and job abilities as well as to re-build institutions by

arranging new information collection activities. *Peter M. Senge*, in his famous book ‘The Fifth Discipline’ called organizations with learning systems as ‘Learning Organization’ (Özden, 2005). Learning Organization has the ability to make inferences from all events in organizations, to use these inferences for adapting to their environments, to create systems for developing their personnel, thus, to build dynamic organizational structures which are changeable, improvable and self-renewable (Leithwood et al., 2007; Turan, Karadağ & Bektaş, 2011). According to *Peter M. Senge*, to become a learning organization, institutions must have five essential disciplines as ‘*Personal Mastery*; using lifelong learning strategies for individual development’, ‘*Team Learning*; becoming teams to access and to share new knowledge’, ‘*Mental Models*; using different perspectives based on varied thought patterns’, ‘*Shared Vision*; common goals and future understanding among personnel’, and ‘*System Thinking*; combining the others to attain more than the sum of components’ (Banoğlu & Peker, 2012; Senge et al., 2014). Especially in educational institutions with their mission (teaching in a best ways) and vision (learning always better ways to teach), management should create a learning culture composed of the open communication among employees, the opportunities for sharing ideas and transferring newly learned knowledge, the teams for collective works, the participation of personnel into all process of organization, and common goals for pursuing changes and improvements (Amey, 2005; Korkmaz, 2008; Scott et al., 2008). Therefore, managements of learning organizations can assist their organizations to become more innovative and enterprising through the learning culture with these specifications.

Innovative and entrepreneurial organizations always try to attain advance knowledge and discover new operational strategies to improve their performances in a competitive arena (Pavlin & Svetlicic, 2012). Moreover, entrepreneurship in organizations has two main aspects which are “*Entrepreneurial Orientation*, which consists Innovation, Pro-activeness and Risk-

Taking, and *Entrepreneurial Management*, which consists Strategic Orientation, Resource Orientation, Management Structure, Reward Philosophy and Entrepreneurial Management” (Fox, 2005, p. 71). Organizational Entrepreneurship, thus, identifies reformist activities to develop new products, services or processes besides managerial actions to create new resources, strategies and challenges in organizations. Likewise, universities as main higher education institutions, which deal with global challenges, mass education movements, technological advancements and reduction in public resources, become more entrepreneurial organizations by developing strategies for income saving, cost reduction, fund raising, student fees-grants, renewed courses for international students, new degree programs for business entities, integration into commercial area and cooperative researches with industry (Erdem, 2002; Todorovic, McNaughton & Guild, 2011; TÜBİTAK, 2013; Welch, 2012). As a result, management of enterprising organizations as well as universities should produce new techniques to increase their competitive powers by building effective decision-making processes, establishing team spirit among personnel, accessing latest knowledge, installing quality development approaches, evolving enthusiasm for sustained innovation, etc. (Arslan, 2005; Gunter & Forrester, 2009; Hartley, 2003). On the other hand, management might need some alternatives to generate flexibility in their decisions and actions to avoid making crucial mistakes when innovative and enterprising organizations adapt to environmental changes.

Organizational flexibility. Flexibility is defined as ‘the quality of bending easily without breaking’, ‘the ability to be easily modified’ and ‘willingness to change or compromise’ in Oxford English Dictionary (www.oxforddictionaries.com), and ‘being flexible, elasticity, the adaptation skill for conditional changes and different statuses’ in Turkish Language Institution Dictionary (www.tdk.gov.tr). Based on these definitions, flexibility for organizations indicates the adaptation of organizations to new opportunities or

threats in their environments (Maldonado, 2003; Özden, 2005). In the same way, Organizational Flexibility is ‘the ability of organizations to give proper responses at the right times to the changes in their environments owing to employees and managers who develop by learning continuously’ (Adonisi & van Wyk, 2012; Gürkanlar, 2010). Meanwhile, for higher education institutions, flexibility signifies mostly the fund raising activities, building research networks, different practices for staff support, alternative work types for academia and varied access channels to higher education for wider student profiles (Bowring & Rankine, 2009; Mensah & Werner, 2003; Nikunen, 2012; Schellekens, Paas & van Merriënboer, 2003; Vandergeest et al., 2003).

On the other hand, organizations, including higher education institutions, have to possess some features which provide flexibility like producing right responses for changes in their environments, the flexible behaviors of managers, using their own experiences to respond to new customer demands, understanding flexibility as a response with adaptation, decisiveness about alterations, quick and accurate decision-making, building flexibility in organizational learning and forming alternative organizational structures and procedures at a certain rate (Chan, 2012; Szabo & Calista, 2012). Besides, to generate flexibility in organizations, management should encourage employees to take risks and to be reformist by rewarding the use of initiative, appreciating innovative ideas and providing opportunities for the development of employees’ creativity (Lapworth, 2004; Yalçın, 2009). Organizations, thereby, have many parameters which influence the power of flexibility such as the size and age of an organization, educational level of personnel, management style in decision-making, manager-employees rate, the number of hierarchical levels, functional job distribution and hierarchical control strength (Ceylan, 2001; Eapen, 2010).

To understand these flexibility parameters, based on studies made by *Brahman, Lee, Lund and Gjerding* and *Reed and Blunsden*, Ceylan (2001, pp. 38-47) identified seven

dimensions of organizational flexibility as ‘*Communication Flexibility*’, ‘*Labor Flexibility*’, ‘*Organizational Structure Flexibility*’, ‘*Organizational Clarity and Appreciation*’, ‘*Strategy Flexibility*’, ‘*Precept Flexibility*’ and ‘*Managerial Flexibility*’. *Communication Flexibility* includes alternative channels in organizations for horizontal and transversal communication among employees besides vertical communication channels between juniors and seniors. The diversity and development level of employees’ skills in organizations are entitled as *Labor Flexibility*. *Organizational Structure Flexibility* indicates systems in which employees are less controlled and can plan their works individually, and are suitable for collaborative team projects and process oriented works. *Organizational Clarity and Appreciation* means to create trust among employees by clear job procedures and reward approaches which take into account diverse aspects on employees’ efforts. *Strategy Flexibility* is defined as ‘shifting organizational strategies according to the changes in their environments and competitors’. Firmness of rules and regulations in organizations and their accordance level to allow resilience for employees’ own decision is called *Precept Flexibility*. *Managerial Flexibility* is ‘quick alterations on management styles to attain organizational goals rapidly, and impressing other dimensions of organizational flexibility by these managerial alterations’.

Managerial flexibility. In organizations, there is not a managerial style always valid for each case because the best management style is related to people, technology and environment. Therefore, organizations require managers who can alter their management styles easily to perceive and to satisfy discrete structural deficiencies and employees’ economic and social needs in different conditions (Arslan, 2005; Gronn, 2009). On this view, *Managerial Flexibility* can be defined as ‘the ability of managers to shift plans and processes at proper times for giving the right directions to organizations by modifying their management styles according to the changes in internal and external environments’ (Ceylan, 2001; Metcalfe, Fisher, Gingras, Jones, Rubenson & Snee, 2011). Also, to take advantages in

competitive business arenas, management system in flexible organizations should be strategy factories which produce optimum work conditions to meet rapidly customers' changing demands (Adonisi & van Wyk, 2012; Deem & Brehony, 2005). Managers, thus, must use complex information coming from their stakeholders as well as customers to adapt their kaleidoscopic environment by making suitable alterations and innovations in organizational processes (Ceylan, 2001; Cloonan, 2004; Kamarudin & Starr, 2012). In addition, managers have to enable employees' participation in the decision-making process, facilitate their cooperation by project-based team works, generate opportunities for personal and professional development, constitute channels for sharing information and experiences, and encourage them to solve problems on their own (Åkerlind, 2005; Beytekin & Arslan, 2013; Burnes, Wend & Todnem By, 2014; Karadağ & Öner, 2012; Toprakçı & Bilbay, 2011). As a result, *Managerial Flexibility*, which allows employees to plan their own work, to take responsibilities, to reach their directors and to join in management, should be created to attain better organizational performance.

On the other hand, higher education institutions, besides having many common characteristics with other organizations, have some unique characteristics like collegiality, academic freedom, strong expertise, academic leadership, knowledge mission and joining community life (Beytekin & Doyuran-Göktürk, 2012; Gedikoğlu, 2013; Kligyte & Barrie, 2014; Teichler, Arimoto & Cummings, 2013; Welch, 2005a). Robert Birbaum (1988), based on Bolman and Deal's (1987, as cited in Aypay, 2001) four frames for organizations, proposed five different organizational models, which include these distinctive features of higher education organizations, *Collegial, Bureaucratic, Political, Anarchical* and *Cybernetic* institution models. The *Collegial Model*, mostly suitable for small organizations, emphasizes consensus, shared power, common commitments, collective responsibility, and the meaning of leadership is 'primus inter pares: first among equals' (Aypay, 2001; Kezar & Eckel, 2004).

The *Bureaucratic Model* describes organizations as a flow chart reflecting the lines of authority, and leadership indicates the usage of rules and regulations to continue employees (as academics) working (Aypay, 2002; Kezar, 2004). Institutions, in the *Political Model*, are comprised of smaller systems, which are formed by groups having their own power structure, with diverse interests, preferences and goals, and leadership assumes conflicts and disagreements as a normal part of organizational life (Aypay, 2006; Berger, 2002). The *Anarchical Model*, based on ‘Organized Anarchies and A Garbage Can Decision-Making’ (Cohen, March & Olsen, 1972; Cohen & March, 1974), indicates that many large universities live within chaos because of problematic goals (ill-defined, unclear or multiple), unclear technology (several pathways for same outcomes) and fluid participations/interactions (garbage can decision-making), and leadership is mostly symbolic and leaders should project an air of competence, integrity and a dedication to many audiences (Birnbaum, 1989; Jones, 2002; Khefacha & Belkacem, 2014).

The *Cybernetic Model*, named as the *Systemic Model* by Berger (2000; 2002) and Aypay (2001; 2002; 2006), is the most comprehensive organizational model for universities which are incessantly expanding, evolving and becoming more complex. Organization in the *Cybernetic Model* is not a single organization, but is composed of systematic subunits which create the institution at large (Birnbaum, 1989). In these subunits, control mechanisms of cybernetic organizations work as a thermostat (see Figure 7) and are maintained as “self-correcting mechanisms that monitor organizational functions and provide attention cues, or negative feedback, to participants when things are not going well. Systems of negative feedback detect and correct errors [...] moves the college [...] to bring it back on course” (Birnbaum, 1988, p. 179). Leaders, thus, generally pay more attention to understand ‘what is wrong’ than ‘what is right’, and mostly behave according to the motto “If it’s working, keep doing it. If it’s not working, stop doing it. If you don’t know what to do, don’t do anything”

(Birnbaum, 1988, p. 200). Besides, leaders who actually lead several small organizations in cybernetic institutions have to assign responsibility and authority to the smaller units (Birnbaum, 1989; Coyner & Faseyitan, 2014). Consequently, in today's universities as cybernetic higher education institutions, leaders should create flexible work environments for employees, especially faculty, to empower their job and expertise autonomy by delegating authority to them, enabling them to take responsibilities, allowing them to take risks, installing new communication channels, giving opportunities to solve problems on their own and encouraging participation into decision-making processes, and generate structural support mechanisms at technology level as in the *Anarchical Model* for continuing their core duties and responsibilities effectively (Arslan, 2005; Aypay, 2006; Bolden, Gosling & O'Brien, 2014; Bryman, 2007; Chan, 2012; Ekinci & Yildirim, 2001; Marshall, 2010; Özden, 2005).

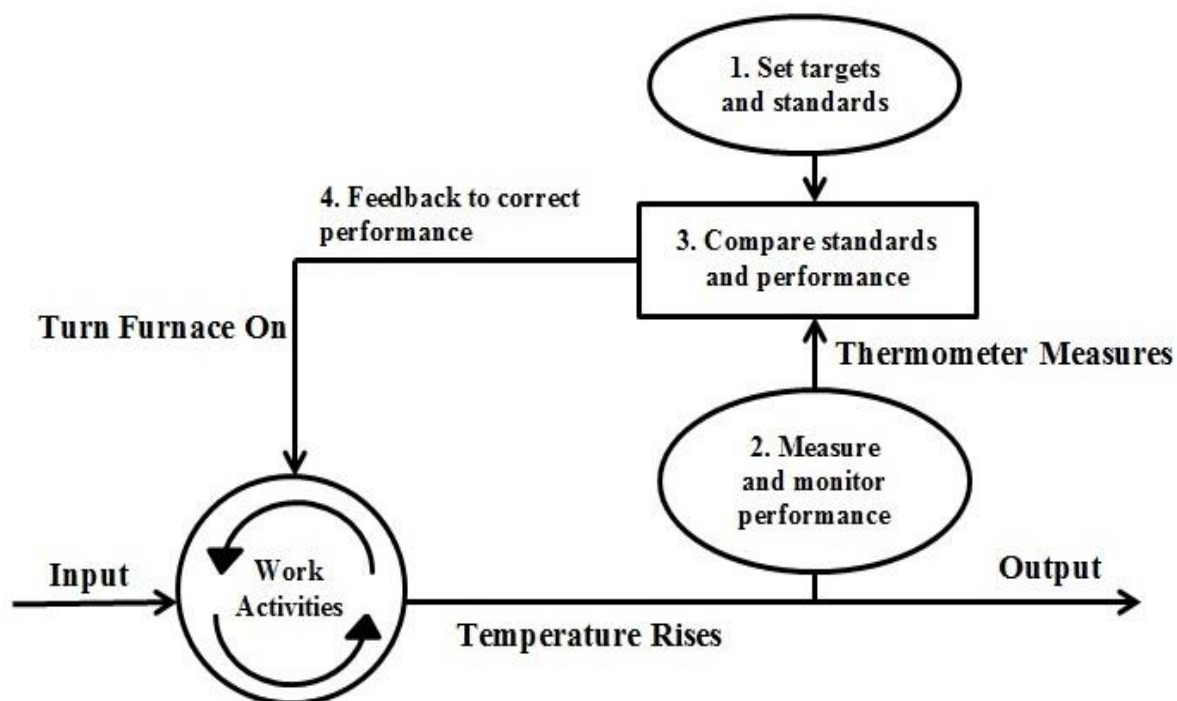


Figure 7. Cybernetic model of organizational control (from SOCI110 Module 7 - 04.09.2014)

Managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices. Varied job-oriented institutions like military, industry, business and service organizations have some structural differences besides several common frames. *Henry Mintzberg*, one of the well-known organizational structure theorists, has indicated these similarities and differences in his famous book ‘The Structuring of Organizations [Örgütler ve Yapıları] (1979; trans. 2014)’. According to Mintzberg (2014), all organizations are composed of five essential parts, *Operating Core*, workers actually carrying out the organization’s tasks; *Middle Line*, middle and lower level management; *Technostructure*, analysts alike planners, researchers, engineers and personnel managers; *Support Staff*, people providing indirect services; and *Strategic Apex*, top management and managerial support staff (see Figure 8).

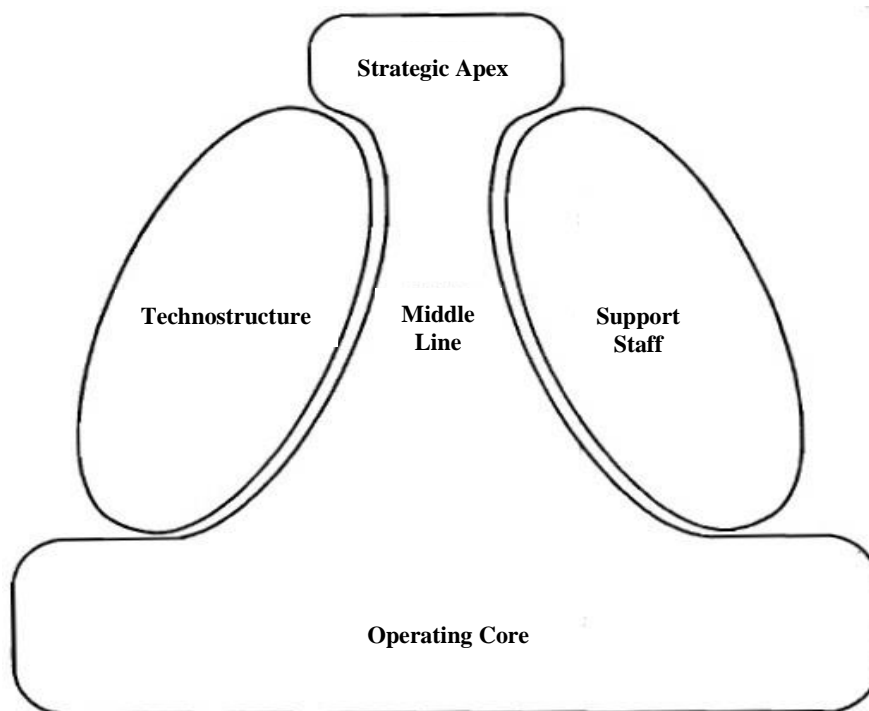


Figure 8. The five basic parts of organizations (Mintzberg, 2014, p. 20)

Mintzberg (2014) also specified different organization types (*Single Structure*, *Machine Bureaucracy*, *Professional Bureaucracy*, *Divisionalized Form* and *Adhocracy*) based on their structural specifications formed by the density of five key parts of organizations.

Universities are an example for *Professional Bureaucracy* based organizations, in which a key part of the organization is *Operating Core*, and main design parameters are training, horizontal job specialization, vertical and horizontal decentralization in a stable environment (see Figure 9). However, *Adhocracy* (or *Flexible Structure*; translated Turkish as *Esnek Yapı* in Mintzberg, 2014, p. 431) is necessary ‘to able to fuse experts drawn from different disciplines into smoothly functioning ad-hoc project teams’ in innovative institutions. The key parts for *Adhocracy* based organizations (see Figure 10) are *Support Staff* in the administrative adhocracy together with the *Operating Core* in the operating adhocracy, and main design parameters are ‘liaison devices, organic structure, selective decentralization, horizontal job specialization, training, and functional and market grouping concurrently’ in a complex, dynamic and even sometimes disparate environment.

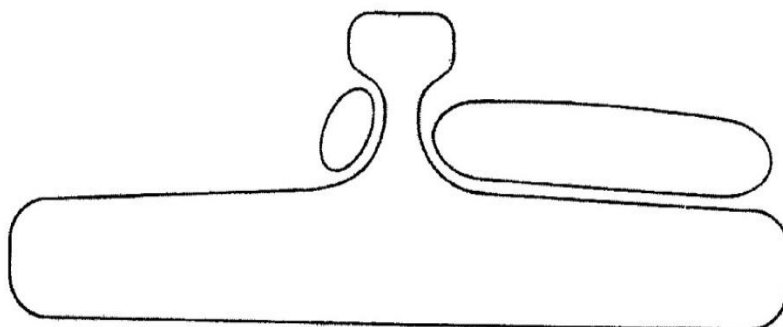


Figure 9. The professional bureaucracy (Mintzberg, 2014, p. 355)

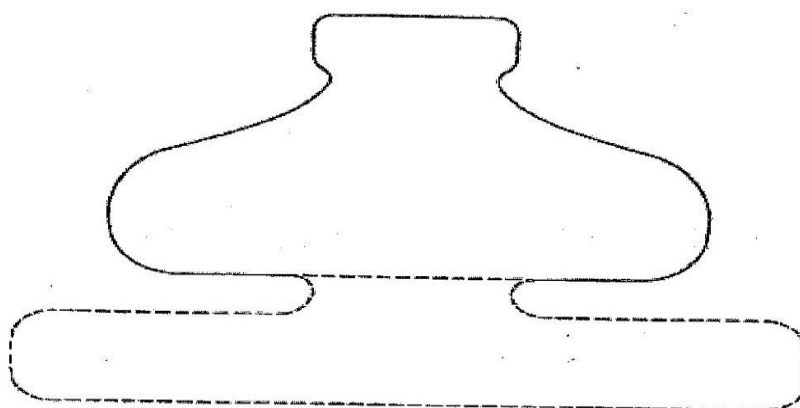


Figure 10. The adhocracy (Mintzberg, 2014, p. 443)

On the contrary, modern universities are no more in a stable environment and are affected by many fluid factors in their internal and external surroundings such as mass education, globalization, commercialization, managerialism, industrial expectations, accountability demands, technological advancements, social events, deeply specialized academics, etc (Altbach, Reisberg & Rumbley, 2009; Bakioğlu & Dalgıç, 2012; Coates et al., 2009; Kondakci & van den Broeck, 2009; Erdem, 2013; Robertson & Keeling, 2008; Teichler et al., 2013; Tonbul, 2008). Therefore, to compensate for the ‘choppy’ changes in their environment, modern universities – can be called *Professional Adhocracy* (see Figure 11) – should have a much more flexible structure in the *Operating Core* to become more innovative and entrepreneurial organizations like in *Adhocracy*, besides keeping the professional specifications of *Professional Bureaucracy*. Furthermore, the production in *Operating Core* of universities is generally performed by academics, so managers, especially academic leaders, should provide a flexible organizational structure to enable academics to accomplish the knowledge mission of universities (Aypay, 2003; Beytekin & Arslan, 2012; Fox, 2005; Geurts & Maassen, 2005; O’Meara, Lounder & Campbell, 2014; Yang & Welch, 2012).

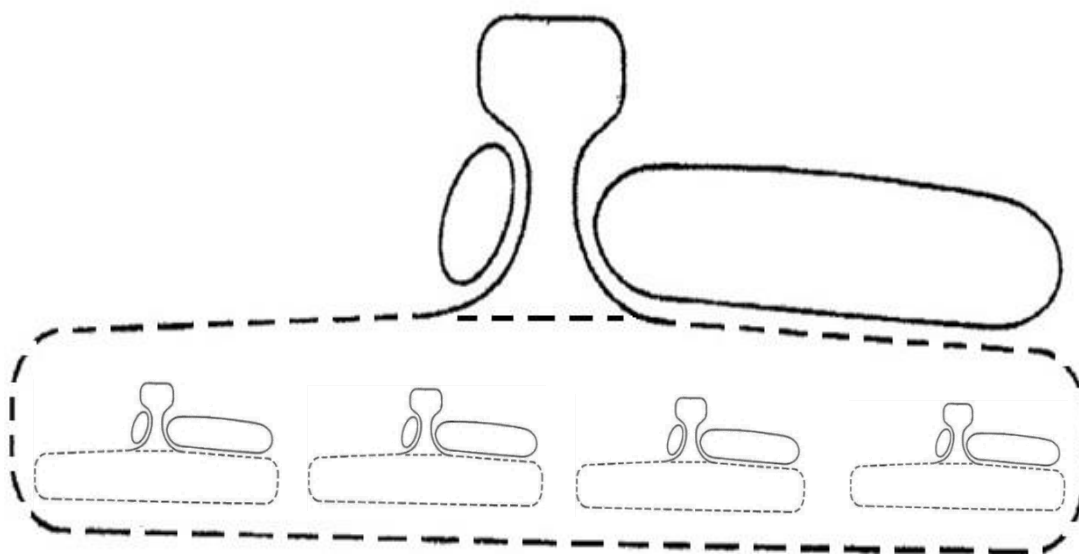


Figure 11. The professional adhocracy

On the other hand, the managerial flexibility towards work conditions in universities can be created by management with alternative support practices for teaching, research and service responsibilities of academics (Bentley, Coates, Dobson, Goedegebuure & Meek, 2013; Campbell, & O'Meara, 2014; Ceylan, 2001; Cummings & Finkelstein, 2012; Mintzberg, 2014; Teichler et al., 2013). These scholarly practices executed by management in universities are called *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices* in the research. In this regard, *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices* can be defined as 'the variety of managerial practices within the scope of teaching, research and service activities to ease the duties and responsibilities expected to be fulfilled by academics, and to provide competitive advantages for higher education institutions'.

In the literature, there are adequate number of studies about academics' professional development, teaching pedagogy and technology adaptation in higher education, students-academics interactions, collaboration and interdisciplinary research, research networking, technology transfer, university-industry-government relations, service learning and community engagement, etc. (Akyol & Arslan, 2014; Amey, Brown & Sandmann, 2002; Austin & Sorcinelli, 2013; Aypay, Çekiç & Seçkin, 2012; Cohen, Raudenbush & Loewenberg-Ball, 2003; Çalık & Bumin-Süzen, 2013; Çetinsaya, 2014; Evans, 2012; Habib & Johannesen, 2014; Hubball, Collins & Pratt, 2005; Kim & Sax, 2011; Kondakci & Haser, 2010; Kreber, 2013; Metcalfe, 2010; Sa', 2008; Şimşek & Hacıfazlıoğlu, 2012). However, there are not many studies emphasizing 'What are the demands of academics from management related to support practices in universities to accomplish their duties and responsibilities effectively?'. For this reason, some interviews were conducted with faculty in Turkey and Australia to understand the expectations of academics related to support practices instituted by university management to facilitate their scholarly activities. These qualitative data were analyzed by classifying them into three themes, managerial practices relating to

teaching, research and service; common points emerging from the data were used to develop a questionnaire for assessing '*Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices*'.

In the teaching category, most mentioned practices by faculty were 'providing physical-technological suitability for classrooms', 'quick arrangements for outdoor teaching activities', 'supplying material/equipment requirements for teaching', 'organizing pedagogical development trainings', 'regulating teaching workloads fairly', 'supporting the alternative assessment methods usage' and 'facilitating the connection needed for teaching activities with social actors and institutions'. Faculty generally required 'support for obtaining patent and intellectual property', 'leading to connection with industrial and governmental institutions', 'academic activities for developing research abilities', 'funding the participation into national and international academic events', 'easy access to the scientific publications', 'providing necessary research materials and equipment', 'sharing opportunities research interest with academics from other disciplines', and also 'empowering activities for foreign language abilities of faculty from Turkey (non-native English speaking country)' as demands for their research. Furthermore, for their service activities, the expectations of faculty from university managements were 'ground arrangements for community services', 'assistance to deliver faculty's commentaries related to social events to the public', 'field trip for investigating social phenomenon', 'supporting faculty for leading to establish social associations, foundations and non-governmental organizations', 'facilitating faculty's national and international social responsibility projects' and 'generating opportunities to introduce their fields and universities to the community'. As a result, scholarly practices to increase faculty's productivity by providing managerial flexibility for supporting their duties and responsibilities contain many different applications related to teaching, research and service activities. *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices*, therefore, is obviously affected by academic leadership in universities, and also influences faculty's leadership.

Leadership

Leadership is a term which has been used and discussed for a long time, and indicates different meanings in historical perspectives. In the Classical Management Theory (introduced by *Frederick W. Taylor* in 1911 with his famous book *The Principles of Scientific Management*), a leader has been used generally to refer to a manager. According to this approach, managers as formal leaders ensure the continuity of works, apply formal procedures and rules, so they behave as authoritarian, commanding and controller. Again, leadership has continued to cover the management based on formal authority in the Neo-Classic Approach, developed by *George E. J. Mayo* after *Hawthorne Studies* in 1927-1932. Managers' human relation skills, however, gained importance in this theory, which suggested that managers should recognize informal aspects of employees and establish effective relations with these informal structures to improve employees' performance. In the light of these ideas proposed by Classical and Neo-Classical theories, many researchers identified the differences between management and leadership (see in Table 1). Moreover, the Open System Theory as a management theory was formed by *Daniel Katz* and *Robert L. Kahn* during 1970s based on the General System Approach proposed by *Ludwig von Bertalanffy* in 1920 for biological structures, and this theory brought a holistic apprehension of leadership with technical, human and conceptual competencies. Thus, leaders in organizations, especially open systems, should have technical (like finance, organizational structure, politics, etc.), human (like creating joint efforts, overseeing individual differences, providing trust, transferring authority, etc.) and conceptual (like knowing managerial frameworks, having information about organizational behaviors, understanding human psychology, following recent theoretical expansions, etc.) information and capabilities. In addition, Z Theory, developed by *William Ouchi* in 1981, and Total Quality Management, adapted by *W. Edwards Deming* in 1985 based on Japanese management ideals, as modern management theories added some new aspects to leadership

such as creating a vision and influencing others to share this vision. According to these approaches, leaders can form a vision, which covers key organizational goals besides different demands and needs of employees, and a mission based on short and long term strategies; they can impress others to share the same vision by using common cultural characteristics in organizations (Aydın, 2005; Bass & Bass, 2008; Bolman & Deal, 2013; Cemaloğlu, 2013; Çelik, 2013; Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Northouse, 2007; Özden, 2005; Şişman, 2004).

Table 1.

*The Differences between Management and Leadership**

Management Produces Order & Consistency	Leadership Produces Change & Movement
Planning and Budgeting Establish agendas Self timetables Allocate resources	Establishing Direction Create a vision Clarify big picture Set strategies
Organizing and Staffing Provide structure Make job placements Establish rules and procedures	Aligning People Communicate goals Seek commitment Build teams and coalitions
Controlling and Problem Solving Develop incentives Generate creative solutions Take corrective action	Motivating and Inspiring Inspire and energize Empower subordinates Satisfy unmet needs

* Retrieved from Northouse, 2007, p. 10

In accordance with the perspectives given above, there are many different leadership definitions in the literature which were proposed by several researchers in terms of ‘individual features’, ‘leadership behaviors’, ‘interaction model’, ‘role relations’, ‘perceptions of followers’, ‘impression on followers’, ‘duties and aims’ and ‘organizational culture specifications’ (Buluç, 2009). Leadership, for example, was described as “the ability of delivering people to success with minimum conflict and the strongest collaboration (Munson,

1921), the art of convincing people to do whatever you want (Bundel, 1930), being able to display many awe-inspiring individual features (Kilbourne, 1935), the process of influencing a group to form aims and to operate them (Stogdill, 1950), the art of influencing people mentally, physically and emotionally (Copeland, 1969), managing rational and well-considered actions, which constitute organizations, like aim, culture, strategy, essential identities and critical processes (Sullivan & Harper, 1996), and the process of affecting people to strive to reach an aim with their whole potential and desire (Gallagher, 1997)” (as cited in Erçetin, 2000, pp. 4-11). Likewise, Gary A. Yukl defined leadership as “the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how it can be done effectively, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives” (as cited in Evers & Katyal, 2007, pp. 378). According to Bernard M. Bass, leadership is “to motivate people by inspiring them, to stimulate them intellectually, to afford them individualised consideration and to exude a kind of idealised influence over them” (as cited in Gronn, 2010; p. 416).

Additionally, Kouzes & Posner (2003) developed the Leadership Practices Inventory. This inventory is based on scales measuring leadership behaviors and attributes (see in Table 2) like ‘Empowering Leadership Questionnaire’, ‘Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire’, ‘Charismatic Leadership Scale’, ‘Transformational Leadership’, ‘Servant Leadership’ and ‘Instructional Leadership Survey’ (Yavuz, 2010b). The inventory shows five practices for modern leaders: *Model the Way*, *Inspiring a Shared Vision*, *Challenging the Process*, *Encouraging the Heart* and *Enabling Others to Act* (Kouzes & Posner, 2003; Turan & Bektas, 2013; Yavuz, 2010b). *Model the Way* refers to establishing the way which covers people’s main concern about department for reaching goals pursued by them, and to create standards of excellence and display them as an example to the others. In *Inspiring a Shared Vision*, leaders should foresee and create an ideal vision for an organization, and include

others in this future image of the organization by using its exciting aspects. Leaders can change the status quo to improve the organization by taking risks and learning from their mistakes in *Challenging the Process* practice. *Encouraging the Heart* states that leaders should understand the value of extraordinary works in organizations, and motivate employees to remain optimistic and eager by recognizing and celebrating their contributions with material or moral rewards. Leaders, in *Enabling Others to Act*, must empower involvement and cooperation of employees using team-based work, and generating an atmosphere of trust and human dignity in which each person feels themselves capable and powerful.

Table 2.

*Universally Desirable Leadership Attributes**

Positive Leadership Attributes	
Trustworthy	Motivational
Foresight	Decisive
Positive	Communicative
Confidence builder	Coordinator
Intelligent	Honest
Win-win problem solver	Encouraging
Administrative skilled	Motive arouser
Excellence oriented	Dependable
Just	Effective bargainer
Plans ahead	Informed
Dynamic	Team builder

* Retrieved from Northouse, 2007, p. 322

Besides all the qualifications mentioned above, leaders in educational organizations should be active learners to achieve the teaching-learning mission of educational organizations (Senge et al., 2014). Also, leadership as learning includes creating a learning environment to facilitate individual learning, knowledge sharing and team working for others' cognitive development as well as their own development (Amey, 2005; Korkmaz, 2008; Scott et al., 2008; Turan et al., 2011). Moreover, instructional leadership skills, which aim to

transform schools as workplaces into satisfying and productive environment for teachers and educating students in better ways; are another essential aspect of leadership in educational organizations (Aksu, Gemici & İşler, 2006; Robinson, Lloyd & Rowe, 2008; Sağır, 2013). Educational leaders from the instructional perspective should initiate some key practices in their schools such as coordination, problem-solving, administering and developing teachers, assessing learning outcomes, instructional management and support, resource management, and controlling instructional quality (Çelik, 2013; Quinlan, 2014; Receptoğlu & Özdemir, 2013).

In higher education institutions as the most complex educational organizations, leaders, who are called mostly academic leaders, engage in the administration of faculty as staff who are extremely professional. Whereas the managerialism approach has gained strength to cope with a changing environment, faculty expect the collegial management to continue based on the idea 'primus inter pares' (Arslan, 2005; Austin & Sorcinelli, 2013; Bolden et al., 2014; Cranston, Ehrich, Kimber & Starr, 2012; Macfarlane, 2012; Noumair & Burke, 2003; Westaby, Probst & Lee, 2010). Besides, faculty seek academic freedom in universities and individual autonomy for their own works. Therefore, academic leaders should use faculty's expertise power for expanding universities' own resources, and should generate support mechanisms to facilitate faculty's activities for higher academic productivity (Amey, 2006; Bryman, 2007; Campbell & O'Meara, 2014; Kezar & Lester, 2009; Kezar & Sam, 2013; O'Meara, Terosky & Neumann, 2008; Pietila, 2014). As a result, academic leadership can be defined as 'creating vision, strategies and operations for accomplishing the knowledge mission efficiently within teaching and research, and for contributing community's welfare socially and economically by enlisting stakeholders into this mutual future through the agency of swift problem solving, effective relations with others, shared decision-making process, authority transferring, risk-taking, individual autonomy, technical support mechanisms, team-

project based works and collaborative climate'. On the other hand, it is a well-known fact that leadership with great impact on higher education institutions, as well as other types of organizations, has a long and powerful theoretical background.

Leadership theories. Leadership discourses historically started with 'The Great Man' approach, and then continued with three main theories, '*Traits* (1930's-1940's)', '*Behaviorist* (1940's-1950's)' and '*Contingency/Situational* (1960's)'. Besides, modern leadership approaches, which cover many new leadership concepts, were developed like leadership orientations; Structural, Human Resource, Political and Symbolic frames, varied leadership styles; Autocratic, Democratic, Transactional, Transformational and Laissez-Faire Leadership, and different leadership types; Cultural, Distributed, Ethic, Instructional, Learning, Servant, Spiritual, Team and Visionary Leadership. Hereby, the essence of these main theories is that, 'Leadership is an innate characteristic' in *Traits Theory*, 'The effectiveness of a leader is related to leader's behaviors' in *Behaviorist Theory*, and 'The effective leadership is influenced by conditions' in *Contingency/Situational Theory* (Bass & Bass, 2008; Bolden, Gosling, Marturano & Dennison, 2003; Bolman & Deal, 2013; Çelik, 2013; Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Northouse, 2007; Sağır, 2013).

Traits theory. As the first one, *Traits Theory* was constituted by examining especially the characteristics of military and executive managers. This theory tried to explore essential personal and social features for efficient leadership by analysing the traits of leaders who had great influences on the periods they lived and even after their lifetimes. 'People born as leaders, they do not later become leaders' is the dominant idea in *Traits Theory*. According to this idea, some people are separated from others by means of their congenitally superior talents. These personal, physical and social talents of leaders were studied by many researchers (as cited in Northouse, 2007, p. 18) such as *Stogdill* (1948 and 1974), *Mann*

(1959), Lord, DeVader and Alliger (1986), Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991), and identified in two categories as Traits and Skills by Stogdill (see in Table 3).

Table 3.

*Leadership Traits and Skills**

Traits	Skills
Adaptable to situations	Clever (intelligent)
Alert to social environment	Conceptually skilled
Ambitious and achievement-orientated	Creative
Assertive	Diplomatic and tactful
Cooperative	Fluent in speaking
Decisive	Knowledgeable about group task
Dependable	Organised (administrative ability)
Dominant (desire to influence others)	Persuasive
Energetic (high activity level)	Socially skilled
Persistent	
Self-confident	
Tolerant of stress	
Willing to assume responsibility	

* Stogdill (1974); retrieved from Bolden et al., 2003, p. 7

Behaviorist theory. *Traits Theory*, in the course of time, gave way to another theory which claims that leadership qualifications can be acquired by education and experiences. Therefore, researchers tried to detect the behavioral characters of effective leaders, in other words, to recognize ‘what successful leaders are doing’. Also, they implied that behaviors are different from traits and can be learned, thus, allowing the *Behaviorist Theory* to emerge. In this theory, two key ideas are: ‘It is important how leaders behave others’ and ‘People can be educated to become leaders’. In this respect, three major studies were carried out by Ohio State and Michigan State Universities, and Robert. R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton.

Ohio State University’s Leadership Model indicates two main leadership behaviors on two cross-lines as *Initiating Structure (IS)* and *Consideration (C)* with four cross-sections; low *IS* – low *C*, low *IS* – high *C*, high *IS* – low *C* and high *IS* – high *C*. While *Initiating*

Structure covers ‘organizing work, defining roles and relationships, establishing well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication and ways of getting jobs done’, *Consideration* emphasizes ‘building friendship, mutual trust, respect and camaraderie’. Likewise, Michigan State University studied leadership within criteria like ‘measurements of the product goals’, ‘work greatness’, ‘cost analysis’, ‘motivation of managers and employees’, ‘job satisfaction’, etc. Then, they identified *Employee/Relationship-Oriented(EO)* (accepting individual difference, caring employees’ problems, forming effective work teams, improving positive relations and communication) and *Production/Task-Oriented(PO)* (planning operations of works, making division of labor, educating employees for technical skills and supervising employees in terms of their tasks) leadership behaviors as two-cross lines again with four cross-sections; low *EO* – low *PO*, low *EO* – high *PO*, high *EO* – low *PO* and high *EO* – high *PO*. In addition, *Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton* developed their Managerial Grid (see Figure 12) having two dimensions, *Concern for People (CFP)* and *Concern for Results (CFR)*, with high and low ends. Leaders take into account their subordinates’ emotions, ideas, needs and interests in *CFP*, but keep their subordinates under surveillance by autocratic management and strict control in *CFR*.

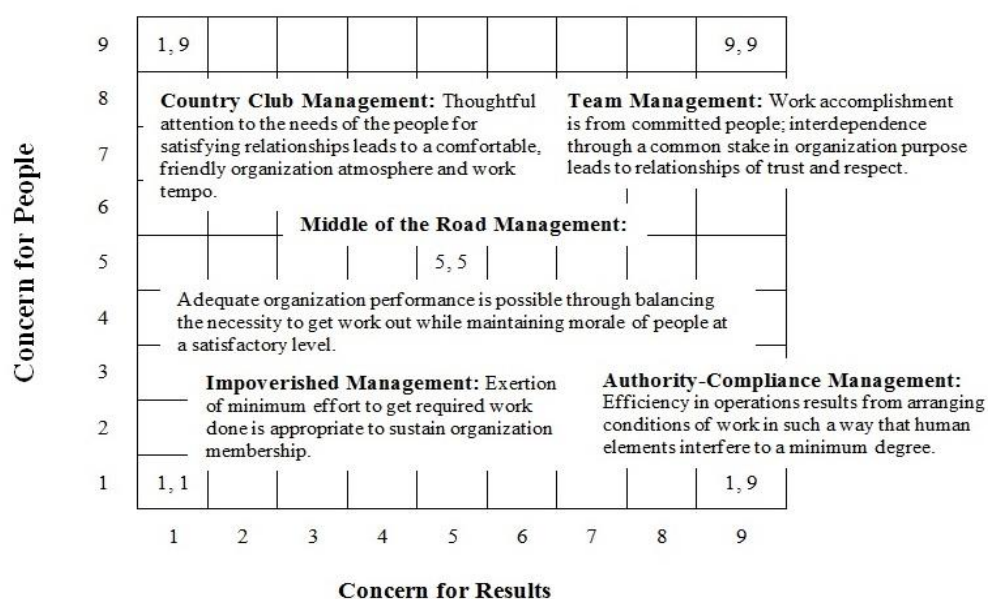


Figure 12. The managerial grid by Blake and Mouton (Northouse, 2007, p. 74)

Contingency/Situational theory. *Situational Theory*, also called *Contingency Theory* in some resources, argues that leadership arises depending on the circumstances in which a person continues to live and to perform his/her activities. The determinants of leadership efficiency in this theory are ‘the quality of organizational aims’, ‘group members’ demands and skills’, ‘features of the organization which leadership carried out’ and ‘the experiences and individual specifications of followers’. The studies related to the theory show that work environments have unique conditions and leader-followers relations are dissimilar from each of the organizations. Therefore, in *Situational Theory*, it is important to identify ‘which conditions are substantial in specific situations’ and ‘the appropriate leadership style for these specific circumstances’. Several models were developed by using this approach such as *Path-Goal Theory*, *Normative Leadership of Vroom and Yetton*, *Fiedler’s Contingency Model*, *Reddin’s 3D Theory* and *The Situational Leadership Model of Hersey and Blanchard*.

In *Path-Goal Theory*, *Robert J. House* states that leaders must support and help their followers to reach their own goals by compatibility with the group’s aims. Regarding this vision, there are four essential leadership behaviors as *Directive* (to point out what are expected from followers and to guide how jobs are completed), *Supportive* (to be concerned with the followers’ needs and to behave in a friendly), *Participative* (to inquire about followers’ ideas and to evaluate their suggestions before taking a decision) and *Achievement-Oriented* (to set challenging goals for followers and to expect them to perform at the highest level). *Victor H. Vroom* and *Philip W. Yetton* developed their *Normative Leadership Theory*, which indicates that the most important functions of leaders are decision-making and to provide followers’ participation in decision-making process at the right conditions. They, thus, propose ‘*Autocratic*; leader chooses using information available to him/her at the time’, ‘*Informed Autocratic*; leader collects specific information from people and then decides’, ‘*Individual Consultative*; leader meets with people one to one to gather information’, ‘*Group*

Consultative; leader meets with group to gather feedback and input, and then makes decision' and '*Group Agreement*; consensus decision for group' as different leadership styles for decision-making. *Fred E. Fiedler* believed that leadership is dependent on leaders' characteristics and behavior; they cannot change their leadership styles but they can differentiate between situations and conditions. Then, in his *Contingency Model*, *Fred E. Fiedler* focused on three key situational factors which are *Leader-Member Relations* (the degree to which the employees accept the leader), *Task Structure* (the degree to which the subordinates jobs are described in detail) and *Position Power* (the amount of formal authority the leader possesses by virtue of his/her position in the organization), and expressed that the least preferred leadership styles are high relationship-motivated or low task-motivated leaders. In his theory, *William J. Reddin* mentioned that leadership has three dimensions, Relation-Oriented, Task-Oriented and Effectiveness, and the style of leaders is combined with these dimensions. Hence, some leadership styles were defined in *Reddin's 3D Theory* like *Deserter* (a hand-off or laissez-faire approach: less effective) - *Bureaucratic* (a legalistic and procedural approach: more effective), *Missionary* (an affective/supportive approach: less effective) - *Developer* (the objective counterpart of the missionary style: more effective), *Autocratic* (a directive and controlling approach: less effective) - *Benevolent Autocratic* (the communicative counterpart of the autocratic style: more effective), *Compromiser* (express appreciation of both human relations orientation and task orientation: less effective) - *Executive* (integrates task orientation and human relations orientation in response to realistic demand: more effective). *Paul Hersey* and *Ken Blanchard*, in their situational leadership model, emphasizes that leaders can act with *Supportive (Relation Oriented)* such as giving support, communicating, facilitating interactions, active listening, providing feedback, etc. or *Directive (Task Oriented) Behaviors* such as goal-setting, organizing, establishing time lines, directing, controlling, etc. *The Situational Leadership Model of Hersey and Blanchard* (see

Figure 13) focuses on the characteristics of followers as the important element of the situation, and consequently, for determining effective leader behaviors. On the other hand, within the consideration of organizational elements, as well as leaders' traits, behaviors and leadership situations referred in the theories above, leadership orientations were developed by *Lee G. Bolman and Terrence E. Deal*.

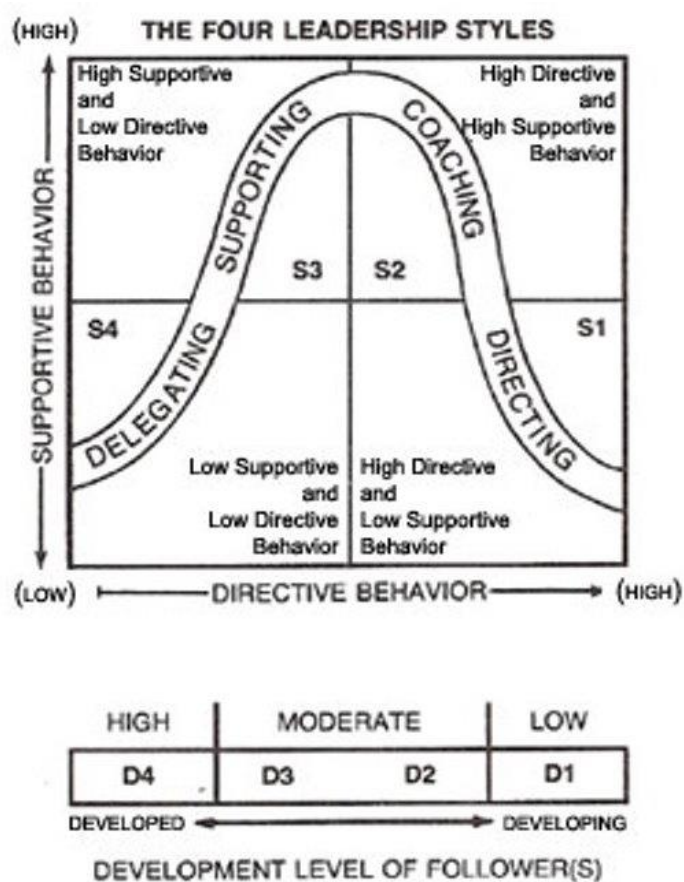


Figure 13. The leadership model of Hersey and Blanchard (Northouse, 2007, p. 92)

Leadership orientations. Leadership orientations were formed in 1991 by *Lee G. Bolman and Terrence E. Deal* in order to help leaders for overcoming difficulties in organizations by using different perspectives within a holistic approach on leadership styles based on the usage of various organizational power sources in appropriate manners. The foundation of these orientations is 'to understand the problems in organizations better by

converting complex symptoms related to the problems in a meaningful diagnosis, and to carry out a range of activities for resolving the problems'. Thereupon, four different frames, which are based on three key opinions; 'Any of these frames might be consistent, intensified and powerful according to conditions', 'The sum of all frames should be more comprehensive than any frame' and 'Leader can only peruse an issue in a different aspects if he/she has multiple frames', were developed for leadership as *Structural*, *Human Resource*, *Political* and *Symbolic* frames (Aslan & Durmuş, 2013; Bertram-Gallant & Drinan, 2006; Bilir, 2005; Bolman & Deal, 2013; Dereli, 2003; González-Sullivan, 2001; Hackmann, 2002; Mcardle, 2008; Tanrıöğen, Baştürk & Başer, 2014).

Structural frame. *Structural Frame* accents productivity, and a chain of command, a division of labor and responsibilities of different roles among bureaucratic features. Leaders, according to this frame, are responsible for the understanding of politics and procedures clearly by all members and the accomplishment of organizational aims. This type of leader is generally identified as 'good self-conscious leader'. The *Structural Frame* is composed of two dimensions as *Analytic Dimension* (thinking clearly and logically, approaching problems by careful analyses, dealing with problems rationally by using data, and paying attention strongly to details) and *Organized Dimension* (organizing structure very well, developing and applying apprehensible politics, providing consistent goals and directions, and believing in strongly open structures and systems).

Human resource frame. Psychology and organizational behaviors are the fundamentals of *Human Resource Frame* which emphasizes the importance of members' needs and motives in organization. In this frame, the focal point is accepted as the comparison of human relations. Herewith, 'interested in members' problems' and 'ensuring their participation in decision-making' are the ways for leaders to acquire the members' commitment and participations. Moreover, *Supportive* (concerning and supporting others,

paying attention to their emotions, reacting them coherently, and highlighting well-done works) and *Participatory* (promoting the participation into the decision-making processes, listening carefully, caring new and innovative ideas, and internalizing the participatory management) dimensions are the sub-dimensions of the *Human Resource Frame*.

Political frame. In *Political Frame*, conflicts are accepted as unavoidable, and competition for scarce resources is settled as a crux for organizational life. Leaders who interiorize the political orientation have sophisticated negotiation and coalition-building skills. They generally use discussion and negotiation techniques to assure mutual agreements by imposing their power in particular areas. The *Political Frame*, hence, is formed by two sub-dimensions as *Powerful* (actuating people and resources in an organization, being persuasive and impressive, being effective in cooperation to gain support, and developing agreements to form a strong support base) and *Skillful* (responding to organizational disputes, being sensitive politically, forming different politics for varied situations, and understanding how to win against the opposition) dimensions.

Symbolic frame. Values and cultural elements in an organization become prominent in *Symbolic Frame*. The primary objective of this frame is ‘to minimize the ambiguities in explanation and comprehension of organizational activities’, and symbols in an organization steer the members’ behaviors by sharing significant rules, agreements and comprehensions. Thus, symbolic leader raises the commitments of members by creating enthusiasm in the organization, and he/she admits the importance of organizational myths, ceremonies and other symbolic elements and tries to improve them. In this regard, the *Symbolic Frame* has two dimensions, *Inspiring* (infusing others to make best, conveying a powerful vision, generating loyalty, and developing relevancies) and *Charismatic* (paying strict attention to the culture in an organization, using creative imagination, producing new and exciting possibilities, and being quite impressive) perspectives.

As a result, *Lee G. Bolman* and *Terrence E. Deal* developed four different leadership orientations, and each of them emphasizes different perspectives of organizations (see in Table 4). Whereas aims, procedures and technologies are the basis of the *Structural Frame*, in the *Human Resource Frame* relations with members and taking their needs and demands into account are important. The *Political Frame* emphasizes conflict management, negotiation and political skills for leaders; however, myths, rituals, ceremonies, etc. as cultural elements in an organization become main parts in the *Symbolic Frame*. On the other hand, different organizational aspects in these orientations were kept in view by researchers while they developed several leadership styles.

Table 4.

*Overview of the Four-Frame Model**

	FRAMES			
	Structural	Human Resource	Political	Symbolic
<i>Metaphor for organization</i>	Factory or Machine	Family	Jungle	Carnival, temple, theatre
<i>Central concepts</i>	Rules, roles, goals, policies, technology, environment	Needs, skills, relationships	Power, conflict, competition, organizational politics	Culture, meaning, metaphor, ritual, ceremony, stories, heroes
<i>Image of leadership</i>	Social architecture	Empowerment	Advocacy and political savvy	Inspiration
<i>Basic leadership challenge</i>	Attune structure to task, technology, environment	Align organizational and human needs	Develop agenda and power base	Create faith, beauty, meaning

* Retrieved from Bolman and Deal, 2013, p. 18

Leadership styles. The influential leader is the person who assists followers to become more constructive and productive. However, his/her leadership style which is effective in one situation might be inappropriate for other situations, so the leader should determine which leadership style will be efficient in existing conditions. Herewith, the most common styles used by leaders in different situations are identified as *Autocratic*,

Democratic, Laissez-Faire, Transactional, and Transformational leadership styles (Bass & Bass, 2008; Bolman & Deal, 2013; Northouse, 2007; Sağır, 2013).

Autocratic leadership. This leadership is also known as ‘Authoritarian Leadership’, and in this style, leaders accumulate every authority and responsibility in their hands. Typical autocratic leaders are insistent, overconfident and peremptory, and want to be at the centre of attention. On the contrary, followers just come after their leaders and only contribute formally at the beginning to form a group by clustering around leaders. They are mostly uninformed about leaders’ plans, many events and decisions, and also feel fear, insecurity and timidity towards leaders’ authorities. Thus, autocratic leaders can give orders and instructions without any explanation or discussion, so they generally show a work-orientation style and have a very low communication level with their followers (Bozdoğan & Sağnak, 2011; De Cremer, 2006; Kamarudin & Starr, 2012; K. Yılmaz, 2007).

Democratic leadership. Leaders want followers to participate in decision-making processes to take advantage of the solutions and different ideas developed by followers regarding problems and operations in organizations. Hence, in democratic leadership, there is an open and friendly communication based on mutual trust between leaders and followers, and leaders and followers generally act as a social union. Besides, leaders mostly fulfil their management duties by benefiting from power in formal or informal groups. Therefore, democratic leaders can provide a high level of individual motivation, use followers’ knowledge in decision-making, create commitment to group goals and prevent possible conflicts in organizations by applying bidirectional communication (Adeyimi, 2010; Erçetin & Baskan, 2000; Harris, 2004; Sağır, 2013).

Laissez-faire leadership. Leaders give complete independence to followers after providing necessary resources for their works. The participation of leader in job processes is limited by his/her answers when asking questions related to work, and whole responsibilities

are left to followers. Followers, hence, decide goals related to jobs and solve problems in groups on their own. However, the laissez-faire leadership style can be efficient only when followers accomplish high level individual motivation to attain their goals. In this style, there are some deficiencies in the coordination of group activities although a permissive working environment can be motivational, and groups can adapt to recent changes by means of their flexible structures (Aydın, Sarier & Uysal, 2013; Bass & Bass, 2008; Buluç, 2009; Northouse, 2007; Oğuz, 2011).

Transactional leadership. The relations between leader-followers are very important in this style, and leaders must acquire the adequate level of trust with followers to accomplish works in organizations properly by them. Leaders determine the work performed by followers, operations for these works and potential rewards of achievements on work goals. Transactional leaders tend to satisfy the followers' requirements like trust, commitment, etc. by reward and punishment practices. Leaders give some awards with positive feedback to followers, but give several sanctions if followers cannot accomplish the goals. In this context, transactional leaders generally display four different behaviors (see in Table 5): *Contingent Rewards* (linking the goal to rewards, clarifying expectations, providing necessary resources, setting mutually agreed upon goals, and providing various kinds of rewards for successful performance), *Active Management by Exception* (monitoring actively the work of followers, watching for deviations from rules and standards, and taking corrective action to prevent mistakes), *Passive Management by Exception* (intervening only when standards are not met or when the performance is not as per the expectations, and using punishment as a response to unacceptable performance) and *Complete Independence–Laissez-Faire* (providing an environment where the followers get many opportunities to make decisions) (Bass & Bass, 2008; Cemaloğlu, 2007; Korkmaz, 2007; Northouse, 2007; Şahin, 2004).

Transformational leadership. In 1973, the first idea related to Transformational Leadership was presented by *James V. Downton*, and it was used as a term at for the first time in 1978 by *James MacGregor Burns*. Then, in 1985, *Bernard M. Bass* was developed Transformational Leadership Theory which engages in behavior models and factors. This leadership style is established on relations between leaders and followers, leaders' values and beliefs, and actuation of followers' needs by leaders. Besides, Transformational Leadership contains 'activating followers by an impressive vision', 'encouraging followers to overcome problems on their own', 'accepting group goals by followers' and 'participating into personal development activities'. Therefore, *Bernard M. Bass* defined four key behaviors (see in Table 5) for this style as *Idealized Influence-Charisma* (to act as a role model for followers by respecting and encouraging them, besides creating consistent vision, mission and set of values), *Inspirational Motivation* (to articulate an inspiring vision to followers by communicating optimism about future goals, and providing meaning for the tasks of followers), *Intellectual Stimulation* (encouraging followers to be innovative and creative, and not criticizing them publicly for the effectiveness of their proposals) and *Individualized Consideration* (attending to followers' needs, acting as a mentor for them, and listening their concerns within open communication and empathy to appreciate individual contributions of each follower into team and to form intrinsic motivation for their tasks) (Akbaba-Altun, 2003; Balyer & Özcan, 2012; Bass & Bass, 2008; Demir, 2008; Northouse, 2007).

As a result, different leadership styles, which indicate varied aspects like leaders' visions, communication between leaders and followers, participation of followers in decision-making and providing independence to followers for making their own ways related to works, were developed by several researchers. These leadership styles affect the management techniques used by leaders to build teams, to benefit from formal and informal groups, to

resolve the problems, to practice on followers' innovative ideas and to create reward systems as motivation instruments. Besides these leadership styles, many theories have been developed about recent leadership types which emphasize mostly several specific aspects of leadership and organizational features.

Table 5.

*Leadership Factors**

Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Laissez-Faire Leadership
<p>Factor 1 Idealized Influence Charisma</p> <p>Factor 2 Inspirational Motivation</p> <p>Factor 3 Intellectual Stimulation</p> <p>Factor 4 Individualized Consideration</p>	<p>Factor 5 Contingent Reward Constructive Transactions</p> <p>Factor 6 Management-by-Exception Active and Passive Corrective Transactions</p>	<p>Factor 7 Laissez-Faire Nontransactional</p>

* Retrieved from Northouse, 2007, p. 181

Leadership types. Recent organizational structures, formed in different ways due to changing conditions day by day, has brought with them new leadership approaches. These approaches generally accent 'innovation, neologism, future objectives, norms and values, team-oriented works, sharing power and responsibilities, and personal, professional and spiritual development'. The most prominent leadership types are *Visionary, Cultural, Spiritual, Ethical, Servant, Learning, Team and Distributed Leadership* (Bolden et al., 2003; Cemaloğlu, 2013; Çelik, 2013; Northouse, 2007; Sağır, 2013).

Visionary leadership. In organizations, vision is the picture of imagined future and leaders should ensure the participation of employees in forming this picture for redounding them new horizons of futurity. Visionary leadership, hence, is based on the creation of vision

that affects employees to act collectively and the dissemination of the vision by using communication, and visionary leadership, shortly, is to see a route, to walk on the route and to open ways on the route for others. To create and spread a vision, leaders must have some features and attributes such as forming communication networks, guiding employees, team work with others, cultural development, participation willingness, self-respect, persistence, ambition and consistency. Besides, they should use their cognitive skills to form a vision, to develop organizational philosophy based on the vision, and to clarify and share the vision. Consequently, some competency areas are specified for visionary leadership: *Visionary Thinking* (producing innovative ideas to solve problems, creating new opportunities and interpreting changes in organizational environment), *Using Resources* (forming new physical and financial resources, benefiting innovative ideas of employees, collaborating with others and helping employees' personal-professional skills), *Communication* (using verbal and non-verbal languages effectively, impressive and persuasive speaking, empathic listening and sensitiveness on emotions), *Being Action-Oriented* (leading to realizing and understanding changes in organizations, reacting towards the changes quickly, expanding borders to answer the changes and taking responsibilities for potential failures), *Taking Risks* (avoiding the fear of goofs, risking in uncertainty and willing to take advantages from potential opportunities), *Making Decisions* (defining and analyzing a problem, generating alternative solutions, deciding the probable best solution, applying the solution and assessing results) and *Motivating* (promoting the high level creativity in employees' works, supporting them to actualize new ideas and emphasizing potential rewards) (Aksu, 2009; Bencivenga & Elias, 2003; Manning & Robertson, 2002; Özden, 2005; Sabancı, 2007).

Cultural leadership. Culture is the body of elements related to 'how people think, feel, act, wish, evaluate themselves, comment their essence, and compose their values, ideals and claims'. Likewise, culture in an organization is composed of 'interactions, behavioral

patterns, stories, myths, traditions, rituals, customs, beliefs and values in the organization' besides the history of the organization. Organizational culture provides a general perspective for members of the organization to understand and evaluate the organizational structures and operations, so 'changing this perspective to bring new meanings to cultural elements for members' is a key idea in cultural leadership. Therefore, cultural leadership can be defined as 'detecting and solving the problems related to internal integration and external adaptation of groups, combining organizational culture with the culture of bigger systems, giving messages clearly, understanding important assumptions and presenting values vigorously and plainly'. In this regard, three main roles are mentioned for cultural leaders: *Interpreter* (construing duties, norms and values in an organization), *Presenter* (identifying details of behaviors and representing cultural elements with his/her behaviors in front of groups) and *Official* (organizing traditional ceremonies and public activities for spreading cultural elements) roles (Aksu, Şahin-Fırat & Şahin, 2003; Hallinger, 2004; Karaköse, 2008; Northouse, 2007; Sağır, 2013).

Spiritual leadership. Body, intelligence, heart and spirit together form the kernel of human existence. Spirit is an intangible power which enlivens and keeps a person and other people alive at the same time. In this respect, spiritual leadership is to engraft the presence philosophy to people, to redound mission and belonging to them, and to contribute the salvation of people by combining values, attitudes and behaviors for motivating themselves. Thus, a spiritual leader is the person who creates a culture allowing employees to live their mission and purpose, and calling and purport feelings in organizational settings, so making himself/herself and employees feel worthwhile in this work environment. To this end, the spiritual leader should carry out some behaviors in different dimensions: *Commitment* (forming unity by leader and employees, harmonizing of leader and employees in their environment, and feeling interest, attention and appreciation mutually by leader and

employees), *Vision* (acting by leader to indicate his/her future ideals, and displaying behaviors towards employees for their interpretation of the future image directly and indirectly in an organization), *Efficiency* (creating an effective system to get positive results, benefits and profit according to organizational goals), *Belonging* (demonstrating behaviors, indicating employees' contributions are understood and appreciated by a leader, to strength their belonging feelings) and *Belief* (generating credibility to employees to accomplish their tasks with endurance and persistence besides individual achievement) (Baloğlu & Karadağ, 2009; Benefiel, 2005; Cemaloğlu, 2013; Fry, 2003; Karadağ, 2009).

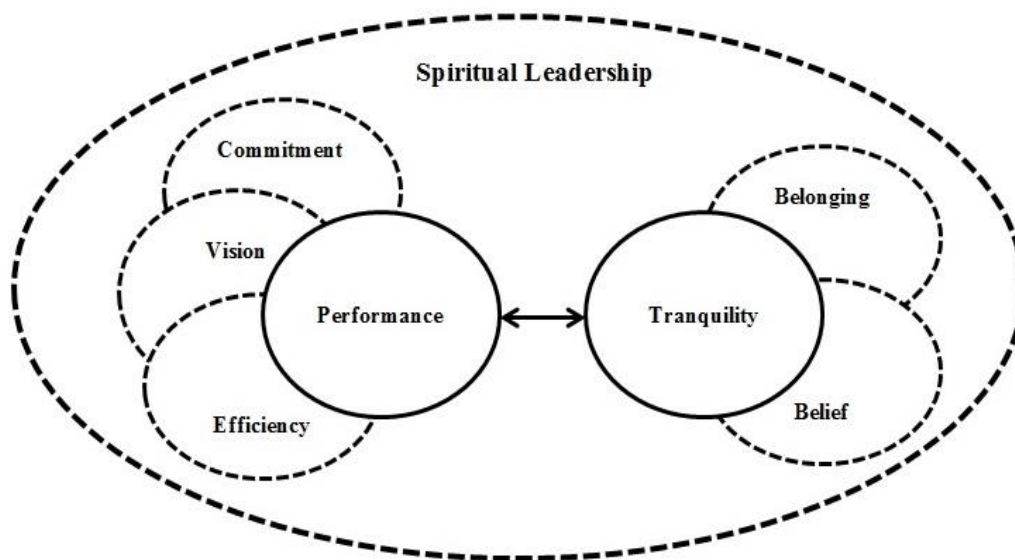


Figure 14. The model of spiritual leadership (Karadağ, 2009, p. 1363)

Ethical leadership. Ethic is a set of values, norms, rules, morally interpretation ways of right-wrong and good-bad which are the basis of people's individual and social relations. Ethical leadership, accordingly, is to concretize organizational vision, aims and merits in an ethical perspective, and to constitute the norms and values which are expected to be embraced and protected by everybody in an organization. Likewise, ethical leader should exert a powerful influence on employees by means of his/her moral perspectives, fairness, honesty,

trustworthiness, etc., and steer employees' ethical consideration towards their behaviors and works. Therefore, "ethical leaders stress ethical values both in their personal and professional lives, encourage fair behavior in the workplace, and serve as role models for their followers in the organization" (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2014, p. 56). In this regard, ethical leadership are adverted with four different types of ethical skills: *Communicational* (setting effective communication networks between leader and employees to spread ethical issues by open, mutual and multi-way communication structures), *Climatic* (facilitating employees to be involved into all organizational processes, supporting their creative and innovative ideas, disseminating opinions by considering different viewpoints), *Behavioral* (displaying honest and fair behaviors, accepting and acting to everyone as equal, respecting to others' ideas, committing to the profession, and taking responsibility) and *Decisional* (recognizing right and wrong for the organizational community, making right decisions morally, and behaving ethically in decision-making processes) (Cemaloğlu & Kılınç, 2012; Cranston et al., 2012; Northouse, 2007; Uğurlu & Üstüner, 2011).

Servant leadership. Servant leadership emphasizes primarily employees' desires and demands before leader's ones, and the prioritization of their development individually. Servant leadership behaviors cover 'valuing people, developing them, forming teams, leading with fairness, and sharing leadership'. In this leadership, 'serving others', 'giving more than gaining' and 'concerning others' requirements rather than his/her needs' are expected from leaders. A servant leader, hence, is defined as 'the person who serves and leads fondly to employees, acts within humbleness, considers others, creates a vision for employees, and facilitates employees' works and duties' (Bolden et al., 2003; Buluç, 2013; Cerit, 2008; Crippen, 2004). Therefore, the key characteristics of servant leaders are '*Foreseeing* by perusing today's conditions and pervious events', '*Listening* employees sincerely by establishing open and mutual communication', '*Taking Responsibilities on Others*'

Development by forming practices for employees' personal, professional and spiritual improvements', '*Conceptualizing* by detecting problems within their all details', '*Persuading* by compromising with everybody instead of using authoritarian behaviors', '*Discerning* by recognizing his/her and employees' weaknesses', '*Managing* by channeling all resources to employees', '*Establishing Communities* by facilitating communication among employees', '*Remedying* by preventing conflicts and caring for offended employees' and '*Embracing with Empathy* by comprehending employees' feelings in existing conditions' (Kahveci & Aypay, 2012).

Learning leader(ship). Learning organization refers to making inferences continuously from incidents by an organization, using them in a system contributing to employees' developments and adaptation to the environment, and having a dynamic organization which changes, develops and renews itself consistently (Senge et al., 2014). In this type of organization, "a leader's role is facilitating learning in others so that they develop as professionals and peers, assume more collective responsibility for work, group decision making, decision making, norms, and dialogue" (Amey, 2005, p. 701). Hence, the most distinctive characteristics of this leader are 'being open to learning' and 'facilitating learning as a team'. Also, the learning leader as an individual has to develop himself/herself continually, and he/she has to act collectively to achieve the team learning of employees (Çelik, 2013; Özdemir, Karadağ & Kılınç, 2013; Sağır, 2013). To achieve this goal, learning leader should follow three stages (see in Table 6) as 1. active leader in defining vision and tasks – passive employees, 2. active leader in fostering the cognitive development of employees – active employees in increasing involvement into decision-making processes, and 3. proactive leader in facilitating learning as a team – proactive employees in involving to co-create knowledge in teams (Amey, 2005).

Table 6.

*Leadership as Learning Developmental Model**

	Stage One	Stage Two	Stage Three
Leadership Orientation	Top-down	Facilitative, inclusive	Web-like, servant
Characteristics	Bureaucratic, single leader, conflict negotiator, primary communicator	Moving towards increasing participation, early sharing of leadership responsibilities, flattening the hierarchy	Guide, facilitator of processes, translator
Leadership focus	Task accomplishment	Task accomplishment, establishing learning environment, fostering shared goals	Relationship oriented, serving on-going cultivation of learning environment
Leadership as learning	Defines mission, vision, tasks, direction	Fostering intellectual neutral space to develop cognitive readiness of group members; multiperspective	Cocreating meaning, facilitating learning, skilled convener, interdisciplinary in thought
Group member orientation	Individual task accomplishment	Sense of group goals and parallel work orientation	Self-governing, intellectually connected, interdependent
Members as learners	Leader-focused	Increased involvement in and ownership of processes and decision making, making meaning for self	Cocreating meaning for self and others, sharing and collective leadership responsibilities and group maintenance

* Retrieved from Amey, 2005, p. 696

Team leadership. While ‘team’ refers to a unity formed by two or more people who connect each other to accomplish their common aims, team work is described as a set of activities that cover commitment, communication and effective conflict management techniques. In this context, team leadership can be defined as ‘organizing communication, coordination, motivation and interaction, preventing and managing conflicts, and determining the sharing of norms and forming a common vision in a team’ (Day, Gronn & Salas, 2006). Team leaders might show different leadership styles in teams like *Directive* (determining the roles of team members, directing and overseeing the team, and communicating intensively with members), *Supportive* (clarifying his/her decisions for a team, directing the team and supporting team members, and interacting with the team in high level), *Coaching* (making decisions with team members, providing the detection of the strengths and weakness in the

team, and helping to make self-review by the team) or *Delegative* (pointing out targets for team members, encouraging members to make their own decisions, creating space for members to act freely) (Çankaya & Karakuş, 2010; Çelik, 2013).

One of the most comprehensive models which summarize leadership behaviors in a team was developed by *Susan E. Kogler Hill* (see Figure 15). According to this model, the team leader, before starting actions, should decide the answers for several important questions (Rowe & Guerrero, 2013);

- Should I continue monitoring or take action now?
- Should I intervene to take care of relational and/or task needs?
- Should I intervene within the team or external to the team?'

Besides the team leader's actions based on these questions, there are some factors which influence team effectiveness like *Clear and Elevating Goal, Results-Driven Structure, Competent Team Members, Unified Commitment, Collaborative Climate, Standards of Excellence, External Support* and *Principled Leadership* (Northouse, 2007).

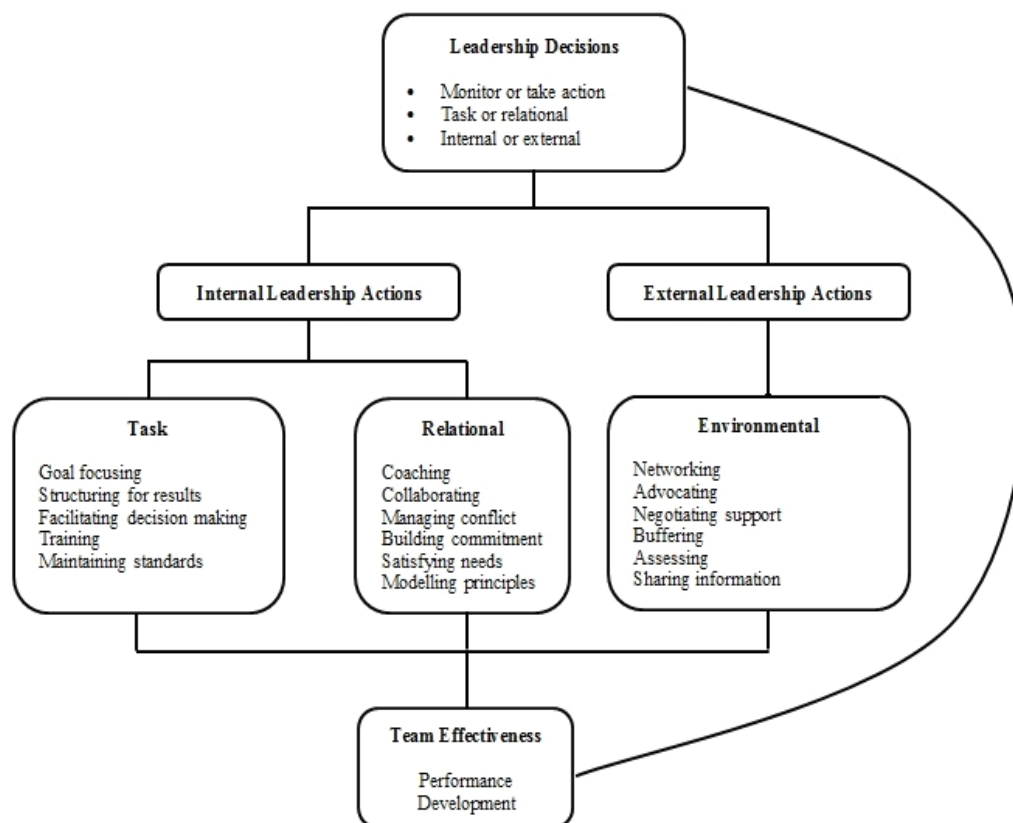


Figure 15. Hill's model for team leadership (Northouse, 2007, p. 210)

Distributed leadership. Besides competition culture, modern organizational approaches underline the internal and external liabilities of members of an organization, trust in each other by the members, and working together with different people sometimes as a leader and sometimes as followers (Baloğlu, 2011). Leadership, according to these approaches, has ceased to be performed by one person as a heroic leader who can create wonders and miracles, and evolved the performance of joint activities by all members (Özer & Beycioğlu, 2013; Spillane & Orlina, 2005). Moreover, *Cecil A. Gibb* defined four different leadership types, in 'Leadership' chapter in 'Handbook of Social Psychology' edited by *Gardner Lindzey*, as autocratic, paternalistic, individual and participative, and she, within the participative leadership, stated that no one in the organization can have all qualities for complete leadership and varied skills of all members are very important, so leadership should be shared among members (as cited in Korkmaz & Gündüz, 2011, p 127-128). Many researchers (Gronn 2002, 2008; H. Gunter, 2003; Harris, 2008, 2009; Spillane, 2006; Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2004; Woods & Gronn, 2009) used this idea, and formed the theory of distributed leadership which states that 'leadership should be performed by a group of people together instead of one person, so that, to contribute the summation of leadership by all members and to accomplish the collective leadership activities, leadership can be shared by some members of the group, several of them can be assigned for some specific parts of leadership or particular leadership functions can be carried out by different members at different times'.

Additionally, educational institutions are open social systems, which are more sensitive to the human dimension than the organizational dimension, have a more complex informal side than a formal one and wider impact domain than authorization area, thus, distributed leadership has been accepted as a much more suitable leadership approach for schools by many researchers (Elmore, 2000; Flessa, 2009; Harris, 2005; Leithwood et al.,

2007; Korkmaz & Gündüz, 2011; Özer & Beycioğlu, 2013; Spillane & Healey, 2010; Woods & Gronn, 2009). Distributed leadership is accepted as common capacities and capitals in schools which can be formed by expertise, knowledge and contributions of members in schools as a result of their relation networks, and directs and guides the educationist members in the process of organizational development (Baloğlu, 2011; Bush & Glover, 2012; Cemaloğlu, 2013; Elmore, 2000; Kılınç, Büyüköztürk & Akbaba-Altun, 2014). Therefore, to develop schools collectively by means of the participation of all members into leadership, formal leaders in schools should take into account the demands, ideas and emotions of stakeholders and embrace a much more collaborative and democratic leadership style (Bostancı, 2013; Çelik, 2013; Gronn & Hamilton, 2004; Mascal, Leithwood, Straus & Sacks, 2008; Spillane, Diamond & Jita, 2003). In this regard, leadership in schools expands to include resources, qualifications, expertise and knowledge of teachers, students, parents and non-educator personnel besides formal leaders; teachers' leadership especially with their professional and intellectual skills becomes an essential contribution to the quality of education (Beycioğlu & Aslan, 2010, 2012; Can, 2006, 2014; Evers & Lakomski, 2013; H. M. Gunter, 2003; Harris, 2003; Leithwood, 2003; Ngang, Abdulla & Mey, 2010; Stevenson, 2012).

Similarly, distributed leadership in higher education context is based on three main premises: 'leadership is a joint product of members in organizations and shaped by their interactions', 'leadership does not have precise boundaries and extends beyond institutions' and 'varieties of expertise, knowledge and skills which form leadership capacities in organizations are provided by most of the stakeholders' (Bolden, Petrov & Gosling, 2009). Therefore, distributed leadership can become a dynamic, flexible, relational, cooperative and holistic structure thanks to the contribution of governmental representatives, formal leaders, academics, administrative and technical staff as well as students, parents and surrounding

community, and produce better teaching and learning for students, advanced development opportunities for academic and non-academic staff, gratifying responsiveness to research agencies, greater transparency on financial issues, encouraging incentives for innovative ideas and organizational entrepreneurship, high quality open communications between personnel, and sharing power, responsibilities and managerial duties (Bolden et al., 2009; Gosling, Bolden & Petrov, 2009; Stefani, 2008). Furthermore, in their project-based study within Australian universities, Jones, Harvey, Leofe and Ryland (2014, p. 611) defined dimensions and elements of distributed leadership as “*Context* (from power to influence), *Culture* (from control to autonomy), *Change* (from top-down to interdependent, multi-level and bottom-up), *Relationships* (from individual to collective identity) and *Activity* (Shared purpose through cycles of change)” besides inputs which are required to attain distributed leadership as “encouraging involvement, creating process, developing shared leadership, generating resources and collaborative opportunities and supporting engagement”. Also, four main criteria and sub-criteria in the intersecting areas with dimension and values are indicated to enable distributed leadership (see in Table 7) (Jones et al., 2014). Many of these criteria emphasize the collaborative leadership activities of individuals based on their experiences, knowledge and skills to contribute to leadership capacity in universities, herewith, particularly the leadership of academics intellectually with their expertise becomes much more valuable to satisfy the expectations and demands of internal and external stakeholders by higher education institutions (Bolden et al., 2014; Macfarlane, 2014).

Table 7.

*Action Self-Enabling Reflective Tool for Distributed Leadership**

Criteria for distributed leadership	Dimensions and values to enable development of distributed leadership			
	Context. Trust	Culture. Respect	Change. Recognition	Relationships. Collaboration
People are involved	Expertise of individuals is used to inform decisions	Individuals participate in decision making	All levels and functions have input into policy development	Expertise of individuals contributes to collective decision making
Processes are supportive	Informal leadership is recognised	Decentralised groups engage in decision making	All levels and functions have input into policy implementation	Communities of practice are modelled
Professional development is provided	Distributed leadership is used to build leadership capacity	Mentoring for distributed leadership is provided	Leaders at all levels proactively encourage distributed leadership	Collaboration is facilitated
Resources are available	Space, time and finance for collaboration are available	Leadership contribution is recognised and rewarded	Flexibility is built into infrastructure and systems	Opportunities for regular networking are provided

* Retrieved from Jones et al. 2014, p. 613

Academic intellectual leadership. ‘Intellect’ as the root of some words mean ‘the faculty (mental ability) of reasoning and understanding objectively, especially with regard to abstract matters’, ‘a person’s mental powers’ or ‘a clever person’ (www.oxforddictionaries.com). Besides, examples for Latin word group covering ‘intellect’ are *Intellectualis*; spiritual, *Intellectus*; apperception, *Intellegentia*; mind, notion and knowledge, *Intellegere*; awareness, recognition and comprehension (H. Yılmaz, 2007, p. 4), whilst *Intellectual* indicates a wise and critical person who carry out the ideational and mental activities to lead social development and community welfare by his/her ability to use ideas and knowledge from his/her own field and to influence debates from inside and outside the field (Akdemir, n.d.; Bourdieu, 1989; Davis, 2001; Koç, 2006; Macfarlane, 2012; H. Yılmaz, 2007). In ancient times, philosophers had been mostly accepted as intellectuals who produced knowledge, developed thinking ways, trained students and enlightened public (Conroy, 2000;

H. Yılmaz, 2007). After major religions arose, the clergy, especially Christian priests, became influential as intellectuals who educated children and guided people according to religion-based approaches (Conroy, 2000; Davis, 2001; H. Yılmaz, 2007). Many madrasahs as pioneer higher education institutions were then established by former Islamic civilizations during 10th century such as Daru'l-Hikme (1004) by Abbasids and Nizamiye Madrasah (1067) by Great Seljuks, and education in these institutions provided by the teachers called Müderris, equally professor in modern days (Günay, 2014; H. Yılmaz, 2007). After the impact of madrasahs on western culture, Bologna University as the oldest university in the world was established in 1088, and then other medieval universities like Oxford, Modena, Paris Sorbonne and Cambridge were established (Makdisi, 1981). After the establishment of these universities, scientists, artists and other intellectuals found opportunities to continue their studies in universities and to use academic products for raising people's awareness and educating new generations, so they effectuated the core of academia which, according to some associations (see Figure 16), is a suitable area for many intellectuals (Altbach, 2011; Conroy, 2000; Macfarlane, 2012; H. Yılmaz, 2007).

During the age of enlightenment, academics, as being knowledge producers in universities, continued to use scientific knowledge to inform people about the universe, the world, art, education, economics, etc. despite heavy pressures from religious institutions (Conroy, 2000; H. Yılmaz, 2007). Besides producing new knowledge, academics as public intellectuals have used their scholarly products frequently to contribute to many social and economic events like human rights, children's well-being, educational policies, equality issues, racism, climate change, food quality, standardization of ICT, higher education finance, microcredits, worker rights, etc. since early 1900s (Chapman & Austin, 2002; Hartley & Harkavy, 2011; Macfarlane, 2012; Roberts, 2007; Sandmann et al., 2009; H. Yılmaz, 2007). Furthermore, contemporary changes in the higher education area such as mass education,

globalization, international students, privatization, managerialism, technological advancement, corporatization and entrepreneurialism (Amey & Brown, 2004; Austin, 2007; Austin, Sorcinelli & McDaniels, 2007; Aypay, 2015; Coates, Dobson, Goedegebuure & Meek, 2014; Çetinsaya, 2014; Erkan, 2011; Gizir, 2014; Gunter, 2012; Ka-Ho Mok & Welch, 2002; Kurul-Tural, 2004; Macfarlane, 2007a, 2012; Metcalfe, 2008; Sa', 2007; Scott et al., 2008; Teichler, 2011; Teichler et al., 2013; Welch, 2007; 2011) have given rise to new standards for the professoriate.

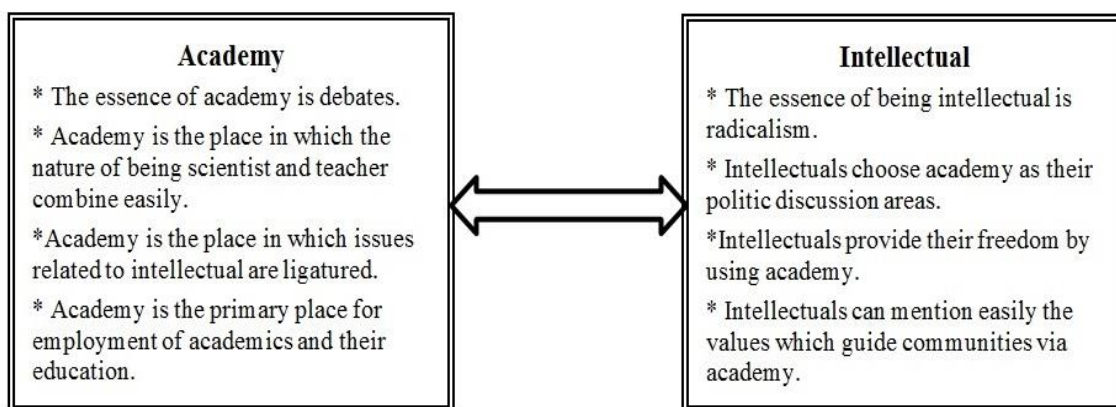


Figure 16. Interactions between academy and intellectuals (H. Yılmaz, 2007, p. 28)

In National Conference of University Professors (UK-Based NCUP, 1991, as cited in Macfarlane, 2012, pp. 52-53), for example, some standards were propounded, and then many of them have been used into appointment of different professor types (see in Table 8). These standards of professoriate are briefly described below.

- *Established chairs*: be of high academic distinction and provide leadership of the subject.
- *Personal chairs*: be scholars of international, or at least national, distinction and remain committed to promoting research within their university department.
- *Academic standing*: be an outstanding authority in their field and enhance the reputation of their institution.

- *Research and scholarship*: maintain individual scholarship and research, encouraging colleagues to engage in original work. Undertake scholarly activities outside the university (e.g. examining external theses, acting as an editor or referee for research journals, reviewing research grant proposals, organization of research conferences, holding office in learned societies).
- *Teaching*: high-quality teaching practice at both undergraduate and postgraduate level.
- *Acquisition of resources*: generating resources to underpin scholarly and research activity such as assistantships, fellowships, library support, computing facilities, physical space and consumables through successful application for funding internally and externally.
- *Powers of communication*: ability to express and defend their views cogently in spoken and written communication.
- *Services to the wider university community*: service within the university (e.g. via committees, review groups, working parties, and Senate or equivalent).
- *Services outside the university*: contributions to society beyond the provision of teaching and research, including service on local and national boards, consultancy work for public bodies, and availability to make specialist comment in the media.

Table 8.

*The Unbundled Professor**

Types of Professoriate	
Classic Professor	The ‘all-round’ professor who teaches, researches and performs significant institutional leadership often in the form of a permanent or rotating head of department. A model in decline.
Research Professor	A successful researcher with a significant publication and/or track record in acquiring funding. Some teaching and service responsibilities but not seen as core to role. Fast becoming the default model.
Star Professor	A leading research professor often headhunted by ambitious or world-leading institutions seeking to enhance or maintain reputation and status. Will normally expect to have little teaching and institutional service responsibility.
Practice Professor	Mainly associated with professors in practice fields (e.g. medicine, dentistry, architecture, business, journalism) where role includes significant teaching in applied settings.
Managerial Professor	Senior academic leader such as dean of faculty or university-wide leader (e.g. president/vice chancellor, vice president/ pro vice chancellor). Unlikely still to be research active or teaching but retaining professorial title.

* Retrieved from Macfarlane, 2012, p. 74

Additionally, contemporary changes in higher education have brought new duties and responsibilities for academics in ‘generating alternative resources, becoming more cosmopolitan, creating new networks with government and industry, expanding their research and teaching agendas with interdisciplinary activities, representing their disciplines and institutions internally and externally’, besides knowledge producer and public intellectual as their traditional roles (Altbach, 2003; Austin, 2002a; Bolden et al., 2014; Coates, Goedegebuure, van Der Lee & Meek, 2008; Cummings & Finkelstein, 2012; Erçetin, 2001; Evans, 2014; Evans et al., 2013; Geiger, 2008; Kezar & Sam, 2013; Lattuca, 2001; Locke, 2008; Macfarlane, 2007b, 2012; Neumann, 2006; O’Meara, 2005; Rayner, Fuller, McEwen & Roberts, 2010; Sandmann, Kliewer, Kim & Omerikwa, 2010; Teichler et al., 2013; H. Yılmaz, 2007). In 1990, after the Carnegie Report, *Ernest L. Boyer* compiled academics’ roles into four domains as *Teaching, Discovery, Integration* and *Application* (Austin & McDaniels, 2006a; Aypay, 2001, 2006; O’Meara, 2005; Park & Braxton, 2013; Rayner et al, 2010; H. Yılmaz, 2007). *Scholarship of Teaching* indicates the development of pedagogical practices and knowledge, and transmission and transformation of these teaching experiences for improving others’ characters and abilities. *Scholarship of Discovery* is exploring new knowledge, theories, principles, critiques, and spreading these creations in scholarly platforms. *Scholarship of Integration* is based on making new connections between different fields by producing interdisciplinary knowledge, and bringing new comprehensions into other fields besides their own field. *Scholarship of Application* involves benefiting from the disciplinary knowledge to solve significant individual, institutional, and societal problems, and using expertise power for development and change of community.

Moreover, Austin and McDaniels (2006b) expressed some academic qualifications to fulfil these roles in 21st century; *Conceptual Understandings, Knowledge and Skills in Areas of Faculty Work, Interpersonal Skills* and *Professional Attitudes and Habits* (pp. 418-431).

Conceptual Understandings states ‘the understanding and appreciation of the purposes and history of higher education’, ‘the understanding of the types of higher education institutions and their missions’, ‘knowledge of the discipline’ and ‘the understanding of one's professional identity as a professor and scholar’. *Knowledge and Skills in Areas of Faculty Work* emphasizes ‘the understanding of teaching and learning processes’, ‘the understanding of research processes’, ‘the understanding of engagement and service’ and ‘appreciation of institutional citizenship’. *Interpersonal Skills* covers ‘communication skills’, ‘teamwork and collaboration skills’ and ‘appreciation of diversity’. *Professional Attitudes and Habits* indicates ‘ethics and integrity’, ‘motivation for lifelong learning’, ‘cultivating professional networks’ and ‘nurturing one's passion while maintaining balance in life’.

Furthermore, Macfarlane (2011; 2012), in his research project carried out UK-wide by interviews with full-professors, online questionnaire and analyzing obituaries about senior academics (Macfarlane & Chan, 2014), identified the behaviors, actions and activities expected to be performed by academics as *Intellectual Leadership* (see Figure 17), which covers most of these standards, roles and qualifications mentioned above. Also, Macfarlane (2012) emphasizes that *Academic Freedom* (being a critic and an advocate) and *Duties of Professorial Leadership* (mentor, guardian, enabler and ambassador) are two sides of the same coin, and they are the roots of *Academic Intellectual Leadership*. In this aspect, *Academic Intellectual Leadership* is composed of academics’ behaviors such as being a role model and mentor for less experienced colleagues, protecting standards of their scientific fields and representing their institutions, and activities like producing knowledge, expanding their disciplines, transferring their expertise to the public and influencing social debates (Akdemir, n.d.; Davis, 2001; Macfarlane, 2011, 2012; H. Yılmaz, 2007). Hence, for *Academic Intellectual Leadership*, Macfarlane (2011) stated six dimensions: *Role Model*, *Mentor*, *Advocate*, *Guardian*, *Acquistor* and *Ambassador*.

		Focus of academic freedom	
		Limited	Extended
Exercise of academic duty	Society	Academic citizen	Public intellectual
	Discipline	Knowledge producer	Boundary transgressor

Figure 17. A model of intellectual leadership (Macfarlane, 2012, p. 110)

Role model. covers some personal characteristics (*Popular, Served, Good, Commitment, Involved, Committed, Helping, Patient, Responsible*) and virtues (*Energetic/Industrious, Strategic Thinker, Creative, Innovative, Decisiveness, True Fighter, Honest, Humorous, Co-Operative, Witty, Charming, Modest*), and scholarly attributes (*Authority, Develop/Developed, Scientific, Expert, Effective, Global, Scholar, Pioneering, Influential, Intellectual, Impact, Recognized, Respected*) which have several associations with other dimensions (Macfarlane & Chan, 2014, pp. 6-9). However, this dimension emphasizes primarily scholarly achievements and building a reputation based on research productivity and their impacts on disciplinary contexts (Macfarlane, 2007b; 2011; 2012). Besides effective publications with intellectually provoking ideas, according to one of the interviewee professors in Macfarlane's study (2012, p. 92), "academic and administrative expertise; fund raising and mentoring young staff; facilitating research of older staff; establishing national and international collaborations and obtaining funding for this; providing earned income for the university" are among *Role Model* behaviors of academics. Also, 'challenging to create a

transformation on others' understandings towards the discipline and broadly society', 'influencing others with personal virtues and leading them for success', 'committing the service to contribute the development of students, colleagues, research fields, higher education institutions and society' and 'coping difficulties in academic and personal life like economical, racial, sexual, religious or ideological obstacles' are in *Role Model's* scope (Koç, 2006; Macfarlane, 2012; Macfarlane & Chan, 2014; Neumann, 2011). As a result, to be a good *Role Model* with their personal and scholarly qualifications, academics should be *Inspirational Teachers* with their innovative teaching-learning initiatives, *Respected Researchers* nationally and internationally thanks to their influential scholarly products, *Capable Managers* for their disciplines and institutions, *Public Servants* to contribute social welfare with their expertise and *Daring Crusaders* for overcoming all types of difficulties in their professional life (Austin & McDaniels, 2006a; 2006b; Bryman, 2007; Celep & Konaklı, 2013; Cretchley et al., 2014; Erdem, 2012a; Evans et al., 2013; Genç, 2007; Günbayı, Kasalak & Özçetin, 2013; Kezar, Lester, Carducci, Bertram-Gallant & Contreras-McGavin, 2007; Macfarlane, 2011; 2012; Macfarlane & Chan, 2014; O'Meara & Campbell, 2011; O'Meara, Knudsen & Jones, 2013; Özdemir, Ünsal, Yüksel & Cemaloğlu, 2010; Sezgin, 2003; Sezgin, Kavgacı & Kılınç, 2011; Tonbul, 2014).

Mentor. indicates contributing to the development of less experienced colleagues by guiding and facilitating their scholarly activities, and nurturing their potential by collaborative studies (Austin et al., 2007; Evans et al., 2013; Kezar & Lester, 2009; Macfarlane, 2007a; 2007b; 2011; 2012; Neumann, 2005). According to Macfarlane (2012, p. 93), "good mentorship involves helping people realize their own potential and putting their personal interests above those of the organization they are currently working for". On the other side, 'supervising or advising postgraduate students formally and informally by considering them as next generation in academia' and 'preserving them from internal and external oppressions

in academic institutions' are the main parts in mentoring activities of senior academics (Austin & McDaniels, 2006b; Erdem, 2012b; Macfarlane, 2007a; 2012; Macfarlane & Chan, 2014; Maher, Crotwell-Timmerman, Feldon & Strickland, 2013; O'Meara et al., 2013; Seçkin, Apaydin & Aypay, 2012; Seçkin, Aypay & Apaydin, 2014; Sezgin, 2003; H. Yılmaz, 2007). Therefore, to gain experiences of to become independent intellectuals, less experienced colleagues as well as postgraduate students should be mentored by 'advising on fund applications for their projects and researches', 'encouraging them if they have been refused publication or research proposals', 'composing research articles with co-authorship', 'giving feedback about their scholarly products and teaching-learning practices', 'taking responsibilities in fellowship activities', 'spearheading to establish their connection with pioneer academics in their disciplines', 'discussing their intellectual ideas', 'leading the formation of research teams with their participation', 'creating co-advisor opportunities for interactions between students and junior colleagues in postgraduate studies' and 'guiding them to form their long term career plans' (Åkerlind, 2005; Austin, 2002b; Barrow & Grant, 2012; Evans, 2014; Grant & Barrow, 2013; Hubball & Clarke, 2011; Kezar et al., 2007; Macfarlane, 2011; 2012). At the end, the achievement in mentorship comes "when [...] the mentee is no longer intellectually dependent on the mentor and finds their own voice [...] mentor has succeeded when mentee no longer needs their support and guidance" (Macfarlane, 2012, p. 94).

Advocate. Macfarlane (2012, p. 86) states that "the professor as advocate might seek to promote understanding and acceptance of alternative theoretical paradigm in their discipline [...] the professor as advocate might be more of a public activist campaigning for changes in public policy". *Advocate*, thus, means to develop a vision or alternative ways for changing the existing conditions in an academia and to serve community by using disciplinary knowledge, ideas, theories, models and arguments (Macfarlane, 2007b; 2012; Macfarlane & Chan, 2014;

Neumann, 2011; Welch, 2005a). In this regard, being *Advocate* designates two aspects, ‘emphasizing the importance of a discipline and contributing its value by benefiting from disciplinary expertise in an institutional services’ and ‘applying theoretical information and practical experiences based on their scholarly activities into the solution of social problems’ (Åkerlind, 2008; Austin et al., 2007; Austin & McDaniels, 2006b; Bolden et al., 2014; Bornholt, Poole & Hattie, 2005; Macfarlane, 2011; 2012; O’Meara, 2002; 2005). Academics, in the first aspect, can explain main ideas related to their subjects, promote key points of their scholarly products, discuss topics of their expertise in disciplinary and interdisciplinary context, and lobbying inside and outside of their institutions on behalf of their field (Kezar et al., 2007; Macfarlane, 2011; 2012; Sandmann, Saltmarsh & O’Meara, 2008). In the other aspect, academics as *Advocate* should influence public debates by transferring their knowledge, ideas and suggestions to people via local, national and even international publications, radio and television programs or internet broadcast facilities , and participate in social campaigns related to their scholarly interests by adapting theoretical understandings of their disciplines to eliminate conflicts in communities (Akdemir, n.d.; Altbach, 2011; Amey, Brown & Sandmann, 2002; Arcagök & Şahin, 2013; Austin & McDaniels, 2006a; Aypay, 2001; Erçetin, 2001; Koç, 2006; Neumann, 2006; Macfarlane, 2005; 2007a; 2011; 2012; O’Meara, 2008; O’Meara, Sandmann, Saltmarsh & Giles Jr., 2011; Park & Braxton, 2013; Rayner et al., 2010; Roberts, 2007; Sandmann et al., 2009; 2010; Weerts & Sandmann, 2010; Welch, 2005a; H. Yılmaz, 2007).

Guardian (Steward). Being a *Guardian* means to keep up academic values and standards in scholarly platforms and to contribute to the development of scientific fields in new directions by unprejudiced peer review activities (Åkerlind, 2005; Altbach, 2005; Aydın, 2003; Kligyte & Barrie, 2014; Macfarlane, 2007b; 2012). Academics carry out their *Guardian* roles mostly with ‘gatekeeping duties such as editing or peer-reviewing in books and journals,

assessing research grant proposals as panelist and chairing sessions in academic events’ and *pro bono* activities like ‘examining doctoral candidates in the dissertation period, reviewing colleagues’ studies, taking responsibilities in disciplinary committees and contributing to the university-wide research assessment commissions’ (Altbach, 2005; Austin & McDaniels, 2006a; 2006b; Aypay, 2001; Bolden et al., 2014; Celep & Konaklı, 2013; Erdem, 2012b; Günbayı et al., 2013; Macfarlane, 2007b; 2011; 2012; Macfarlane & Chan, 2014; O’Meara, 2005; Park & Braxton, 2013; H. Yılmaz, 2007). As a natural process, when academics become more experienced and well-known in their field, their guardianship roles start to increase with new roles in different editorial boards, scientific committees and research councils besides their promoting academic titles (Aypay, 2001; Macfarlane, 2011; 2012; Ponjuan, Martin-Conley & Trower, 2011; O’Meara, 2004; Roberts, 2007; Tonbul, 2008). Moreover, one of the important parts for guardianship is to ensure that a set of academic values, norms and standards are gained by doctoral candidates and junior academics as potential faculty (Altbach, 2006; 2013; Austin et al., 2007; Austin & McDaniels, 2006a; Erdem, 2012b; Evans, 2012; Macfarlane, 2011; 2012; Macfarlane, Zhang & Pun, 2014; O’Meara et al., 2013; Sezgin, 2003). As a result, “this element of guardianship is about ensuring continuity and the survival of disciplinary specialisms in an increasingly competitive world of epistemological fragmentation” (Macfarlane, 2012, p. 95).

Acquistor (Enabler). implies that senior academics have to acquire ‘research grants, R&D (*Research and Development*) contracts, patents and copyrights, alternative resources and other commercial opportunities’ as an indispensable part of the reality of corporatized business-oriented contemporary universities (Altbach, 2003; 2005; 2011; Coates et al., 2008; Çalık & Bumin-Süzen, 2013; Macfarlane, 2011; 2012; O’Meara, 2005; Scott et al., 2008; Szelényi & Goldberg, 2011; TÜBİTAK, 2013; Welch, 2005a; 2005b; H. Yılmaz, 2007). These types of financial resources, for academics, provide greater power to influence others

intellectually, and to become more independent from the demands of their institutions like extra teaching responsibilities and administrative duties (Bolden et al., 2014; Geiger, 2008; Macfarlane, 2012). In other words, “a professor without a research centre, or at least in possession of research grants and doctoral students, is unlikely to be able to exercise as much intellectual influence over others” (Macfarlane, 2011, p. 69). Furthermore, being *Acquistor* covers supporting young researchers and junior colleagues and their research initiatives financially by coordinating and leading project teams to obtain research funds (Åkerlind, 2008; Aypay, 2001; Bolden et al., 2014; Evans, 2014; Evans et al., 2013; Macfarlane, 2011; 2012; Macfarlane & Chan, 2014). Besides, senior academics are important figures in establishing communication channels between younger researchers, effective faculty and academic leaders in their discipline from inside and outside of their institutions using with their personal connections, and introducing students, generally postgraduate ones, and less experienced colleagues to academic platforms and networks like research collaborations, journals, conferences, colloquiums, seminars or lectures as co-investigator, -author, -presenter or quest speakers (Austin et al., 2007; Austin & McDaniels, 2006b; Evans, 2012; Kezar et al., 2007; Macfarlane, 2012; Macfarlane & Chan, 2014; Maher et al., 2013; O’Meara et al., 2013; Sezgin, 2003; Tonbul, 2014).

Ambassador. emphasizes the representation of higher education institutions and their interests by academics in local, national and even international platforms (Macfarlane, 2011; 2012; H. Yılmaz, 2007). When academics become more well-known figures in academia nationally and internationally, they can contribute more fully to the reputation of their institutions (Altbach, 2005; 2006; Cummings & Finkelstein, 2012; Macfarlane, 2011; 2012; Rayner et al., 2010; Szelényi & Goldberg, 2011; Welch, 2005a; 2005c). Examples of activities which promote academics’ own reputation while they represent their disciplines and institutions can be: ‘Participating in international foundations related to their expertise and

interest’, ‘joining research collaborations with foreign universities’, ‘working with NGOs (*Non-Governmental Organizations*)’, ‘providing consultation to commercial enterprises’, ‘undertaking duties on national and international disciplinary boards, commissions and boards’, ‘leading to organize academic events such as congress, colloquiums and seminars’, ‘attending conferences as keynote speakers’, ‘making international visits to collaboration with foreign colleagues’, ‘writing about social issues in the popular press like journals, magazines and newspapers’, ‘taking a seat in radio or television programs to inform public related to their expertise’ and ‘winning prestigious awards or prizes’ (Åkerlind, 2008; Akdemir, n.d.; Altbach, 2005; Aypay, 2001; Bakioğlu & Dalgıç, 2012; Bexley, James & Arkoudis, 2011; Çalık & Bumin-Süzen, 2013; Jacob & Meek, 2013; Macfarlane, 2011; 2012; Macfarlane & Chan, 2014; Metcalfe, 2008; Neumann, 2005; O’Meara, 2005; Park & Braxton, 2013; Sa’ & Oleksiyenko, 2011; Scott et al., 2008; Welch, 2011; H. Yılmaz, 2007). Moreover, these activities contribute to the reputation of their institutions, whereby the creation of universities which have higher public and sectoral profiles (Macfarlane, 2011; 2012; Knobel, Simões & Cruz, 2013; Shin, Lee & Kim, 2013; Welch, 2005b). In this manner, there are some conjunctions between *Ambassador* and *Advocate* roles of academics, and “being *Ambassador*, though, implies promoting the university and the department, whereas being an *Advocate* was associated more closely with promoting conceptual and socio-political perspectives often connected closely with the discipline” (Macfarlane, 2012, p. 98).

Consequently, *Academic Intellectual Leadership* of faculty as senior academics indicates their behaviors and activities which contribute to the preparation of the next generation of academics, and promote the value of their disciplinary knowledge into the academic community and, more widely, society. These types of academics’ actions comprise six different aspects as dimensions of *Academic Intellectual Leadership: Role Model, Mentor, Advocate, Guardian, Acquistor* and *Ambassador* (see in Table 9). On the other hand, relations

between *Academic Intellectual Leadership* and organizational characteristics of higher education institutions are important to understand ‘how to enrich the intellectual leadership behaviors of academics’.

Table 9.

*The Dimensions of Academic Intellectual Leadership**

The Qualities of the Professor as a Leader	
<i>Role model</i>	through personal scholarship, teaching, leadership and management, influence within the discipline or profession, publication, grants, awards and other research achievements
<i>Mentor</i>	to less experienced colleagues within and without the institution
<i>Advocate</i>	for the discipline or profession; explaining, arguing, promoting, debating, lobbying, campaigning
<i>Guardian</i>	of standards of scholarship and academic values within the discipline or profession
<i>Acquistor</i>	of grants, resources, research students, contracts and other commercial opportunities
<i>Ambassador</i>	on behalf of the university in external relations both nationally and internationally

* Retrieved from Macfarlane, 2011, p. 70

Chapter III

To proffer evidence related to the logical background of the theoretical model in the research, mutual relations among organizational communication, organizational climate, managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices and academic intellectual leadership were reviewed within the literature of educational management and leadership, especially within the light of higher education studies.

Literature Review

Organizational Communication and Organizational Climate

Organizational climate is mostly defined as the general atmosphere surrounding organizations based on employees' perceptions, and its types are named dually like two ends of a straight line as Negative-Positive, Closed-Open, Restrictive-Supportive or Unhealthy-Healthy (Memduhoğlu & Şeker, 2010; Stringer, 2002). A supportive climate comprises multi-directional communication channels for open and sincere interactions among administrators and employees, and a healthy climate emphasizes the existence of effective communication networks in universities, as in all organizations (Korkmaz, 2011; Mullins, 2007). For example, Beytekin and Arslan (2013) in their qualitative study stated that the functions of communication in higher education management, as empowering harmony and reliability in strategy, facilitating the strategic message, reinforcing the other functions to implement the strategy in their tasks and helping to enhance organizational identity and image, contribute to form favorable climate in faculties and universities.

In another study, Gizir and Gizir (2005) developed a 36 item inventory to discover factors negatively influence the quality of communication in universities, and explored these factors in 10 dimensions with reliability coefficients varied between .67 and .88. They measured the lowest mean in ($\bar{X}=1.16=[9.31/8]$) in Alliances dimension and the highest mean

($\bar{X}=3.22=[9.67/3]$) in Criticism dimension, and stated that positive interactions among staff in universities is one of the most important factor to form motivator climate while critical speeches in universities is a prominent factor negatively influence organizational climate. Bakan and Büyükmeşe (2004) also studied organizational communication and job satisfaction in academic organizations by using a 31 item questionnaire, and found that there were positive significant relations between communication in the university and the satisfaction with (i) the nature of the job ($r=.22$; $p\leq.05$), (ii) institutional image ($r=.40$; $p\leq.05$), (iii) administrator ($r=.43$; $p\leq.05$), (iv) managerial approach ($r=.64$; $p\leq.05$), (v) colleagues ($r=.36$; $p\leq.05$). All of these dimensions which are positively related to the communication satisfaction are navigators of staff's organizational climate perceptions (McMurray & Scott, 2013).

Accordingly, especially in organizations with intensive human relations like educational institutions, organizational climate reflects the internal and external relationship processes, work methods and physical structure, the web of communication channels, staff's identities and authority usage styles (Karadağ et al., 2008; Martin & Uddin, 2006). This strong association between communication and the general atmosphere in universities was demonstrated statistically in Arabacı's (2011) study, in which Organizational Communication and Participating Decision-Making – based on the validity and reliability analysis results ($KMO=.93$; *Bartlett's test value*=4859.339, $p=.00$ and $\alpha=.93$) of their data collection instrument – was discovered as a dimension of organizational climate besides other dimensions: Organizational Structure, Organizational Commitment and Organizational Conflict. Leaders, thus, should create a democratic climate in universities to support the participation of stakeholders in decision making, collaboration between units, easy access to information, quick delivery of demands and needs, sharing ideas, concerns and emotions between administrators and academics by powerful formal communication frames besides informal communication practices (Hoy & Miskel, 2010; Karadağ & Öner, 2012).

Furthermore, Alipour (2011) examined the relation between managers' communication skills and organizational climate in the context of Iranian Physical Higher Education Organizations, by using two different instruments, developed by Deep and Sussman (1989, as cited in Alipour, 2011, p. 423) for organizational climate and Burton (1993, as cited in Alipour, 2011, p. 423) for communication skills, and found a significant and positive correlation ($r=.49$; $p\leq.01$) between communication skills of managers and organizational climate. Balcı-Bucak (2002) also analyzed organizational climate in one of the Education Faculties in Turkey in terms of superior-subordinate relations by operating a 16 item questionnaire having $\alpha=.92$, and found that the general level of academics' climate perception was not at a high level and between the minimum mean ($\bar{X}=2.31$ for the item *Objectiveness of administrator on separating additional resources*) and maximum mean ($\bar{X}=2.81$ for the item *Appreciating the personalities of subordinates by administrator*). According to the results of these studies, leaders in universities, by means of open communication and positive climate, can increase in academics' commitment, trust and feelings of collegiality besides job satisfaction, so they can contribute directly and indirectly to the success in universities (Aypay et al., 2012; Shockley-Zalabak & Ellis, 2000).

As a result, organizational communication is the reflection of organizational climate and also the molder of it, and even a dimension of climate in higher education institutions (McMurray & Scott, 2013; Şimşek, 2011). In universities as the most complex educational organization, effective formal and informal communication initiatives can provide *sharing organizational vision and common goals among units, informing stakeholders about ongoing processes and different operations, exchanging opinions between senior and junior members, establishing collegial discussion platforms and forming interdisciplinary cooperation* (Alipour, 2011; Balcı-Bucak, 2002). Therefore, well-functioning organizational communication networks in universities contribute to the creation of a positive climate as

more open, sincere, collegial, supportive, participative, democratic, reassuring and transparent (Gülner, 2007; Kezar & Sam, 2013). Moreover, alternative communication channels not only facilitate collegial sharing but also expedite the interactions between academics and students, so that academics can help their students' more efficient development as well as their colleagues' advancement in academia by their role model behaviors, mentoring and stewardship activities (Austin & McDaniels, 2006b; Kezar et al., 2007; Seçkin et al., 2014). In conclusion, a positive climate with effectual communication in universities influences favorably academics' intention to stay, commitment to their institutions, participation in decision-making processes, taking responsibilities in organizational practices, collaborative and interdisciplinary studies, work performance and job satisfaction (Akman, Kelecioğlu & Bilge, 2006; Campbell & O'Meara, 2014; Kezar, 2013; 2014; O'Meara et al., 2014).

Organizational Communication and Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices

Fast growth of knowledge and new technological advancements cause many changes in an environment and affect people's life styles, so today's organizations, to maintain their existence, must satisfy people's new choices and demands by evaluating changes in their environments properly (Nordin, 2013; Poole & van de Ven, 2004). For this reason, organizations should have strong internal and external communication networks to get reliable information about changes and to collect appropriate inputs for organizational processes (Babarinsa, 2012; Zour & Taylor, 2004). Besides, organizations need to become learning organizations for continuing the adaptation to potential changes, thus, to empower their employees' individual and professional development (Boonstra, 2004; Marshall, 2010).

Likewise, to fulfil their knowledge mission effectively, universities should internalize different organizational learning initiatives for accessing, sharing and spreading new

information and skills related to teaching/learning, research and service practices via convenient formal and informal communication channels (Özden, 2005; Senge et al., 2014). Gizir and Simsek (2005), for instance, in their qualitative research about communication in an academic context, stated that lack of functional communication systems both in inter- and intra-departmental level results in inadequate exchange of scientific knowledge, alienation, inadequate collaboration in scientific work, lack of common goals and lack of motivation. Therefore, by contributing to academics' professional developments, their participation in administration, cooperation among units, and to the establishment of mutual understanding between different groups, functional communication operations in universities enhance the effectiveness of academic collaboration practices instituted by management (Banoğlu & Peker, 2012; Günbayı, 2007; Senge et al., 2014).

Additionally, after recent changes like globalization, internationalization, corporatization, business-oriented management and mass education, modern higher education institutions have become more entrepreneurial organizations (Erkan, 2011; Fox, 2005; Welch, 2012). Universities as entrepreneurial higher education institutions require flexible structures in management to support the production of innovative ideas and to acquire reformist activities from varied sections, and to adapt them as new implementations (Chan, 2012; Erdem, 2002). In her master thesis, Maldonado (2003, p. ii) stated her purpose as “to describe the dynamics of the change process initiative engaged in by the EPC in order to isolate the critical elements that contribute to the organization's ability to operate in an environment of frequent change”, and, by using different techniques, collected qualitative data about managerial practice flexibility in Educational Partnership Center (EPC) of The University of California, Santa Cruz, which has 6 support units; Academic Development and On-Campus Programs Teams, Service Center, In-School Services Office, Management and Communications, Community College Support, and Research and Evaluation. After data

analysis, to increase the functionality of services of support units, (Maldonado, 2003, p. 59) identified main organizational goal in The Official Change Plan of EPC as “to create a flexible organizational structure that can effectively prepare for and adapt to change”. This flexibility in organizational structures and practices should be established especially in operating core to empower academics’ initiatives which enhance academic quality and contribute to the universities’ institutional development (Aypay, 2006; Bowring & Rankine, 2009; Mintzberg, 2014).

Kezar and Lester (2009) studied on supportive institutional agents for faculty leadership in an academic environment, and, beyond the fundamental institutional structures like research office, teaching/learning institute and media advisory unit to enhance faculty’s academic productivity, specified 4 main areas mostly used by institutions to support the faculty leadership; 1) shared governance, 2) leadership development programs, 3) faculty development programs and 4) mentoring programs. These types of support mechanisms instituted by management to facilitate scholarly practices only become functional by informing academics and better by receiving their feedback in efficient and reciprocal multi-way organizational communication operations (Bakan, & Büyükmeşe, 2004; Beytekin & Arslan, 2013; Kezar & Sam, 2013). University management, hereby, can assist academics’ teaching, research and service duties by innovative practices, and benefit from these high quality scholarly products in the extremely competitive higher education sector.

Organizational Climate and Academic Intellectual Leadership

Organizational climate indicates the general perception atmosphere surrounding the organization which is formed by organizational structures, operational activities and features of mutual relations (Karadağ et al., Mullins, 2007). This perception of atmosphere is affected by the employees’ ideas, emotions, relations, needs and expectations, and also affects their

behaviors (Buluç, 2013; Stringer, 2002). A positive climate in the organization can provide stronger belonging, commitment, trust, collaboration and satisfaction feelings among employees, so that, they perform a great effort to fulfil their jobs and contribute more in their organization (Kılınç-Ergülen, 2011; Noordin et al., 2010).

However, educational institutions are highly professionalized organizations owing to their educators being specialists in their own areas besides teaching-learning techniques; their contributions in the leadership capacity of the organization are very important in generating better curriculums, teaching practices, assessment methods and learning environments in schools (Beycioğlu & Aslan, 2012; Kılınç et al., 2014; Ngang et al., 2010). In schools, hence, a supportive climate should be formed to ensure the participation of teachers into managerial and operational processes for accomplishing leadership behaviors expected from them by producing innovative ideas, being pioneers of new practices, taking on responsibilities and collaborating with others (Can, 2014; Karadağ & Öner, 2012; Stevenson, 2012). In the similar way, the climate of a higher education institution is affected by many different factors like organizational vision and missions, essential values and rituals, management in the institution, hierarchical structures, sharing authority, distribution of resources, effective communication among units and cooperation between disciplines (Arabacı, 2011).

McMurray and Scott (2013) investigated the determinants of organizational climate for academia, and, after some minor modification, they used a questionnaire designed in 5 point scale by Koys & DeCotiis (1991, as cited in McMurray & Scott, 2013, p. 964). They found that, as well as academics' motivation, the scholarly performance of academics is strongly influenced by 5 main determinants, as navigators of academics' climate perceptions: i) *Trust* – between academics and their superior – (CFI=.99, AGFI=.93; SRMR=.03; VE=.40 and α =.88), ii) *Support* – materially or morally – (CFI=1.00, AGFI=.98; SRMR=.01; VE=.62 and α =.89), iii) *Recognition* – valuing academics' achievements – (CFI=.95, AGFI=.84;

SRMR=.04; VE=.55 and $\alpha=.85$), iv) *Fairness* – equity-based approach of academics’ superior – (CFI=.99, AGFI=.93; SRMR=.03; VE=.54 and $\alpha=.85$) and v) *Innovation* – fostering academics’ creativity by their superior – (CFI=1.00, AGFI=.97; SRMR=.02; VE=.56 and $\alpha=.86$). Moreover, climate perceptions of academics as experts in their own field and trainers for students in high degrees are influenced by participation opportunities in operations related to their disciplines and responsibilities (Balçı-Bucak, 2002; Reynolds, 2006). In this respect, mutual and open communication with management, involvement in decision-making processes, fair access to resources, social networks between different disciplines and disciplinary cooperation practices at universities create a collegial climate perception among academics (Akman et al., 2006; Schulz, 2013).

Schulz (2013), for instance, examined the relation between academics’ job satisfaction and organizational climate, by benefiting from ‘Competing Values Framework (CVF)’ of Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981, as cited in Schulz, 2013, pp. 466-467). He defined 4 organizational climate types in universities: *Adhocracy*, *Clan*, *Hierarchy* and *Market*, and found that the highest positive relation between organizational climate and academics’ job satisfaction was specified by academics who work in universities having *Clan* climate ($r=.53$ with Job Satisfaction) while the highest negative relation was in *Market* climate ($r=-.13$ with Job Satisfaction). According to these results, especially collegiality-based climate in universities such as *Clan* climate can contribute to producing intellectual leadership behaviors like ‘helping the development of colleagues’, ‘transferring their expertise into solution of social problems’, ‘keeping up disciplinary standards’ and ‘obtaining alternative resources for team-based projects’ by academics more desirously and efficiently (Aypay, 2001; Macfarlane, 2007b; Evans et al., 2013). Also, positive climate perceptions enable academics to embrace their universities in all aspects and features, so that they try to act as a model for others in regard to organizational values, traditions and expectations, and represent their institutions in

internal and external platforms with great attention (Çetin-Gürkan, 2006; Bolden et al., 2014; Macfarlane, 2012).

Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices and Academic Intellectual Leadership

Organizational flexibility indicates the adaptation of organizations to the new opportunities or threats in their environments by giving proper responses at the right times to the changes in their environments (Adonisi & van Wyk, 2012; Gürkanlar, 2010). Then, managerial flexibility, as one of the dimensions of organizational flexibility, is the ability of managers to shift plans and processes at proper times for giving the right directions to organizations by modifying their management styles according to changes in internal and external environments (Ceylan, 2001; Eapen, 2010). In this regard, one of the purposes of flexibility in management, to attain alterations in strategies for easy adaptation to new conditions, is to generate optimum work conditions in universities for benefiting more from employees' creativities and energies by 'enabling the participation of employees in the decision-making process', 'facilitating their cooperation in project-based team works', 'generating opportunities for personal and professional development', 'constituting channels to share information and experiences' and 'encouraging them to solve the problems on their own' (Maldonado, 2003; Mintzberg, 2014).

Kezar (2013), for example, examined institutional policies and practices in universities to support non-tenure-track faculty (NNTF) by analyzing qualitative data within 3 part theoretical frame: *Capacity to Perform*, *Willingness to Perform* and *Opportunity to Perform*. In the light of the results in this study, she stated that, besides affecting willingness of NNTF by values and norms in departmental culture, academic support practices and policies of university management influence NNTF's job performance by contributing to enrich Capacity

and Opportunity for professional development of NNTF. These types of support practices and policies executed by management allow employees to plan their own work, to take responsibilities, to reach their directors and to join in management, so contribute to achieve better organizational performance (Ceylan, 2001; Skorstad & Ramsdal, 2009). Moreover, managerial practice flexibility in universities can ease to fulfil the duties and responsibilities of academics more effectively, provide opportunities for their professional development, and empower their leadership behaviors in different issues such as curriculum development, teaching-learning techniques, assessment methods, team-based projects and organization of social activities (Can, 2014; Cohen et al., 2003; Özden, 2005; Yalçın, 2009).

Additionally, in modern higher education institutions as entrepreneurial organizations, managerial flexibility should focus on scholarly practices in the operating core to contribute to the quality of academic productivity and better institutional performance (Chan, 2012; Fox, 2005; Mintzberg, 2014). Coates et al. (2009), in their international comparative study about academic profession, indicated that Australian universities attract staff from all over the world because of their extensive institutional resources to support academics' scholarly activities besides manageable teaching loads and internationally competitive salaries. Hence, Managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices (e.g. ensuring the compatibility of physical-technological structures for teaching and research grounds, forming pedagogical development opportunities, supporting academics' research initiatives in formal procedures, facilitating their access to external funds, contributing their social projects by institutional resources, leading their connections with public and community actors, etc.) is one of the vital institutional component in universities in order to support academics' teaching, research and service activities as the parts of intellectual leadership behaviors of academics (Bentley et al., 2013; Bowring & Rankine, 2009; Campbell & O'Meara, 2014; Kezar, 2013; Schellekens et al., 2003). Furthermore, O'Meara et al. (2014) investigated the reasons behind faculty leave

and the departure intention by using mixed method on the data collected from two research intensive US universities, and found that, according to 37% of university managers, *Better Opportunities* (higher salary, position in more prestigious institution, advanced institutional resources) are the most important reason behind faculty leave. They also found that there are significant differences between the perception of faculty who intend to leave and do not intend to leave about *Professional Development Resources* ($\bar{X}_1=-.39$, $\bar{X}_2=.18$; $p<.001$).

As a result, university management should establish functional infrastructure and operate different practices to facilitate academics' scholarly activities, many of which are parts of their academic intellectual leadership behaviors. The variety in academic support practices of university management can contribute to produce quick and better responses to students' learning needs, organizing more effective indoor and outdoor teaching activities and exchanging ideas about teaching-learning initiatives with their colleagues by academics (Hubball et al., 2005; Kreber, 2013; Mcalpine & Weston, 2000). Managerial practice flexibility may also assist academics to establish institutional and international research networks, to acquire alternative funds with their research teams and to contribute professional development of junior academics by collaborative studies (Austin & Sorcinelli, 2013; Jacob & Meek, 2013; Macfarlane, 2011; Szelényi & Goldberg, 2011). Furthermore, managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices might contribute to transfer academics' disciplinary knowledge in different fields, to inform the community by academics about public issues related to their expertise and the participation of academics in national and international social responsibility projects (Amey et al., 2002; Atila, 2009; Macfarlane, 2012; Sandmann et al., 2008; H. Yilmaz, 2007).

Organizational Communication, Organizational Climate, Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices and Academic Intellectual Leadership

Organizational communication emphasizes the transmission of news, information, demands and expectations, which include individuals' knowledge, skills, attitudes and emotions, reciprocally among structures comprising the organization by using multi-way channels (Eroğlu, 2013; Harris & Nelson, 2008; Robertson, 2005). On the other side, organizational climate indicates the general atmosphere surrounding the organization formed by organizational structures, operational activities and features of relations and interaction between individuals, and affects their behaviors and is affected by these behaviors (Karadağ et al., 2008; Mullins, 2007; Schulz, 2013). Herewith, in universities like many other organizations based on intensive human relations, efficient communication networks provide 'sharing vision and common goals among units', 'informing stakeholders about ongoing processes and operations', 'exchanging opinions between senior and junior members', 'establishing collegial discussion platforms' and 'forming interdisciplinary cooperation'.

These networks also contribute to creating a positive climate as more open, sincere, collegial, supportive, participative, democratic, reassuring and transparent (Alipour, 2011; Balcı-Bucak, 2002; Gülnar, 2007; Kezar & Sam, 2013). This positive climate perception in universities motivates academics to accomplish their duties and responsibilities within academic intellectual leadership more efficiently in 'helping the development of colleagues', 'transferring their expertise into solution of social problems', 'keeping up disciplinary standards', 'obtaining alternative resources for team-based projects', 'being role model for others about organizational values, traditions and expectations' and 'representing their institutions in external platforms' (Bolden et al., 2014; Çetin-Gürkan, 2006; Evans et al., 2013; Macfarlane, 2007b; 2012). For instance, Akman et al., (2006) investigated academics' job satisfaction by using a questionnaire developed in accordance with Herzberg's

Motivation-Hygiene Theory, and found among items signed at a very important level: *Being able to establish close relations, based on trust, with colleagues* (f=340, 69.7%), *Being able to communicate easily with administrators* (f=339, 69.5%), *Delivering to me the decisions and changes related to work in time* (f=335, 68.6%), *Respecting and valuing personnel by administrators* (f=414, 84.8%), *Being able to participate into decision-making related to my job* (f=371, 76%) and *Appreciating my works and efforts by administrators* (f=299, 61.3%). These findings show that the quality of communication is an important factor both for i) academics' opinions which navigate their perceptions related to the positiveness of climate in their institutions and ii) their job satisfaction and academic performance.

In another study, Campbell and O'Meara (2014) investigated the departmental factors which influence faculty's agency perspective and action; agency was defined as "taking strategic or intentional actions or perspectives towards goals that matter to oneself" (p. 52). They stated that, by nurturing collegiality in especially at departmental level, effective communication networks in universities contribute to form favorable climate, and positive climate is one of the important organizational factors influencing faculty's satisfaction, professional growth and productivity. In this regard, well-functioning formal and informal communication systems in universities influence academics' intellectual leadership behaviors more commonly through the agency of the institutional communication's efficacy in organizational climate within universities.

Additionally, to satisfy stakeholders' new demands and expectations by evaluating changes in their environments properly, today's universities should have strong internal and external communication networks to get reliable information about changes and to collect appropriate inputs for organizational processes (Babarinsa, 2012; Nordin, 2013; Poole & van de Ven, 2004; Zour & Taylor, 2004). Besides, to gain advantages in the highly competitive modern higher education area by quick adaptation of academic structures to recent changes,

universities need to empower academics' productivity by easing their duties and responsibilities owing to the managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices, that is, the variety of managerial practices within the scope of teaching, research and service activities (Campbell, & O'Meara, 2014; Ceylan, 2001; Mintzberg, 2014). This reality was confirmed in *The international academic profession: Portraits of fourteen countries*; a book based on the results of the international study related to academic profession carried out by The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in 1992-1993 and edited by Philip G. Altbach. During this study, the questionnaire, which was composed of items about academics' personal and career data, professional activity and their perceived priorities for higher education, was operated. Altbach (1996) then stated that, as the general results of this international study, academics' morale was declining and job satisfaction was not very high because of low salaries, limited resources, insufficient secretarial support, students' levels of competence, lack of opportunities to pursue their own ideas, threatening professional autonomy, greater bureaucracy and poor relationships with colleagues (Altbach, 1996).

After 15 years, the second international study about academic profession was carried out by The Carnegie Foundation in 2007 with collecting data from academics in 14 countries. Changing Academic Profession (CAP) Survey was used in this study, and CAP Survey contains 53 items in 6 different parts: *Career and professional status, General work situation and activities, Teaching, Research, Management and Personal background*. Bentley et al. (2013) then analyzed the data of CAP Survey for 12 countries, and found that *Institutional Resources* (teaching load, teaching support staff, laboratories, research equipment, research funding, research support staff, computer facilities, libraries, office space, telecommunications, secretarial support) and *Administration Process* (a cumbersome administrative process, collegiality in decision-making, good communication between management and academics, a supportive attitude of administrative staff towards teaching, a

supportive attitude towards research) were among the significant predictors for academics' job satisfaction and productivity.

Aypay (2001) also examined the impact of universities' organizational structure on faculty role performance. He used Berger's (2000) conceptual approaches to define 5 organizational structures (*Collegial, Bureaucratic, Symbolic, Systemic* and *Political*) and Boyer's (1990) 4 domain of scholarship to categorize faculty roles (Scholarship of Discovery, Teaching, Application and Integration). After quantitative data analysis, Aypay (2001) found that 19% of variance for Scholarship of Discovery, 16% of variance for Scholarship of Integration, 17% of variance for Scholarship of Application and 11% of variance for Scholarship of Teaching were explained by faculty's personal characteristics and the organizational features of universities. Based on the results in his study, Aypay (2001) argued that academic support mechanisms as one of the organizational infrastructure in any type of universities contribute to rise faculty's role performance, and positive interactions in collegial discussion platforms and formal communication between academics and managers are important mediums to inform academics and collect suggestions about institutional resources and professional development practices instituted by university management. Accordingly, the managerial flexibility to facilitate scholarly practices only becomes functional by informing academics and more productive by receiving their feedback through efficient multi-way communication operations in universities (Bakan, & Büyükmeşe, 2004; Beytekin & Arslan, 2013; Kezar & Sam, 2013). In this sense, operative communication networks in universities affect the level of academic intellectual leadership behaviors by means of the impacts of organizational communication over managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices.

As a result, it can be enunciated that the relationship between organizational communication in universities and faculty's academic intellectual leadership is formed by the

mediation of organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices. Therefore, the main purpose of this research is to examine these intermediary relations between organizational communication, organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities, and faculty's academic intellectual leadership within a theoretical model of the research. For this reason, to strengthen the theoretical model, some studies related to communication, climate, managerial practice flexibility and intellectual leadership in universities are introduced in the next part of the research.

Related Studies

Beytekin and Arslan (2013) investigated the functions of communication in faculty management to understand the nature of communication and its strategic roles in the organization. For this purpose, they designed semi-structured interview form, containing 15 questions, and collected data from 10 interviews with deans of different faculty at Ege University, Turkey. According to the results of the study, the communication process is composed of internal and external communication in the organization, and the main tasks of communication in strategy are to communicate the core concept of strategy and to select the suitable channels for contacting people and interest groups from inside and outside of the organization. In this perspective, Beytekin and Arslan (2013) stated that communication has vital roles in university management and it is a key element to achieve the strategic plans of universities with contributions through *Supporting Core Operations, Profiling, Informing, Socializing* and *Informal Interaction* in faculty.

Gizir and Simsek (2005) carried out a qualitative research to investigate the most common communication problems in academic context according to the opinions of faculty from one of the most developed universities in Turkey. During this case study, they collected data from 50 faculty by face-to-face interviews. After data analysis, they stated that faculty

perceived a number of significant communication problem areas regarding work-related communication and overall departmental communication. They also affirmed that *Interdisciplinary studies, Co-teaching, Co-advising, Seminars, Symposiums, Minor–Double Undergraduate Programs, Minor–Major Undergraduate Programs, Common goals, Disciplinary culture, Collaborative studies* and *Social activities* promote the quality of communication in departments and universities, while *Disciplinary culture, High individualism, Inadequate exchange of scientific knowledge, Lack of motivation, Competition, Alliances, Alienation, Criticism, Administrative issues, Lack of common goals, Age profile of faculty, Only personal contact, Introvert characteristic of the department, Inadequate collaboration in scientific work, Promotion system* and *Atmosphere* are inhibitors of communication in academic context.

Gizir and Gizir (2005) developed ‘Inventory of Communication Analysis in Academic Context’, and carried out validity and reliability analyses. The purpose of this inventory is to explore factors which negatively influence communication in universities. They generated 53 items for the inventory in 10 sub-dimensions: *Poor Communication, Individualism, Inadequate Exchange of Scientific Knowledge, Lack of Motivation, Alliances, Administrative Issues, Lack of Common Goals, Criticism, Introvert Characteristics of the Department* and *Departmental Atmosphere*. Gizir and Gizir (2005) then measured the lowest mean in ($\bar{X}=1.16=[9.31/8]$) in *Alliances* and the highest mean ($\bar{X}=3.22=[9.67/3]$) in *Criticism*. As a result, taking into account that this inventory contains only factors which negatively affect communication processes in academic mediums, they found that interactions with criticism, problems based on administration, the general atmosphere in the department and negative motivator speeches are the most powerful factors which negatively influence communication at universities.

Bakan and Büyükmeşe (2004) studied organizational communication and job satisfaction in academic organizations. The purpose of their study was to examine the relationship between the satisfaction with i) *The Nature of the Job*, ii) *Institutional Image*, iii) *Administrator*, iv) *Managerial Approach*, v) *Colleagues and Income* and vi) *Organizational Communication*. They carried out the study by survey method and applied their questionnaire, composed of 31 items and 10 demographic questions, to academics from one of the largest universities in Turkey which had 2500 academic personnel at 2004. During data analysis in this study, Bakan and Büyükmeşe (2004) found that there are positive significant relations between communication in the university and the satisfaction with *The Nature of the Job*, *Institutional Image*, *Administrator*, *Managerial Approach*, *Colleagues*. As a result, these findings showed that organizational communication in universities is one of the key factors to contributing to academics' job satisfaction by empowering the interactions between administrators and academics, the explanation of ideas and emotions, the participation of academics into decision-making processes, sharing knowledge among units, and the beliefs of academics about recognition and appreciation by administrators.

Alipour (2011) carried out a study about communication skills of managers and organizational climate. In this study, he explored the relations between three main communication skills (*verbal*, *listening* and *feedback*) of managers and organizational climate. The study was performed as quantitative research in Iranian Physical Higher Education Organizations (IPHEO), and two different instruments, developed by Deep and Sussman (1989) for organizational climate and Burton (1993) for communication skills, were applied to all the staff, executive managers and deputies of IPHEO (as cited in Alipour, 2011, p. 423). Alipour (2011) found a low level perception of organizational climate and a medium level perception of managers' communication skills in IPHEO, besides a significant and positive correlation between communication skills of managers and organizational climate. These

results showed that administrators' communication skills are important to establish well-functioning communication channels which contribute to forming a desirable climate in educational organizations.

Balcı-Bucak (2002), in her study, aimed to examine the organizational climate in terms of superior-subordinate relations at one of the education faculties in Turkey. This study was carried out in survey method, and a questionnaire, composed of 16 items in 5 Point Likert Type, was applied to 70 academics and 58 valid questionnaires were analyzed by quantitative methods. She indicated the mean for each item about the superior-subordinate relationship separately, and found the mean in 10 items at low level (minimum mean in *Objectiveness of administrator on separating additional resources*) and 6 items at medium level (maximum mean in *Appreciating the personalities of subordinates by administrator*). In addition, she found that there was no significant difference in organizational climate in terms of superior-subordinate relationship according to academics' gender and administrative status. After these findings, Balcı-Bucak (2002) stated that insufficient relationship between academics and administrators in the faculty can cause negative climate perception among academics, which affects their scholarly productivity and contribution to the institution.

In his study about organizational climate in one of the Turkish Universities, Arabacı (2011) developed the Organizational Climate Assessment Scale (OCAS) to examine the climate in this university. OCAS is composed of 31 items in 5 Point Interval under 4 dimensions: *Organizational Structure*, *Organizational Communication and Participating in Decision Making*, *Organizational Commitment* and *Organizational Conflict*. During the analysis in the study, Arabacı (2011) found that the mean of organizational climate perception of staff in the university was in moderate level, and there were significant differences in the staff's perception of the climate at: i) *Organizational Conflict* in terms of their age, ii) *Organizational Structure*, *Organizational Communication and Participating in Decision*

Making and Organizational Conflict in terms of their officer roles and iii) *Organizational Structure and Organizational Communication and Participating in Decision Making* in terms of their status. Arabacı (2011), hereby, concluded that communication and participation processes in universities are some of the most important aspects of organizational climate, and they have a very powerful influence especially on the climate perception of early career academics and support staff.

McMurray and Scott (2013) examined the determinants of organizational climate for academia, and to explore these determinants, after some minor modification, they used a questionnaire designed in 5 point scale by Koys and DeCotiis (1991, as cited in McMurray & Scott, 2013, p. 964). These 40 items are separated into 8 dimensions with 5 items for each of them as *Autonomy, Cohesion, Trust, Pressure, Support, Recognition, Fairness* and *Innovation*. They applied the questionnaire to academic staff from a single Australian university, and performed their validity and reliability analysis by using data of 128 valid questionnaires. According to the results of these analyses, *Trust, Support, Recognition, Fairness* and *Innovation* are the dimensions of organizational climate in universities. In terms of these results, McMurray and Scott (2013) affirmed that *support of superior for academics, fairness in behaviors of superiors, trust feeling of academics towards their superior, encouraging innovative ideas of academics* and *appreciation of academics' successes* are essential elements of climate in universities, and university management should focus on these determinants to form a positive climate in their institutions.

Schulz (2013) explored the impact of role conflict, role ambiguity and organizational climate on the job satisfaction of academics in research-intensive universities. He benefited from *Competing Values Framework* of Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981, as cited in Schulz, 2013, pp. 466-467) as a theoretical frame for the study, and defined 4 organizational climate types in universities: *Adhocracy, Clan, Hierarchy* and *Market*. He formed a questionnaire

composed of 24 item Organizational Climate Survey, 14 item Role Stress Scale and a single question about overall job satisfaction, and then sent this questionnaire by e-mails to 1700 academics from varied disciplines in UK universities. During his analyses, Schulz (2013) found that there are several significant relations among each climate type and other research variables, and discovered that organizational climate perceptions of academics can explain 23.3% of their job satisfaction. Moreover, Schulz (2013, p. 464) stated that “only *Clan* climate was directly related to the job satisfaction of academics, and *Collegial/Clan* climate is still a very important contributor to the satisfaction of academic staff despite the changes in the styles of management in universities”.

Maldonado (2003), in her master thesis, studied on change plan, its implementation and affecting factors of change processes within Educational Partnership Center (EPC) of The University of California, Santa Cruz, which has 6 support units; *Academic Development and On-Campus Programs Teams*, *Service Center* (fiscal, human resources and technological support services), *In-School Services Office*, *Management and Communications*, *Community College Support*, and *Research and Evaluation*. After qualitative data analysis, she stated that The Official Change Plan of EPC has 3 major organizational goals; 1) to create a flexible organizational structure that can effectively prepare for and adapt to change, 2) to transform its model of service delivery to increase efficiency and avoid duplication of services and 3) to provide increased opportunities for staff involvement in leadership and decision-making roles (Maldonado, 2003, p. 59). However, there are several differences between the change plan and its implementation; these differences happen within the framework of organizational culture, communication, decision-making, staff development and conflict resolution. Also, she indicated that Flexibility, Staff Development and Organizational Identity are essential for organizational ability to anticipate and adapt to changes. As a result, Maldonado (2003) found that the clear change process structure and techniques, data-driven reform, leadership, staff

development and communication are critical elements to achieve the transformation of the organization from a traditional model to a mission-driven one.

Akman et al. (2006) investigated the job satisfaction of academics and the factors affecting their satisfaction, based on Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory. They used quantitative research method and generated 37 items 5 Point Likert Type questionnaire. Then, the questionnaire was applied online via e-mail to 520 academics from 24 different universities in Turkey and data were collected from 488 valid respondent questionnaires. After analysis, they found among items signed at a very important level by academics as i) *Being able to establish close relations, based on trust, with colleagues*, ii) *Being able to communicate easily with administrators*, iii) *Delivering to me the decisions and changes related to work in time*, iv) *Respecting and valuing personnel by administrators*, v) *Being able to participate into decision-making related to my job*, vi) *Appreciating my works and efforts by administrators*, vii) *Organizing my course, supervision and administrative loads as allowing enough time to make research and publication* and viii) *Enabling to use latest technologies in teaching-learning platforms in my workplace*. In short, Akman et al. (2006, p. 19) indicated the result of the study was that “while there are some differences in academics’ perceptions related to their job satisfaction according to their gender, seniority and title, generally doing meaningful works in terms of academics’ perspective, encouraging them to take responsibilities by administration, supporting their professional development via different administrative practices and noticing their productive works by administrators are essential factors to shape the job satisfaction of academics”.

O’Meara et al. (2014) in their study *To heaven or hell: Sensemaking about why faculty leave* investigated the reasons behind the departure intention of faculty. In the study, O’Meara et al. (2014, p. 604) used metaphorical explanation for Heaven and Hell, and Heaven indicates “better opportunities (such a destination plausibly involves a more prestigious department or

university, a better salary and better resources, and therefore a set of improved academic opportunities)", on the other hand, Hell is defined as "high demands of major research universities (the worst possible fate for an academic in a research university would be to fail to advance in such a setting)". To explore the understanding of faculty towards 'Heaven' and 'Hell' components, they used the mixed method case study to produce quantitative and qualitative data from two research intensive public universities from USA. During the data analysis in this study, they found that 1. *Better Opportunities*, 2. *Location and Family* and 3. *Work Environment and Fit* are main reasons for faculty departure according to administrators, while 1. *Work Environment and Fit*, 2. *Failure* and 3. *Better Opportunities* are main reasons according to faculty. After their findings, O'Meara et al. (2014, p. 617) stated that "Administrators felt most comfortable noting family/geographic or prestige-related reasons for departure...poor working environments to blame...Faculty colleagues [*having colleagues departed in the last 3 years*] used prestige-oriented 'Heaven' explanations more than...other...reasons...[F]aculty leavers tended to describe poor work environments as the rationale for departure".

Kezar and Lester (2009) studied on Faculty Grassroots Leadership and supportive institutional agents for faculty leadership in an academic environment, and they focused on the question "How do faculty describe the ways that campuses can support and encourage faculty grassroots leadership?" (p. 717). They then organized the study in an instrumental case study research design and used multiple sites as a case study. After deciding their sample universities, they conducted 81 semi-structured interviews with faculty; some of whom have administration roles. They presented the findings of the study in two parts: *Departmental or School Wide Approaches* and *Campus Wide Approaches*. Based on their findings, Kezar and Lester (2009) stated that, after recent changes in academia, academic capitalism, rising in non-tenure-track faculty compound, tenure process, research focused faculty socialization,

increasing teaching and publication expectations have become barriers for faculty leadership, so higher education institutions should develop campus wide policies and practices to empower faculty leadership mostly as role models and mentors such as creating campus networks, eliminating dysfunctional institutional dynamics, fostering role models, supporting the challenges to decisions coming from faculty, and ensuring flexibility and autonomy.

H. Yılmaz (2007) carried out his doctoral dissertation research on *Academic Administrators' Intellectuality*. He included only academics having administrative roles (rector, vice-rector, dean, head of department, graduate school manager, higher school manager and vocational higher school manager) in Turkish public and foundation universities in the sample of the study. He developed a questionnaire which covers 73 items for 4 different aspects of academic intellectuality: *Giving Lectures*, *Producing Publications*, *Being Public Voice* and *Being Global Opinion Organizer*. During his data analysis, H. Yılmaz (2007) found that, for academic administrators, acting as intellectual role model towards students in their lectures is at a high level; acting as a writer to intellectual publication is at a medium level; advising students' studies as a way to reach new information sources is at a high level; acting as a public voice and using universities as public discussion platforms is at a high level; acting as a global opinion organizer and supporting other academics to be global opinion organizer is at a high level; transferring their intellectual characteristics into academic life and respecting other academics' intellectual behavior is at a high level. Based on these results, H. Yılmaz (2007) concluded that academic administrators in universities pay attention to their intellectual leadership and support others' intellectual behaviors towards students, colleagues and institutions, but their participation into national and broadly international social discussion of their scholarly actions is very limited because of scanty resources and their intensive schedules.

Evans et al. (2013) investigated academic leadership of professors in their project funded by the UK's Leadership Foundation for Higher Education. In this context, the project aims to explore professorial academic leadership and the level of benefitting from leadership behaviors of professors by non-professorial academics, researchers and teachers. For this purpose, they performed the project in mixed method using online questionnaire (for big picture) and face-to-face interview (for micro-view), but in this study they shared only the findings of their questionnaire. They found that 26.9% of the sample indicated their experiences related to professorial leadership or mentorship in 'excellent or exemplary level' while their 35.4% stated their experiences related to academic leadership of professors in 'unsatisfactory level'. In addition, 93.7% of respondents expected academic leadership from professors (especially advising non-professorial colleagues and helping them develop professionally for building successful career) in high or agree levels. Within these findings, Evans et al. (2013, p. 685) pointed out that professors as academic leaders should provide "useful and helpful advice and mentoring, availability, approachability, time for others, and a willingness to take on a variety of tasks (teaching as well as research, along with academic citizenship, such as committee chairing)", and higher education institutions should produce policies to enhance professorial academic leadership by mentoring and advising programs towards junior colleagues.

Macfarlane (2011), in his study *Professors as intellectual leaders: Formation, identity and role*, examined professorial intellectual leadership behaviors and compared the priorities of professors and their institutions on academic intellectual leadership behaviors. Macfarlane (2011, p. 63) derived the theoretical framework of the study based on role descriptions of professors generated by Tight (2002) as "Being a role model, Helping other colleagues to develop, Income generation, Influencing public debate, Influencing the work and direction of the university, Leadership in research, Leadership in teaching, Representing the department in

the university and Upholding standards of scholarship”. As data collection tools, he used an online questionnaire in 5 Point Likert Type and interviews in the study which was a project funded by Leadership Foundation for Higher Education, UK. According to the perceptions of full-time professors, he found that the order of professors’ priorities in terms of their leadership for first 5 behaviors were *Helping other colleagues to develop, Leadership in research, Being a role model, Upholding standards of scholarship, Influencing the work and direction of the university*, while the priorities of institutions as *Leadership in research, Income generation, Upholding standards of scholarship, Helping other colleagues to develop and Being a role model*. From these results, Macfarlane (2011) identified 6 academic intellectual leadership roles for professoriate as *Role model, Mentor, Advocate, Guardian, Acquistor* and *Ambassador*, and indicated that several changes strongly influencing academia such as globalization, managerialism, corporatization and entrepreneurialism reshape professorial roles and higher education institutions need to create new ways to develop their leadership capacity by adding the entire range of professorial intellectual leadership behaviors.

In another study, Macfarlane and Chan (2014) searched the professorial intellectual leadership, especially its informal and distributed forms. Their purpose in this study was to identify the important personal characteristics and academic achievements of professors. For this purpose, they used academic obituaries related to reputable professors as data sources. They examined 63 obituaries published in Times Higher Education between 2008 and 2010. During their analysis, Macfarlane and Chan (2014) separated academic intellectual leadership into two categories, *Personal Characteristics*; values, roles, public intellectual, belief and unifying vision/mission, and *Scholarly Attributes*; academic duty (research and teaching), philanthropy (advocate and service) and individuality (accomplishments and challenges). After this analysis, Macfarlane and Chan (2014, p. 294) suggested 4 essential elements for

professorial intellectual leadership as “a passion for transformation, possessing a balance of personal virtues, a commitment to service and overcoming adversity”.

Aypay (2001), in his doctoral dissertation, studied the relationship between organizational structures of higher education institutions and faculty role performance. He used the theoretical frame, derived from Birnbaum (1988) and Berger (2000), for different structures of higher education institutions as collegial, bureaucratic, political, symbolic and systemic, and Boyer’s (1990) four domains for faculty roles, scholarship of research, scholarship of teaching, scholarship of application (service) and scholarship of integration (interdisciplinary work). Aypay (2001) then carried out the study with a pluralistic approach and a matrix structure, and quantitative data collected by questionnaire sent by mail to 398 faculty from 8 different colleges and universities in USA. Aypay (2001) performed regression analysis and found that *Bureaucratic Organizational Structure* was a significant predictor for Scholarship of Integration; *Bureaucratic, Symbolic and Systemic* (has negative relationship) *Organizational Structures* were predictors for Scholarship of Application; *Bureaucratic and Symbolic Organizational Structures* were predictors for Scholarship of Teaching. These findings revealed that the type of organizational structure (may contain various amount of autocratic relations, bureaucratic processes, common values/norms, different communication flows, flexible networks for interaction with environment and academic support practices) in a higher education institution influences the faculty’s role performance and intensity of their teaching, research and service activities.

In another study, Kezar (2013) examined the policies and practices for supporting non-tenure-track faculty (NTTF) and their impacts on faculty’s *Willingness*, *Capacity*, and *Opportunity* to perform. She indicated in the model for universities that *Capacity* refers to professional growth, *Willingness* refers to employment equity, respect, collegiality and flexibility, and *Opportunity* refers to employment equity, academic freedom and autonomy.

Understanding how policies and practices in departments can shape the possibilities for the performance of NTTF in four year institutions, Kezar (2013) used multi-case study methodology and made 107 interviews with NTTF from 25 departments from 3 US universities. After qualitative data analysis, she asserted (at least for NTTF) that values and norms in departmental culture affect willingness to perform, and policies and practices in institutions impact capacity and opportunity to perform. As a result, Kezar (2013, pp. 186-187) suggested that higher education institutions and department, to get higher performance from NTTF, as well as tenured faculty, should establish a work environment which provides “respect, collegiality, employment equity and flexibility for willingness”, “hiring practices and capabilities, professional development and knowledge for capacity”, “equipment, materials, policies, leader behavior, academic freedom and autonomy as opportunity”.

Campbell and O’Meara (2014) investigated the departmental factors which influence faculty’s agency perspective and action; agency was defined as “taking strategic or intentional actions or perspectives towards goals that matter to oneself” (p. 52). They used: i) *Tenure and Promotion Process*, ii) *Work-Life Climate*, iii) *Transparency*, iv) *Person-Department Fit*, v) *Professional Development Resources* and vi) *Collegiality* as departmental factors influencing faculty’s decisions related to the continuity of their career in the same institution. They performed the study using a cross-sectional survey method. After their analysis, they found that only *Professional Development Resources* (institutional support for faculty research and travel, finding grants, and access to research and teaching assistants to protect one’s time), *Work-Life Climate* (the presence of role models in institutions for the ability to balance work and life priorities) and *Person-Department Fit* (the departmental value of teaching, research and service contributions and a good fit of these contributions with faculty’s values) were effectual factors for faculty’s agency perspectives and actions. According to these findings, Campbell and O’Meara (2014, pp.52-54) exhibited that *Professional Development Resources*,

Work-Life Climate and *Person-Department Fit* affect faculty's strategic decisions which navigate their individual, organizational as well as disciplinary and social outcomes such as their job satisfaction, productivity and professional growth, changes in organizational climate, policies and leadership, and changes in norms-expectations of their field and social changes.

The broadest international study related to academic profession was made by The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in 14 countries in 1992-1993. For data collection, 21 pages questionnaire, which covered 71 topics as academics' personal and career data, professional activity (hours and conditions of work, teaching, research, students, access, governance) and their perceived priorities for higher education, was sent to many academic staff and 19472 valid questionnaires were used for data analysis. All analyses were represented in the book *The international academic profession: Portraits of fourteen countries* edited by Philip G. Altbach (1996). One of the general results for each country was that academics thought they struggled with expanding numbers of students by limited resources, perceived strong affiliation to their academic discipline but much weaker affiliation to their own institution, and were distrustful towards their administrators. Also, academic profession was under pressure of high publication expectations, heavy teaching duties, gaining research funds and establishing international scholarly networks. Besides, the study showed that academics' morale was declining and job satisfaction was not very high because of low salaries, limited resources, not enough secretarial support, students' levels of competence, greater bureaucracy, lack of opportunities to pursue their own ideas, threatening professional autonomy and poor relationships with colleagues (Altbach, 1996).

Furthermore, the same dataset gathering by The Carnegie Foundation in 1992-1993 was used by several authors to generate the book *The professoriate: Profile of a profession* edited by Anthony R. Welch (2005d). In this book, the authors mentioned *Challenges and changes in academic profession, Globalization's impact on academia, Institutional*

governance, Internalization of profession, The mobility of academics and students, Job satisfaction, Improvement of teaching, etc. As general results, changing and expanding student structures, internationalization and globalization, new managerialism understanding, entrepreneurialism and corporatization of universities, virtual teaching and learning platforms and multidisciplinary knowledge production were challenges for academia which caused the academic profession to shift from intellectual elitism to expertise in scientific area and to accomplish (with less resources) higher expectations on teaching-learning loads, research grants, academic publication, scholarly activities, interdisciplinary studies, institutional and public service (Welch, 2005d).

After 15 years, the second international study about academic profession was made by The Carnegie Foundation in 2007. In this study, *Changing Academic Profession (CAP) Survey* was used as data collection tools in 14 countries. CAP Survey contains 53 items in 6 different parts as *Career and professional status, General work situation and activities, Teaching, Research, Management and Personal background*. In 2007, data of the CAP study were collected from nearly 15000 academic staff, and many scholarly publications were produced from these data such as *The changing academic profession in international comparative and quantitative perspectives* (2008) as the report of The International Conference on the Changing Academic Profession Project, Hiroshima University, Japan, *Changing governance and management in higher education* (2011) W. Locke, W. K. Cummings and D. Fisher (Eds.), *Scholars in the changing American academy: New contexts, new rules and new roles* (2012) W.K. Cummings and M. J. Finkelstein, *The changing academic profession: Major findings of a comparative survey* (2013) U. Teichler, A. Arimoto and W. K. Cummings and *The internationalization of the academy* (2014) F. Huang, M. Finkelstein and M. Rostan (Eds.).

Coates et al. (2009) also used 2007 CAP Survey results to compare Australian Academic Profession in terms of its attractiveness. After their internationally comparative analysis, Coates et al. (2009) stated that Australian academics' job satisfaction is generally under international mean and many Australian academics consider major job changes within and without academia. However, they reported that academics in Australia earn a salary at a competitive level internationally, and have a manageable teaching load, research time above international average, better opportunities for library facilities and service, telecommunication, computer facilities, office space, technology for teaching, classrooms, laboratories and research equipment and instruments than academics in other countries.

Furthermore, Bentley et al. (2013) made a comparison on job satisfaction, suggesting young people to be an academic, choosing an academic career again and personal strain in academics from 12 countries based on 2007 CAP Survey data. After analysis of data collected from 13403 academics, they found that the international job satisfaction was at a high level and the highest job satisfaction among academics was in Canada, Argentina, Malaysia and Finland. Bentley et al. (2013) also performed regression analysis to determine the effects of some variables on academics' job satisfaction, and presented that, on average for 12 countries, 26.92% of variance is explained by *Motivators and Hygienes, Demographics, Environment and Triggers*. In addition, Bentley et al. (2013) found that *Institutional Resources* (teaching load, teaching/research support staff, laboratories, research equipment, research funding, computer facilities, libraries, secretarial support, etc.), *Administration Process* (a cumbersome administrative process, collegiality in decision-making, good communication between staff, a supportive attitude of administrative staff towards teaching/research, etc.), *Departmental Influence* (influencing academic policies at department level), *Late Career* (over 55 years of age) and *Poor Student Quality* (degree of teaching basic skills due to student deficiencies) are significant predictors for job satisfaction in academics from many countries.

These studies mentioned above provide clear evidence about the mutual relations among communication, climate and managerial practice flexibility in universities, and faculty's intellectual leadership. For instance, Evans et al. (2013), Macfarlane (2011), Macfarlane and Chan (2014) and H. Yılmaz (2007) specified the leadership behaviors expected from academics, and Bakan and Büyükmeşe (2004), Beytekin and Arslan (2013), Gizir and Simsek (2005) and Gizir and Gizir (2005) argued the impact of organizational communication on academics' role behaviors. Alipour (2011), Balcı-Bucak (2002) and Arabacı (2011) pointed out the reflection of communication in organizational climate, while McMurray and Scott (2013) and Schulz (2013) clarified the effects of climate on academics' motivation and performance. According to Akman et al. (2006) and Kezar and Lester (2009), another factor influencing academics' scholarly productivity was institutional support practices, and Maldonado (2003) and O'Meara et al. (2014) indicated the role of effective communication within the functionality of these practices. Furthermore, Altbach (1996), Aypay (2001), Bentley et al. (2013), Campbell and O'Meara (2014), Coates et al. (2009), Kezar (2013) and Welch (2005d) explained how universities' organizational features influence academics' scholarly performance.

During literature review, the associations among *Organizational Communication*, *Organizational Climate*, *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices* and *Academic Intellectual Leadership* were specified by referring to related studies. The theoretical model of the research was then formed as *The relationship between Organizational Communication and Academic Intellectual Leadership is mediated by Organizational Climate and Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices*. In the next chapters, Turkish faculty's perceptions about research variables are examined, the theoretical model is tested by using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) technique, the findings are represented with their interpretations and the conclusions of the research are discussed in the light of related literature.

Chapter IV

This chapter explains the research model in which the research was designed, and the population and sample, data collection tools, data collection process and data analysis techniques used in the research.

Methodology

Research Model

This research aims to investigate the relations among organizational communication, organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities, and faculty's academic intellectual leadership according to faculty's perceptions by accessing more participants. Thus, to operate large scale data collection with practical modality, the research was designed in the correlational research pattern as one of the quantitative research methods. The correlational research method (also known as causal research) can be used in both prediction and relational studies, and "relational studies usually explore the relationship between measures of different variables obtained from the same individuals at approximately the same time to gain a better understanding of factors that contribute to a more complex characteristic" (Mertens, 2010, p. 161). One of the approaches to analyze the causality is Path Analysis which is applied to test theoretical models constructed with the direct or indirect relations between observed and latent variables. Pedhazur (1997, as cited in Ary, Cheser-Jacobs, Razavieh & Sorensen, 2006, p. 390) states, "Path analysis is intended not to discover causes but to shed light on the tenability of the causal models a researcher formulates based on knowledge and theoretical considerations". In this regard, to test the theoretical model proposed by the researcher, Path Analysis was performed by using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) technique. SEM is a more powerful analysis technique to determine each of relations separately between a group of dependent variables than other multiple techniques,

and allows study of the latent variables besides observed variables (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010).

Population and Sample

Faculty, as academics having teaching, research and service duties together, were included in the target population of the research, and research assistants (do not have teaching responsibility), lecturers and instructors (do not have research duties) were excluded. Also, faculty who work in foundation universities were not counted in the population because of the managerial, operational and financial differences between public and foundation universities. Therefore, the population was limited to faculty who work in public universities in Turkey, and composed of 15702 female (33.20%) and 31592 male (66.80%), totally 47294 faculty [15237 professors (32.22%), 9490 associate professors (20.07%) and 22567 assistant professors (47.72%)] (<http://www.yok.gov.tr/>, 16.05.2014; update on 24.10.2014; last update on 02.07.2015).

On the other hand, the researcher did not use any sampling techniques and preferred to reach faculty as much as possible via e-mail containing online questionnaire link. For this reason, contact information (address, telephone number and e-mail) of faculty who are registered to ARBİS were taken from TÜBİTAK web interface related to ARBİS, and e-mail addresses of 33898 faculty were accessed (www.arbis.tubitak.gov.tr, 27.05.2014). These e-mail addresses were then categorized according to geographical regions of Turkey (Akdeniz, Doğu Anadolu, Ege, Güneydoğu Anadolu, İç Anadolu, Karadeniz and Marmara) and establishment years of universities (pre-1992, 1992-2005 and post-2005). After this process, e-mail addresses of faculty were divided into 4 parts, each of them contained the contact information of faculty in universities with different establishment date from different regions. These parts containing e-mail addresses of faculty were used for the pilot application of

Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices Questionnaire, the pilot application of *Academic Intellectual Leadership Questionnaire* and the application of Final Questionnaire (see in Table 10). Besides, 2 criteria were operated in the research for data purification: i) excluding data of all questionnaires having missing data (*to avoid the disadvantages of missing data filling by several techniques like Replace with mean, Exclude cases listwise or Exclude cases pairwise*) (Cox, McIntosh, Reason & Terenzini, 2014) = [279 questionnaires, most of them were completely empty, were eliminated] and ii) including only the data of questionnaires having $s.d. \geq .50$ in the sample (*to eliminate the questionnaires filled randomly*) = [154 questionnaires, many of them had $s.d. \geq .20$, were eliminated].

Table 10.

The Number and Percentage of Sent Online, Return Filled and Remaining Questionnaires after Data Purification

The number of faculty's e-mail addresses	Sent online questionnaires	Filled questionnaires by faculty	Remaining questionnaires after data purification
<i>In the pilot application Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices Questionnaire</i>	8382 (24.73%)	523 (6.24%)	399 (4.76%)
<i>In the pilot application Academic Intellectual Leadership Questionnaire</i>	8664 (25.56%)	554 (6.39%)	359 (4.14%)
<i>In the application of Final Questionnaire</i>	16852 (49.71%)	937 (5.56%)	504 (2.99%)
Total	33898 (100%)	2014 (5.94%)	1262 (3.72%)

After data purification, the questionnaires filled by 504 Turkish faculty were included in the data set, so the sample of the research was composed of these 504 respondents (see in Table 11). This sample is adequate to represent the population of the research with 95% confidence level and ± 2 confidence interval (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 104). The faculty in the sample, according to their personal-institutional characteristics, disperse as consistent with the general distribution of faculty in Turkish universities.

Table 11.

Distribution of Faculty According to Their Personal-Institutional Characteristics

Gender	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>					
	179 35.5%	324 64.3%					
Seniority	<i>0-5 Years</i>	<i>6-10 Years</i>	<i>11-15 Years</i>	<i>16-20 Years</i>	<i>21-...</i>		
	122 24.2%	81 16.1%	85 16.9%	84 16.7%	131 26.0%		
Academic Title	<i>Assist. Prof.</i>	<i>Assoc. Prof.</i>	<i>Prof.</i>				
	178 35.3%	141 28.0%	173 34.3%				
Discipline	<i>Applied Sci.</i>	<i>Art & Humanities</i>	<i>Natural Sci.</i>	<i>* S.& C.S.</i>			
	229 45.4%	47 9.3%	65 12.9%	151 30.0%			
Administrative Duties	<i>Institutional Level</i>	<i>Departmental Level</i>	<i>Others</i>	<i>Don't Have</i>			
	71 14.1%	158 31.3%	48 9.5%	220 43.7%			
Establishment Dates of Universities	<i>Pre-1992</i>	<i>1992 - 2005</i>	<i>Post-2005</i>				
	235 46.6%	165 32.7%	101 20.0%				
Regions of Universities	<i>Aegean</i>	<i>Black Sea</i>	<i>Central Ana.</i>	<i>East Ana.</i>	<i>Marmara</i>	<i>Mediterranean</i>	<i>Southeast Ana.</i>
	65 12.9%	51 10.1%	130 25.8%	52 10.3%	133 26.4%	35 6.9%	36 7.1%

*Social and Creative Sciences

Data Collection Instruments

As a data collection instrument of this research, the questionnaire, composed of the personal-institutional information form, Organizational Communication Scale, Organizational Climate Scale, Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices Scale and Academic Intellectual Leadership Scale, was applied to faculty in Turkish public universities as online via e-mail.

Personal-institutional information form [Kişisel ve kurumsal bilgi formu]. This form contains several questions related to faculty's personal characteristics and their universities' features. Personal characteristics questions cover faculty's gender (female or male), seniority, academic title, discipline and managerial duties. Faculty's seniority was

divided into categories for each 5 years (*0-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years and 21 and more years*), and academic titles have 3 different ranks (*Professor, Associate Professor and Assistant Professor*). Herewith, the researcher collected information related to faculty's disciplines by open-writing question, and then categorized disciplines according to disciplinary model developed by *Anthony Biglan* (1973, as cited in Chynoweth, 2009) as *Applied Sciences, Arts & Humanities, Natural Sciences and Social & Creative Professions* (see Figure 18).

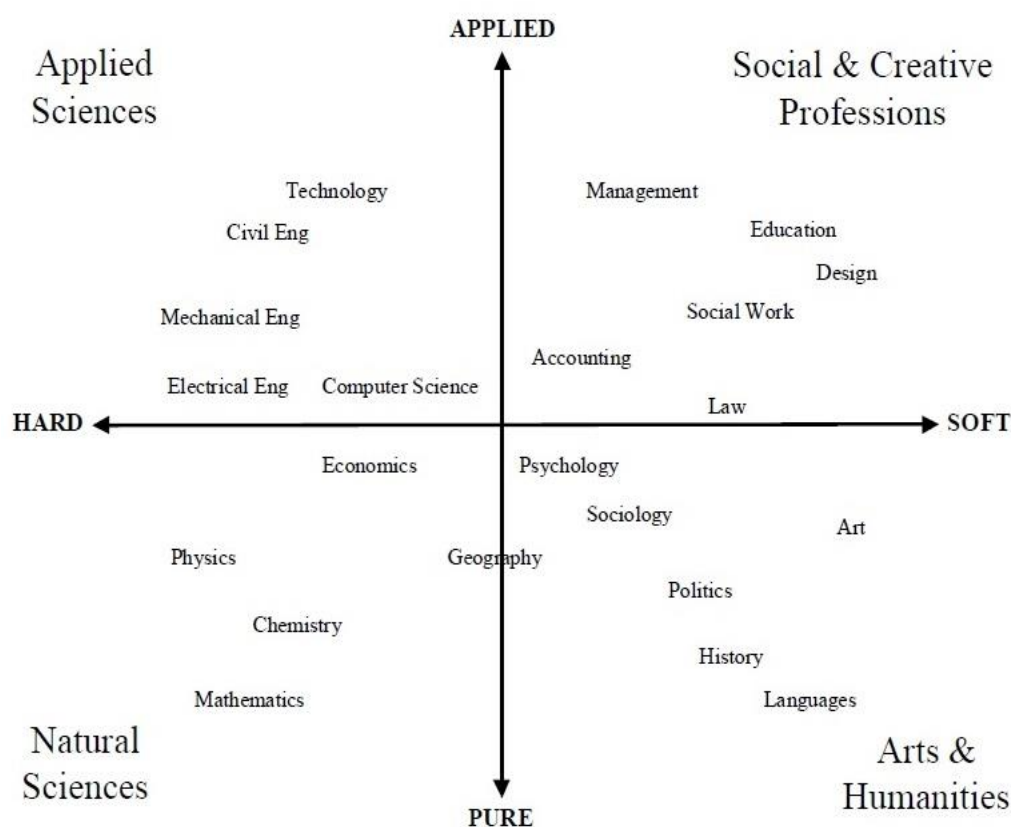


Figure 18. The Biglan disciplinary model (Chynoweth, 2009, p.304)

Additionally, managerial duties of faculty were grouped as Institutional Level (*Rector, Vice-Rector, Dean, Vice-Dean, Manager of Graduate School, Deputy Manager of Graduate School, Manager of Higher Education School and Deputy Manager of Higher Education*

School), Department Level (*Head of Department and Head of Branch*), Others (*Director of Research Centre, Chair of Institute, Leader of Research Group, etc.*) and Not Possess Managerial Duty. Moreover, questions related to the universities in which faculty study include their location as geographical regions (*Akdeniz, Doğu Anadolu, Ege, Güneydoğu Anadolu, İç Anadolu, Karadeniz and Marmara*) and establishment dates as Pre-1992, 1992-2005 and Post-2005.

Organizational communication scale [Örgütsel iletişim ölçeği]. The organizational communication scale used in the research was developed by E. Yılmaz (2007). This scale is composed of 11 items in 5 Point Likert Type (Strongly Disagree=1; Strongly Agree=5) and has two dimensions as *Informal Communication [Enformal İletişim]* (6 items) and *Formal Communication [Formal İletişim]* (5 items). The validity and reliability studies of the scale were performed by E. Yılmaz (2007), and she found that 6 items for informal communication have factor loadings between .620 and .818 ($\alpha=.70$ as reliability coefficient) and 5 items of formal communication have .640-.837 factor loadings ($\alpha=.82$). According to these results, the scale can explain 65% of variance of organizational communication.

After collecting data with final questionnaire, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was performed, and model fit indexes were found as χ^2 (Chi-Square)=256.665, $p=.000$; χ^2/df (Chi-Square/Degree of Freedom)=5.969; GFI (Goodness of Fit Index)=.916; AGFI (Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index)=.872; CFI (Comparative Fit Index)=.933; RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation)=.099. These model fit indexes, especially χ^2/df and RMSEA, show weak fit values for the scale's factor structure, and there could be potential troubles related to the factor structure (Hair et al., 2010). Then, reliability analysis was carried out by Cronbach Alpha method, and α was found as .649 for the scale besides .187 for Informal Communication and .883 for Formal Communication. After these α scores, item-total

correlations were examined and 3 items were defined as having negative correlations. The researcher decided to exclude these items one by one, and to check the factor structure after each excluded item. At first, Item 1 (having the highest negative correlation) was expelled, and validity and reliability analyses were conducted. Before validity analysis, normal distributions of 10 items was examined by Skewness and Kurtosis coefficient and they were found between -2 and +2; showing that items have normal distributions (Can, 2014), and then item-total correlations were checked and found between .399 and .796, showing enough correlation coefficient to proceed to the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) (Çokluk, Şekercioğlu & Büyüköztürk, 2014). Factor structure was then analyzed by Principal Component Technique, and 1 factor structure, which can explain 57.792% of variance for Organizational Communication, was found for the scale with 10 items (see in Table 12). When the researcher analyzed reliability by Cronbach Alpha method, he found $\alpha=.915$; indicating that the scale has very high reliability.

Table 12.

*The Results of EFA for Organizational Communication Scale**

Item No	Factor Loading
<i>Org Com 9</i>	.851
<i>Org Com 10</i>	.848
<i>Org Com 8</i>	.838
<i>Org Com 2</i>	.807
<i>Org Com 5</i>	.789
<i>Org Com 4</i>	.764
<i>Org Com 7</i>	.759
<i>Org Com 6</i>	.745
<i>Org Com 3</i>	.643
<i>Org Com 11</i>	.467
KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.944
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	$\chi^2=2863.692, p=.000$
Initial Eigen Value	5.779
Total Variance Explained	57.792%
Cronbach Alpha (α)	.915

* According to Component Matrix

Finally, secondary CFA was proceeded with and model fit indexes were found as $\chi^2=93.617, p=.000$; $\chi^2/df=2.753$; GFI=.962; AGFI=.938; CFI=.979; RMSEA=.059, and these

coefficients are evidences of the good fit for 1 factor structure of Organizational Communication Scale. As a result, Organizational Communication Scale with 10 items in 1 factor structure was used in the rest of the research.

Organizational climate scale [Örgüt iklimi ölçeği]. The scale used in the research to examine Organizational Climate was developed by *George H. Litwin* and *Robert A. Stringer*, and updated by Stringer (2002). This scale is composed of 24 items in 5 Point Likert Type. Hocaniyazov (2008) translated the scale into Turkish and performed validity and reliability analyses. Besides, Özdede (2010), in his master thesis, applied the scale to a limited number of faculty from Dokuz Eylül University, Turkey and carried out the validity and reliability analyses. Also, Kılınç-Ergülen (2011) used the same scale in her master thesis study within organizations from service sector, and carried out validity and reliability analyses. Each of them found different factorial structures and α coefficients. Thus, the researcher decided to examine all of these structures and to use the one which has better CFA fit results.

Firstly, the factorial structure in Hocaniyazov's (2008) study was checked by CFA, and model fit indexes were found as $\chi^2=540.447$, $p=.000$; $\chi^2/df=4.094$; GFI=.892; AGFI=.860; CFI=.880; RMSEA=.078 (medium level fit). Secondly, factorial structure formed by Özdede (2010) was examined, and model fit indexes were found as $\chi^2=667.103$, $p=.000$; $\chi^2/df=3.587$; GFI=.885; AGFI=.857; CFI=.905; RMSEA=.072 (medium level fit). Finally, 2 factors structure (named both in Turkish and English by Kılınç-Ergülen (2011) as *Recognition of the Organization [Örgütü Tanıma]* with 7 items and *Supported Structurally [Yapısal Destek]* with 10 items) in Kılınç-Ergülen' (2011) study was tested by CFA, and model fit indexes were found as $\chi^2=413.760$, $p=.000$; $\chi^2/df=3.536$; GFI=.909; AGFI=.881; CFI=.935; RMSEA=.071 (medium level fit). According to these indexes, 2 factor structure found by Kılınç-Ergülen (2011) has the strongest model fit indexes among these 3 studies, and the researcher decided

to use Organizational Climate Scale with 2 dimensions in 17 items in the rest of the research (see in Table 13). Finally, the reliability analysis for Organizational Climate in the research was carried out by using Cronbach Alpha technique, and the reliability coefficient was found $\alpha=.933$ ($\alpha=.876$ for *Recog. of the Org.* and $\alpha=.891$ for *Supp. Struc.*) which shows high level of reliability for the scale.

Table 13.

*The Results of EFA for Organizational Climate Scale**

Item No	Factor 1 Recognition of the organization	Factor 2 Supported Structurally
<i>Org Cli 5</i>	.875	
<i>Org Cli 6</i>	.875	
<i>Org Cli 7</i>	.807	
<i>Org Cli 19</i>	.790	
<i>Org Cli 20</i>	.743	
<i>Org Cli 23</i>	.661	
<i>Org Cli 4</i>	.607	
<i>Org Cli 15</i>		.798
<i>Org Cli 11</i>		.764
<i>Org Cli 21</i>		.740
<i>Org Cli 1</i>		.728
<i>Org Cli 2</i>		.670
<i>Org Cli 16</i>		.660
<i>Org Cli 10</i>		.635
<i>Org Cli 3</i>		.560
<i>Org Cli 22</i>		.549
<i>Org Cli 17</i>		.530
KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.944	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	$\chi^2=3613.210, p=.000$	
Total Variance Explained	31.393%	29.520%
Cronbach Alpha (α)	.945	.913

*Retrieved from Kılınç-Ergülen (2011, p. 72)

Managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices scale [Bilimsel-sosyal uygulamalara ilişkin yönetsel esneklik ölçeği]. The researcher firstly reviewed the literature of higher education, but he accessed a limited number of studies only related to the influence of institutional resources on academics' job satisfaction, mostly not include academic support practices operated by university management. For this reason, to identify the existing support mechanisms instituted by university management and the expectations of faculty related to

managerial practices to facilitate their scholarly activities, the researcher carried out interviews with Australian and Turkish faculty, some of whom have administrative duties like vice-deputy chancellor, dean, assoc. dean, head of school and chair of department.

Turkish participants were selected from different disciplines and universities in different regions of Turkey, and then, to detect varied institutional resources in their universities related to scholarly practices and their expectations from university management, face-to-face interviews were conducted with 16 Turkish faculty (6 *female* [37.5%] and 10 *male* [62.5%]), as representatives of their colleagues (see in Table 14). In addition, the higher education authorities in Turkey recently prepared new strategies to enhance universities' academic productivity by using academic performance assessment system to reward academics' scholarly performance, and to attract more international students by increasing academic reputation of Turkish higher education institutions (Aypay, 2015; Çetinsaya, 2014). In the contrast to Turkey, Australia has many high-ranked universities in international rankings, mostly formed according to research productivity, and attracts many students from different countries (Coates et al., 2009; Welch, 2012). Therefore, to investigate the institutional resources and managerial operations behind the higher academic productivity and the success in attracting huge volume international students, the researcher selected Australian faculty from departments of Australian universities in Top 50 of QS Worldwide University Rankings by Subjects (www.topuniversities.com, 11.07.2014), and then carried out interviews with 6 female (37.5%) and 10 male (62.5%) faculty (see in Table 14).

During these interviews, a semi-structured interview form developed by the researcher was used. This interview form was composed of 6 questions related to the flexibility generated by different managerial support practices towards academics' scholarly activities. These questions were arranged according to 3 main scholarly practice areas as teaching,

research and service activities. The questions were written in Turkish, and then English version was created with similar questions.

Table 14.

The Distribution of Australian and Turkish Participants of Interviews

	Australian Participant			Turkish Participant		
	Prof.	Assoc. Prof.		Prof.	Assoc. Prof.	Assis. Prof.
<i>Arts and Humanities</i>	2	1	<i>Arts and Sports</i>	2	2	-
<i>Engineering and Technology</i>	-	2	<i>Architecture and Engineering</i>	1	-	1
<i>Natural Sciences</i>	1	1	<i>Sciences and Mathematics</i>	-	1	-
<i>Life Sciences and Medicine</i>	2	1	<i>Medical and Health Sciences</i>	1	1	1
<i>Social Sciences</i>	6	-	<i>Social Sciences and Humanities</i>	2	2	2
Total	11	5	Total	6	6	4

At first, interviews with Turkish faculty were conducted and each interview took approximately 45 minutes, and only one of the interviewee did not agree with the audio recording. The researcher carried then out several interviews with Australian faculty during his research visit, and each of them took almost 30 minutes. Finally, all recorded interviews were transcribed and the qualitative data set was created. This data set analyzed in accordance with phenomenological research approach (Creswell, 2007) by operating data reduction and data compaction steps and using thematic descriptive analysis technique (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

As outcomes of interviews (see in Table 15); the managerial practices, which are existing or expected, in *Teaching Theme* are ‘physical-technological sufficiency of teaching-learning environment’, ‘quick arrangements for outdoor activities’, ‘teaching material and equipment’, ‘pedagogical trainings’ and ‘manageable teaching workloads’, in *Research Theme* are ‘support towards patent and intellectual property’, ‘connections with industrial and governmental institutions’, ‘activities to develop research abilities’, ‘funding the participation

in academic events' and 'easy access to the scholarly publications', and in *Service Theme* are 'ground providing for service activities', 'assistance for the delivery of academics' commentaries to public', 'field trip for social phenomenon research', 'supporting academics to establish and lead NGOs' and 'encouraging academics to be involved in social projects'.

Table 15.

Main Findings from Interviews with Australian and Turkish Faculty

Managerial Flexibility *	
Regarding Teaching Practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - physical-technological suitability of teaching-learning places - ground support for lesson activities within social works - quick arrangements for outdoor teaching-learning activities - supplying necessary materials and equipment for teaching-learning activities - accessing tech. and science labs, art and sport salons after hours by academics and students - <i>course evaluation by students</i> - <i>ICT support for Learning Management System (Blackboard, TurnitIn, etc.)</i> - <i>pedagogical support units (teac. & lear. institute for academics, learning center for students)</i> - <i>teaching support staff (tutors, teaching assistants, evaluators, etc.)</i> - <i>professional support for curriculum development, accreditation and evaluation</i>
Regarding Research Practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - informing academics about external project funds - professional support related to intellectual properties and obtaining patents - establishing connections between academics and industrial or governmental institutions - easy access to scientific resources by libraries - opportunities to develop academics' foreign language abilities - <i>professional support by research office (proposal prep., project admin. and dissem. of results)</i> - <i>workshops, seminars, etc. about writing research proposal</i> - <i>Sabbatical, research or conference leave with travel fund</i> - <i>research/project grand search engine/software</i> - <i>associate dean/supervisor responsible from research</i>
Regarding Service Practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - assistance to deliver the academics' commentaries about social issues to the public - encouraging academics to participate in national and international social projects - facilitating academics' participation in institutional opinion communiques for social events - arranging field trips to investigate social phenomenon within their own conditions - supporting academics to establish or lead the NGOs related to social or community service - <i>supporting speech in media and talk publicly by providing media support for external activities</i> - <i>arranging several official service activities and establishing several community networks</i> - <i>providing venue for social service activities</i> - <i>organizing publicity activities and information sessions for potential university students</i> - <i>appreciating service activities and providing duty leave for external community service activities</i>

* *Italic expressions* indicate Australian faculty's responses, and others indicate mostly Turkish faculty's expectations

Then, based on these findings, 103 items were generated for Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices Questionnaire. This 103 item questionnaire was sent to 52 Turkish faculty from different disciplines and universities by e-mail to get their opinion

related to the questionnaire, but only 6 of them (all from Department of Educational Administration & Supervision of different universities) gave a reply to indicate their opinion about items. Based on these opinions, several arrangements of items were made and the second version of the questionnaire with 51 items was composed. The second version, for expert opinion, was presented to 3 academics who study in the Department of Educational Sciences, Faculty of Education, Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University (ÇOMÜ), Turkey. To ensure the content validity of the questionnaire, some regulations were carried out according to their suggestions, and 36 items were formed for the last version of the questionnaire. Then, for face validity, the questionnaire items were checked by 3 different Turkish experts from ÇOMÜ and some corrections were made on the questionnaire. Finally, this 36 item questionnaire was arranged as an online survey, and sent to 8382 Turkish faculty in a pilot application via e-mail including survey link. The online questionnaire was filled by 523 faculty, and 399 of them were included in the data analysis after data purification process (*s.d. ≥ .50 and exclusion of questionnaires which have missing data*).

Before testing the factor structure of the questionnaire, the sufficiency of respondent numbers for factor analysis was checked, and 399 respondents were found enough to proceed Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) according to general rule “there should be at least 5 subjects per variable and a total of no fewer than 100 subjects” (Bryman & Cramer, 1990, as cited in Cohen et al., 2007, p. 563). As the next step, normal distributions of items were examined by Skewness and Kurtosis parameters (found between -2 and +2 as evidences for normal distributions of items) (Can, 2014), and then item-total correlations were checked (found between .442 and .775 as enough item-total correlations for EFA) (Çokluk et al., 2014). Then, to explore the structural validity of *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices Questionnaire*, EFA analysis was performed by using Principal Component and Varimax Rotation techniques, and 3-factorial structure with 14 items (explain 63.669% of

variances) was found after the exclusion of items which have conjoint or insufficient factor loadings (see in Table 16). According to item distributions, first factor was named as *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Service Practices [Toplum Hizmeti Uygulamalarına İlişkin Yönetmel Esneklik]* (5 items), second as *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Research Practices [Araştırma Uygulamalarına İlişkin Yönetmel Esneklik]* (4 items) and third as *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Teaching Practices [Öğretim Uygulamalarına İlişkin Yönetmel Esneklik]* (5 items). Finally, the reliability of *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices Scale [Bilimsel-Sosyal Uygulamalara İlişkin Yönetmel Esneklik Ölçeği]* was tested by Cronbach Alpha method and calculated as $\alpha=.917$ ($\alpha=.858$ for *Ser. Prac.*, $\alpha=.793$ for *Res. Prac.* and $\alpha=.832$ for *Teac. Prac.*); this alpha coefficient indicates that the scale has very high reliability.

Table 16.

*The Results of EFA for Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices Scale**

Item No	Factor 1 Man. Flex. Reg. Service Prac.	Factor 2 Man. Flex. Reg. Research Prac.	Factor 3 Man. Flex. Reg. Teaching Prac.
<i>Man Flex 33</i>	.765	.180	.288
<i>Man Flex 15</i>	.710	.308	.148
<i>Man Flex 27</i>	.709	.023	.335
<i>Man Flex 21</i>	.704	.329	.183
<i>Man Flex 18</i>	.695	.366	.263
<i>Man Flex 11</i>	.294	.751	.086
<i>Man Flex 5</i>	.333	.711	.195
<i>Man Flex 35</i>	.077	.698	.229
<i>Man Flex 2</i>	.198	.695	.347
<i>Man Flex 1</i>	.117	.217	.862
<i>Man Flex 13</i>	.299	.157	.740
<i>Man Flex 7</i>	.463	.303	.601
<i>Man Flex 3</i>	.410	.426	.558
<i>Man Flex 25</i>	.299	.205	.481
KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.935	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		$\chi^2=2740.617$, p=.000	
Initial Eigen Value	6.783	1.124	1.007
Total Variance Explained (63.669%)	24.185%	19.964%	19.52%
Cronbach Alpha ($\alpha=.917$)	.858	.793	.832

* According to Rotated Component Matrix

After exploring the structure, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was applied to the scale, and model fit indexes were found as $\chi^2=174.168$, $p=.000$; $\chi^2/df=2.386$; GFI=.940; AGFI=.913; CFI=.962; RMSEA=.059 (highly good fit). For secondary CFA of the scale, the data set of the final survey application was used, and model fit indexes were found as $\chi^2=174.480$, $p=.000$; $\chi^2/df=2.457$; GFI=.952; AGFI=.929; CFI=.971; RMSEA=.054 (highly good fit). Lastly, reliability of the scale was examined again using with data of the final survey application, and found as very high with $\alpha=.924$ for *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices Scale* ($\alpha=.832$ for *Man. Flex. Regarding Service Prac.*, $\alpha=.783$ for *Man. Flex. Regarding Research Prac.* and $\alpha=.851$ for *Man. Flex. Regarding Teaching Prac.*).

Academic intellectual leadership scale [Akademik entelektüel liderlik ölçeği]. The scale was developed by the researcher based on the framework of professorial intellectual leadership in Macfarlane (2011) as 6 dimensions (*these dimensions was named in Turkish after taking opinions of 3 experts from Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University (ÇOMÜ), Turkey; first one is a faculty in Foreign Language Education Department, the other one is a faculty, who had lived in USA for many years, in Educational Administration & Supervision Department and the last one is a faculty in Turkish Language Education Department*); Role Model [*Model Olma*], Mentor [*Rehber Olma*], Advocate [*Savunucu Olma*], Guardian (Steward) [*Gözetici Olma*], Acquisitor (Enabler) [*Kazandırıcı Olma*] and Ambassador [*Temsilci Olma*]. Firstly, item pool containing 235 items was generated by benefiting from related literature (Atila, 2009; Aypay, 2001; Bexley et al., 2011; Bolden et al., 2014; Coates et al., 2008; Evans et al., 2013; Kezar et al., 2007; Kezar & Lester, 2009; Macfarlane, 2007a; 2007b; 2011; 2012; Macfarlane & Chan, 2014; Neumann, 2011; O'Meara, 2005; Teichler et al., 2013; Welch, 2005d; H. Yılmaz, 2007). This version of Academic Intellectual Leadership Questionnaire was examined by 3 academics from Educational Administration & Supervision

Department, ÇOMÜ; then several arrangements were made by the exclusion or the combination of some questions according to these experts' suggestions. After this process, the second version of the questionnaire was composed with 131 items, and it was sent via e-mail to 52 Turkish faculty from different disciplines and universities in order to gather expert opinion. 7 of these academics (4 from Educational Administration & Supervision field, 2 from Medical & Health Sciences and 1 from Fine Arts) sent their replies including their suggestions about items, and third version of the questionnaire was written as 95 items. This version was presented to 3 academics studying on Educational Sciences in ÇOMÜ, and then the final version of the questionnaire having the content and face validities was composed with 72 items (12 items for each dimension) after their directions.

As a next step, the questionnaire was prepared as an online survey, and the link was sent to 8664 Turkish faculty in a pilot application via e-mail. 554 faculty responded to the online questionnaire, but, after data purification (*s.d. ≥ 50 and exclusion of questionnaires which have missing data*) 359 valid questionnaires were left. Then, the sufficiency of respondent number for factor analysis was checked, and 359 respondents were accepted sufficient to proceed Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) according to the rule; at least 5 subjects per variable and a total of no fewer than 100 subjects ($72 \text{ items} \times 5 = 360$). Next, normal distributions for items were examined by Skewness & Kurtosis parameters, which were found between -2 and +2 (normal distributions indicator) but only 1 item (#31) did not show normal distribution so it was excluded from analysis (Can, 2014). And then, item-total correlations were detected between .370 and .725, and these correlations show adequate item-total correlations for EFA (Çokluk et al., 2014). After satisfying the preconditions of EFA, the structural validity of *Academic Intellectual Leadership Questionnaire* was performed with 71 items by Principal Component and Varimax Rotation techniques.

As a result of EFA, it was observed that all of 11 items (because of exclusion of #31) formed for *Role Model* dimension were scattered into other dimensions, so that 5-dimensional structure for *Academic Intellectual Leadership Scale* was developed. For the explanation of this situation, the related studies were examined again, and it was assessed that *Role Model* includes several common behaviors within other dimensions (Macfarlane, 2011; 2012) and covers many personal characteristics of academics (Macfarlane, 2012; Macfarlane & Chan, 2014). Hence, the dispersion of items in *Role Model* into other dimension was comprehended as a potential outcome for the research. In conclusion, 5 factors in 20 items (4 items for each dimension) were emerged after EFA, and the scale succeeds in explaining 64.83% of variance as a highly reliable scale according to Cronbach Alpha analysis with $\alpha=.906$ (see in Table 17).

Table 17.

*The Results of EFA for Academic Intellectual Leadership Scale**

Item No	Factor 1 Ambassador	Factor 2 Mentor	Factor 3 Acquistor	Factor 4 Guardian	Factor 5 Advocate
<i>Acad Lead 30</i>	.746	.095	.207	-.043	.114
<i>Acad Lead 18</i>	.723	.139	.090	.018	.136
<i>Acad Lead 66</i>	.702	.159	.132	.235	.225
<i>Acad Lead 54</i>	.590	.129	.159	.367	.203
<i>Acad Lead 26</i>	.144	.798	.070	.028	.147
<i>Acad Lead 20</i>	.162	.713	.173	.193	.031
<i>Acad Lead 14</i>	.087	.664	.339	.122	.038
<i>Acad Lead 38</i>	.121	.661	.093	.275	.271
<i>Acad Lead 11</i>	.036	.098	.848	.120	.134
<i>Acad Lead 17</i>	.075	.201	.760	.260	.129
<i>Acad Lead 5</i>	.393	.206	.685	.081	.008
<i>Acad Lead 23</i>	.403	.191	.656	.150	.121
<i>Acad Lead 40</i>	-.042	-.042	.249	.741	.081
<i>Acad Lead 64</i>	.166	.456	.042	.657	.113
<i>Acad Lead 58</i>	.180	.302	.143	.641	.151
<i>Acad Lead 70</i>	.401	.338	.192	.553	.138
<i>Acad Lead 33</i>	-.078	.388	.118	-.064	.732
<i>Acad Lead 39</i>	.411	.014	.085	.203	.684
<i>Acad Lead 45</i>	.369	.124	.263	.210	.662
<i>Acad Lead 51</i>	.436	.063	.018	.250	.636
KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.917				
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	$\chi^2=3042.480, p=.000$				
Initial Eigen Value	7.360	1.811	1.562	1.184	1.049
Total Variance Explained (64.83%)	15.191%	14.042%	13.304%	11.403%	10.89%
Cronbach Alpha ($\alpha=.906$)	.780	.783	.836	.760	.783

* According to Rotated Component Matrix

After detecting the validity of the scale, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was performed for the scale, and model fit indexes were found as $\chi^2=308.926$, $p=.000$; $\chi^2/df=1.943$; GFI=.919; AGFI=.893; CFI=.949; RMSEA=.051 (highly good fit). For secondary CFA of the scale, data of the final survey application were used, and model fit indexes were found as $\chi^2=520.158$, $p=.000$; $\chi^2/df=3.292$; GFI=.904; AGFI=.872; CFI=.910; RMSEA=.068 (moderate level fit). Finally, the reliability of the scale was checked again using data of the final survey application, and found to be very high with $\alpha=.908$ for *Academic Intellectual Leadership Scale* ($\alpha=.734$ for *Ambassador*, $\alpha=.816$ for *Mentor*, $\alpha=.789$ for *Acquistor*, $\alpha=.737$ for *Guardian* and $\alpha=.788$ for *Advocate*).

Data Collection

Initially, the population of the research was targeted as Turkish faculty, and the researcher tried to reach many of them by e-mail. At this point, contact information of faculty who registered in ARBİS were accessed from TÜBİTAK web interface related to ARBİS, and in total 33898 faculty's e-mail addresses as categorized by cities, in which faculty live, were gathered. These e-mails were re-categorized again according to universities (totally 104 public universities in Turkey) in which faculty study, and then they were distributed according to universities' geographical regions and establishment dates (see in Table 18). These e-mails were divided into 4, based on the establishment date and the location of universities, and 1 part (8664 faculty's e-mails) was used in pilot application of *Academic Intellectual Leadership Questionnaire*, 1 part (8382 e-mail addresses) for the pilot application of *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices Questionnaire* and the rest (16852 e-mails) for the final application of online questionnaire.

Table 18.

*The Number of Universities According to Geographical Regions and Establishment Dates**

Geographic Regions	Establishment Date		
	Pre-1992	1992-2005	Post-2005
<i>Aegean</i>	2 (1.92%)	7 (6.73%)	2 (1.92%)
<i>Black Sea</i>	2 (1.92%)	3 (2.88%)	12 (11.54%)
<i>Central Anatolia</i>	9 (8.65%)	2 (1.92%)	11 (10.58%)
<i>East Anatolia</i>	4 (3.85%)	1 (0.96%)	11 (10.58%)
<i>Marmara</i>	10 (9.62%)	4 (3.85%)	7 (6.73%)
<i>Mediterranean</i>	2 (1.92%)	4 (3.85%)	4 (3.85%)
<i>Southeast Anatolia</i>	2 (1.92%)	1 (0.96%)	4 (3.85%)
Total	31 (29.81%)	22 (21.15%)	51 (49.04%)

*Retrieved from <http://www.yok.gov.tr/>, 16.05.2014

During the research, quantitative data were collected via online surveys and qualitative data via interviews. After deciding ‘which data collection instruments were necessary’, related literature was reviewed to assign organizational communication scale (*developed and validity & reliability analyses made by E. Yılmaz in 2007*) and organizational climate scale (*developed by Litwin & Stringer in 1968 and updated by Stringer in 2002, translated into Turkish by Hocaniyazov in 2008 and validity & reliability analyses made by Kılınç-Ergülen in 2011*) to use in the research. Then, another scale, benefiting from the literature, was developed by the researcher to peruse faculty’s academic intellectual leadership behaviors. At first, in the pilot application, this scale was applied 8864 Turkish faculty as online questionnaire via e-mails, and then validity and reliability analyses were performed by using the data from 359 respondents. As the final step, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was carried out to test the suitability of the scale’s factorial structure.

For the last scale of the research, the literature was reviewed, but not many studies directly related to managerial support practices to facilitate scholarly activities in universities were found. Thus, several semi-structured interviews about managerial practices for facilitating academics’ teaching, research and service activities were made with Turkish faculty from different disciplines and universities. As the next step to generate a more comprehensive scale, some interviews with Australian faculty, who study in Top World 50’s

disciplines and universities according to QS University Rankings by Subject 2014, were carried out during the researchers' Australia visit by using similar questions in the Turkish form. Before pursuing these interviews, the researcher prepared necessary documents under the guidance of Prof. Anthony Welch (Faculty of Education and Social Work, University of Sydney), and sent to Human Research Ethic Committee at the University of Sydney for ethical approval, that is a precondition to perform any research in Australia, with the collaboration of Prof. Anthony Welch. The ethical approval was given nearly two months later, and then the researcher started to interview senior academics (*Prof. and Assoc. Prof.*) in Australia; these interviews were recorded after taking their signature in the Participant Consent Form.

Then, these qualitative data were analyzed by descriptive analysis technique under 3 themes; Managerial Practices for *Teaching, Research* and *Service*. Based on the main points emerged from these data, the researcher prepared *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices Questionnaire* for the pilot application. The questionnaire was arranged as online, and applied 8382 Turkish faculty via e-mails. The data of 399 respondents were assumed as valued to determine the structural validity and reliability of the scale by Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Cronbach Alpha coefficient (α).

After obtaining all scales, the questionnaire for final application was prepared as an online form by adding the personal-institutional information form (*contains questions about respondents' gender, seniority, academic title, discipline, managerial duty, and universities' locations and establishment dates*). Finally, the questionnaire was sent to 16852 Turkish faculty via e-mails, and then all analyses towards to the research questions were performed by using the data collected from 504 faculty.

Data Analysis

During the data analysis, the researcher used MS Office - Excel 2010 (for Data Purification), SPSS 21.0 (for *Descriptive, Inferential and Correlational Analysis*, and *Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)*) and AMOS 20.0 (for *Path and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)* by using *Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)*). In the scale development, the suitability of data from pilot applications of *Academic Intellectual Leadership* and *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices* Questionnaires for validity analysis was checked using Skewness & Kurtosis technique and item-total correlations. To assess normal distribution for items, Skewness & Kurtosis values between -2 and +2 were employed as a criterion (Can, 2014), and at least $r=.20$ item-total correlations for items were accepted as enough for factor analysis (Çokluk et al., 2014). Then, structural validity of the scales was explored via EFA with Principal Component and Varimax Rotation methods, and the reliability of the scales and their factors were assessed by using Cronbach Alpha technique (.60 and more α coefficient was assented as evidence of reliability) (Hair et al., 2010). Besides, the factorial structures of the scales were tested again with CFA, and *Chi-Square* (χ^2), *Chi-Square/Degree of Freedom* (χ^2/df), *Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)*, *Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)*, *Comparative Fit Index (CFI)* and *Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)* were used as model fit indexes with the acceptance intervals in Table 19.

Additionally, normal distributions of the data set of scales and their sub-dimensions were checked by visual inspection of histograms, normal Q-Q plots, box plots and Kolmogorov-Smirnov test as the criterion; $p>.05$ is evidence for normal distribution, and nearly all data sets had approximately normal distribution according to categories of independent variables. Then, some sets were examined again to ensure their normality regarding to their Skewness & Kurtosis coefficients, and they were found in -2/+2 interval.

Last of all, parametric analysis techniques; *t* test, F test with *Tukey* (and also *eta square calculation* for effect size) were performed to investigate the differences in .05 significant level on dependent variables (*Organizational Communication, Organizational Climate, Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices, and Academic Intellectual Leadership*) according to independent variables (*Gender, Seniority, Academic Title, Discipline, Managerial Duty, Regions and Establishment Dates of Universities*). Besides, the relationship between variables was examined with Pearson Correlation Coefficient (*r*) in terms of their significance in .01 or .05 level. Finally, the direct and mediating relations in the theoretical model of the research and the fitness of this model were tested by using Path Analysis in SEM, and the same fit indexes in Table 18 were affiliated as criteria of the model fitness.

Table 19.

*Model Fit Indexes for CFA and Path Analysis**

Fit Index	Reference Values	Explanation
χ^2	p = .000	p ≤ .050
χ^2/df	< 2	Good Fit
	< 2,5	Small Sample
	< 3	
	< 5	Moderate Level Fit
GFI	> .90	Good Fit
	> .90	
AGFI	> .90	Perfect Fit
	> .95	
CFI	> .95	n < 250
	> .95	
	> .90	
RMSEA	< .05	Good Fit n < 250 Weak Fit
	< .06	
	< .08	
	< .10	

*Retrieved from Türkmen (2009, p. 51)

Chapter V

This chapter describes the results of data analysis performed to reply the research questions, and the findings and their interpretations are presented in the order of the research questions.

Findings and Interpretations

Faculty's Perceptions about Communication, Climate and Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices, and Their Academic Intellectual Leadership

The first research question is 'What are the levels of faculty's perceptions about organizational communication, organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities, and their academic intellectual leadership?', and the results of data analysis related to this question are given in Table 20.

Table 20.

Faculty's Perceptions about Communication, Climate and Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices in Universities, and Their Academic Intellectual Leadership

VARIABLES	n	\bar{X} *	s.d.	Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Statistic	s.e.	Statistic	s.e.
Organizational Communication	504	2.87	.87	-.10	.11	-.64	.22
Organizational Climate	504	2.95	.82	.03	.11	-.71	.22
<i>Recognition of the Organization</i>	504	2.61	.89	.20	.11	-.62	.22
<i>Supported Structurally</i>	504	3.18	.84	-.09	.11	-.76	.22
Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices	504	3.13	.81	-.17	.11	-.69	.22
<i>Managerial Flexibility Regarding Service Practices</i>	504	2.83	.89	-.02	.11	-.63	.22
<i>Managerial Flexibility Regarding Research Practices</i>	504	3.41	.90	-.31	.11	-.62	.22
<i>Managerial Flexibility Regarding Teaching Practices</i>	504	3.20	.89	-.19	.11	-.62	.22
Academic Intellectual Leadership	504	3.24	.71	-.32	.11	-.34	.22
<i>Ambassador</i>	504	2.96	.92	-.05	.11	-.49	.22
<i>Mentor</i>	504	3.54	.89	-.71	.11	.14	.22
<i>Acquistor</i>	504	3.10	.98	-.21	.11	-.66	.22
<i>Guardian</i>	504	3.76	.75	-.51	.11	-.23	.22
<i>Advocate</i>	504	2.83	.99	-.10	.11	-.83	.22

* 1.00-1.79 = Very Low; 1.80-2.59 = Low; 2.60-3.39 = Medium; 3.40-4.19 = High; 4.20-5.00 = Very High

According to the results in Table 20, faculty's perceptions towards nearly all variables are at a medium level while their perceptions on sub-dimensions as *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Research Practices* (\bar{X} =3.41, s.d=.90), *Mentor* (\bar{X} =3.54, s.d=.89) and *Guardian* (\bar{X} =3.76, s.d=.75) are at a high level. These results indicate that faculty are not highly satisfied with organizational communication, organizational climate and managerial practice flexibility in universities, but universities mostly give preference to support for research activities of faculty. It can also be claimed that faculty give priority to intellectual leadership behaviors which contribute to the advancement of their discipline such as 'producing new knowledge by collaborative studies with their colleagues', 'helping the academic development of their less experienced colleagues', 'introducing values of the profession to young academics', 'keep up the disciplinary standards in others' scholarly products by editing, reviewing and refereeing', etc.

Investigation of Faculty's Perceptions about Communication, Climate and Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices, and Their Academic Intellectual Leadership in Terms of Some Variables

The second research question is '*Are there any significant differences in faculty's perceptions about organizational communication, organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities, and their academic intellectual leadership according to their gender, seniority, academic titles, disciplines, administrative duties, and establishment dates and geographical regions of their universities?*'; Table 21 (for faculty's gender), Table 22 (for faculty's seniority), Table 23 (for faculty's academic titles), Table 24 (for faculty's disciplines), Table 25 (for faculty's administrative duties), Table 26 (for universities' establishment dates) and Table 27 (for universities' geographical regions) present the results of data analyses.

Table 21.

Analysis Results of Faculty's Perceptions According to Their Gender

VARIABLES	GENDER	n	\bar{X}	s.d.	t	d.f.	p *	η^2 **	Dif.
Organizational Communication	1) <i>Male</i>	324	2.87	.88	.00	501	1.00	.00	
	2) <i>Female</i>	179	2.87	.86					
Organizational Climate	1) <i>Male</i>	324	2.92	.81	-1.04	501	.30	.00	
	2) <i>Female</i>	179	3.00	.82					
Recognition of the Organization	1) <i>Male</i>	324	2.57	.88	-1.30	501	.19	.00	
	2) <i>Female</i>	179	2.67	.89					
Supported Structurally	1) <i>Male</i>	324	3.16	.84	-.76	501	.45	.00	
	2) <i>Female</i>	179	3.22	.85					
Man. Flex. Reg. Scholarly Practices	1) <i>Male</i>	324	3.07	.84	-2.13	407	.03*	.01	1<2
	2) <i>Female</i>	179	3.23	.74					
Man. Flex. Reg. Service Practices	1) <i>Male</i>	324	2.78	.90	-1.74	501	.08	.01	
	2) <i>Female</i>	179	2.93	.86					
Man. Flex. Reg. Research Practices	1) <i>Male</i>	324	3.36	.93	-1.86	396	.06	.01	
	2) <i>Female</i>	179	3.51	.85					
Man. Flex. Reg. Teaching Practices	1) <i>Male</i>	324	3.14	.92	-2.03	501	.04*	.01	1<2
	2) <i>Female</i>	179	3.31	.83					
Academic Intellectual Leadership	1) <i>Male</i>	324	3.22	.74	-.76	405	.45	.00	
	2) <i>Female</i>	179	3.27	.66					
Ambassador	1) <i>Male</i>	324	2.94	.95	-.69	405	.49	.00	
	2) <i>Female</i>	179	3.00	.85					
Mentor	1) <i>Male</i>	324	3.48	.90	-2.14	501	.03*	.01	1<2
	2) <i>Female</i>	179	3.66	.87					
Acquistor	1) <i>Male</i>	324	3.13	1.00	.76	501	.45	.00	
	2) <i>Female</i>	179	3.06	.93					
Guardian	1) <i>Male</i>	324	3.73	.77	-1.41	501	.16	.00	
	2) <i>Female</i>	179	3.83	.71					
Advocate	1) <i>Male</i>	324	2.84	.99	.23	501	.82	.00	
	2) <i>Female</i>	179	2.82	.99					

* $p \leq .05$; ** $.00-.06$ = very small effect, $.06-.14$ = moderate effect, $.14-...$ = very large effect

The data in Table 21 shows that, according to their gender, there is a significant difference with a very small effect ($\eta^2=.01$) in faculty's perceptions on *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices* (especially towards teaching practices: $\bar{X}=3.31$; $p \leq .05$) in favor of female faculty ($\bar{X}=3.23$; $p \leq .05$). This difference may be due to the known fact that a few amount of female faculty work in disciplines within S(cience)T(echnology)E(ngineering)M(athematics), so female faculty, especially in humanities and social science areas, need less resources and expensive materials to carry out their teaching activities. In addition, there is a significant difference with a very small effect ($\eta^2=.01$) in *Mentor* dimension of academic intellectual leadership in favor of female faculty ($\bar{X}=3.66$; $p \leq .05$). The difference might be explained as; female faculty, because of their potent

emotional nature, can act more empathically to encourage their less experienced colleagues to advance their careers.

Table 22.

Analysis Results of Faculty's Perceptions According to Their Seniority

VARIABLES	SENIORITY	n	\bar{X}	s.d.	d.f	F	p *	η^{2**}	Dif.
Organizational Communication	1) 0-5 Years	122	2.88	.86	4	1.34	.25	.01	
	2) 6-10 Years	81	2.96	.87	498				
	3) 11-15 Years	85	2.82	.79					
	4) 16-20 Years	84	2.70	.90					
	5) 21-... Years	131	2.95	.92					
Organizational Climate	1) 0-5 Years	122	2.93	.82	4	1.72	.15	.01	
	2) 6-10 Years	81	3.01	.86	498				
	3) 11-15 Years	85	2.99	.75					
	4) 16-20 Years	84	2.74	.76					
	5) 21-... Years	131	3.02	.86					
Recognition of the Organization	1) 0-5 Years	122	2.56	.90	4	1.71	.15	.01	
	2) 6-10 Years	81	2.64	.95	498				
	3) 11-15 Years	85	2.63	.78					
	4) 16-20 Years	84	2.42	.79					
	5) 21-... Years	131	2.73	.95					
Supported Structurally	1) 0-5 Years	122	3.19	.83	4	1.67	.16	.01	
	2) 6-10 Years	81	3.26	.87	498				
	3) 11-15 Years	85	3.24	.79					
	4) 16-20 Years	84	2.97	.81					
	5) 21-... Years	131	3.22	.87					
Man. Flex. Reg. Scholarly Practices	1) 0-5 Years	122	3.04	.82	4	1.43	.22	.01	
	2) 6-10 Years	81	3.22	.78	498				
	3) 11-15 Years	85	3.09	.76					
	4) 16-20 Years	84	3.06	.87					
	5) 21-... Years	131	3.24	.81					
Man. Flex. Reg. Service Practices	1) 0-5 Years	122	2.80	.83	4	.92	.45	.01	
	2) 6-10 Years	81	2.92	.91	498				
	3) 11-15 Years	85	2.75	.85					
	4) 16-20 Years	84	2.75	1.00					
	5) 21-... Years	131	2.92	.88					
Man. Flex. Reg. Research Practices	1) 0-5 Years	122	3.19	.96	4	2.98	.02*	.02	1<5
	2) 6-10 Years	81	3.45	.84	498				
	3) 11-15 Years	85	3.48	.90					
	4) 16-20 Years	84	3.38	.92					
	5) 21-... Years	131	3.57	.85					
Man. Flex. Reg. Teaching Practices	1) 0-5 Years	122	3.15	.90	4	1.24	.29	.01	
	2) 6-10 Years	81	3.33	.87	498				
	3) 11-15 Years	85	3.13	.82					
	4) 16-20 Years	84	3.10	.92					
	5) 21-... Years	131	3.29	.92					
Academic Intellectual Leadership	1) 0-5 Years	122	3.10	.67	4	5.11	.00*	.04	1<5
	2) 6-10 Years	81	3.23	.64	498				3<5
	3) 11-15 Years	85	3.08	.74					
	4) 16-20 Years	84	3.34	.72					
	5) 21-... Years	131	3.43	.72					
Ambassador	1) 0-5 Years	122	2.88	.89	4	3.31	.01*	.03	3<5
	2) 6-10 Years	81	2.89	.88	498				
	3) 11-15 Years	85	2.75	.83					
	4) 16-20 Years	84	3.03	.92					
	5) 21-... Years	131	3.17	.98					

* $p \leq .05$; ** .00-.06 = very small effect, .06-.14 = moderate effect, .14-... = very large effect

Table 22. (Continue)

Analysis Results of Faculty's Perceptions According to Their Seniority

VARIABLES	SENIORITY	n	\bar{X}	s.d.	d.f	F	p *	η^{2**}	Dif.
<i>Mentor</i>	1) 0-5 Years	122	3.42	.83	4	1.93	.10	.02	
	2) 6-10 Years	81	3.53	.89	498				
	3) 11-15 Years	85	3.45	.98					
	4) 16-20 Years	84	3.58	.93					
	5) 21-... Years	131	3.70	.86					
<i>Acquistor</i>	1) 0-5 Years	122	2.96	.99	4	2.87	.02*	.02	-
	2) 6-10 Years	81	3.07	.95	498				
	3) 11-15 Years	85	2.92	1.00					
	4) 16-20 Years	84	3.24	.91					
	5) 21-... Years	131	3.28	.98					
<i>Guardian</i>	1) 0-5 Years	122	3.60	.76	4	3.40	.01*	.03	1<5
	2) 6-10 Years	81	3.81	.71	498				
	3) 11-15 Years	85	3.66	.75					
	4) 16-20 Years	84	3.84	.75					
	5) 21-... Years	131	3.91	.75					
<i>Advocate</i>	1) 0-5 Years	122	2.61	.92	4	5.09	.00*	.04	1<4
	2) 6-10 Years	81	2.82	.94	498				1<5
	3) 11-15 Years	85	2.64	1.02					3<5
	4) 16-20 Years	84	2.99	.96					
	5) 21-... Years	131	3.08	1.01					

* $p \leq .05$; ** .00-.06 = very small effect, .06-.14 = moderate effect, .14-... = very large effect

The analysis in Table 22 indicates that according to faculty's seniority, there is a significant difference with a very small effect ($\eta^2=.02$) in their perceptions about *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Research Practices* in favor of faculty who have 21 or more years seniority ($\bar{X}=3.57$; $p \leq .05$). Faculty with high seniority have gained many experiences related to research opportunities and project management processes during their longer academic careers, so they may have more information about research practices in universities that can be conducive to the difference in terms of seniority. In addition, there is a significant difference arising from faculty's seniority with a very small effect ($\eta^2=.02$) in their *Academic Intellectual Leadership* mostly in favor of faculty with 21 or more years seniority ($\bar{X}=3.43$, $p \leq .05$; in *Ambassador* dimension: $\bar{X}=3.17$, $p \leq .05$; in *Acquistor*: $p \leq .05$; in *Guardian*: $\bar{X}=3.91$; $p \leq .05$ and in *Advocate*: $\bar{X}=3.08$, $p \leq .05$). These findings may demonstrate that faculty having higher seniority have found more opportunities in their advanced academic careers to serve and contribute in their disciplines (as editor, reviewer, panelist, committee member, project

leader, supervisor, etc.), in their institutions (as representative, keynote speaker, event organizer, etc.) and broadly in the community (as scientific advisor, public informer, NGO member, campaigner, etc.).

Table 23.

Analysis Results of Faculty's Perceptions According to Their Academic Titles

VARIABLES	TITLE	n	\bar{X}	s.d.	d.f	F	p *	η^{2**}	Dif.
Organizational Communication	1) <i>Professor</i>	173	2.97	.86	2	2.30	.10	.01	
	2) <i>Assoc.Prof.</i>	141	2.76	.86	489				
	3) <i>Assis.Prof.</i>	178	2.86	.87					
Organizational Climate	1) <i>Professor</i>	173	3.03	.81	2	1.44	.24	.01	
	2) <i>Assoc.Prof.</i>	141	2.88	.80	489				
	3) <i>Assis.Prof.</i>	178	2.92	.83					
Recognition of the Organization	1) <i>Professor</i>	173	2.73	.87	2	2.66	.07	.01	
	2) <i>Assoc.Prof.</i>	141	2.54	.88	489				
	3) <i>Assis.Prof.</i>	178	2.54	.89					
Supported Structurally	1) <i>Professor</i>	173	3.24	.85	2	.78	.46	.00	
	2) <i>Assoc.Prof.</i>	141	3.12	.80	489				
	3) <i>Assis.Prof.</i>	178	3.19	.85					
Man. Flex. Reg. Scholarly Practices	1) <i>Professor</i>	173	3.21	.76	2	2.19	.11	.01	
	2) <i>Assoc.Prof.</i>	141	3.15	.83	489				
	3) <i>Assis.Prof.</i>	178	3.03	.83					
Man. Flex. Reg. Service Practices	1) <i>Professor</i>	173	2.90	.85	2	1.06	.35	.00	
	2) <i>Assoc.Prof.</i>	141	2.85	.93	489				
	3) <i>Assis.Prof.</i>	178	2.76	.86					
Man. Flex. Reg. Research Practices	1) <i>Professor</i>	173	3.51	.82	2	3.67	.03*	.01	3<1
	2) <i>Assoc.Prof.</i>	141	3.46	.88	489				
	3) <i>Assis.Prof.</i>	178	3.26	.97					
Man. Flex. Reg. Teaching Practices	1) <i>Professor</i>	173	3.29	.82	2	1.52	.22	.01	
	2) <i>Assoc.Prof.</i>	141	3.20	.93	489				
	3) <i>Assis.Prof.</i>	178	3.12	.92					
Academic Intellectual Leadership	1) <i>Professor</i>	173	3.41	.67	2	8.93	.00*	.04	2<1
	2) <i>Assoc.Prof.</i>	141	3.23	.70	489				3<1
	3) <i>Assis.Prof.</i>	178	3.10	.71					
Ambassador	1) <i>Professor</i>	173	3.07	.89	2	1.86	.16	.01	
	2) <i>Assoc.Prof.</i>	141	2.91	.89	489				
	3) <i>Assis.Prof.</i>	178	2.89	.94					
Mentor	1) <i>Professor</i>	173	3.73	.86	2	7.11	.00*	.03	3<1
	2) <i>Assoc.Prof.</i>	141	3.58	.84	489				
	3) <i>Assis.Prof.</i>	178	3.38	.92					
Acquistor	1) <i>Professor</i>	173	3.28	.93	2	6.18	.00*	.02	3<1
	2) <i>Assoc.Prof.</i>	141	3.13	.95	489				
	3) <i>Assis.Prof.</i>	178	2.92	1.02					
Guardian	1) <i>Professor</i>	173	3.92	.71	2	7.44	.00*	.03	3<1
	2) <i>Assoc.Prof.</i>	141	3.79	.78	489				
	3) <i>Assis.Prof.</i>	178	3.61	.74					
Advocate	1) <i>Professor</i>	173	3.08	.95	2	7.89	.00*	.03	2<1
	2) <i>Assoc.Prof.</i>	141	2.72	1.01	489				3<1
	3) <i>Assis.Prof.</i>	178	2.71	.95					

* $p \leq .05$; ** .00-.06 = very small effect, .06-.14 = moderate effect, .14-... = very large effect

According to Table 23, in terms of their academic titles, there is a significant difference with a very small effect ($\eta^2=.01$) in faculty's perceptions on *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Research Practices* in favor of Professors ($\bar{X}=3.51$; $p\leq.05$). This result might be the outcome of many professors having administrative roles in research institutes, centers or groups (as a manager, director or chair) and generally having more opportunities to involve in projects (as executer, advisor or researcher), so they use research facilities more actively in universities. Also, there is a significant difference with a very small effect ($\eta^2=.04$) in *Academic Intellectual Leadership* of faculty in favor of Professors ($\bar{X}=3.41$, $p\leq.05$; in *Mentor* dimension: $\bar{X}=3.73$, $p\leq.05$; in *Acquistor*: $\bar{X}=3.28$, $p\leq.05$; in *Guardian*: $\bar{X}=3.92$; $p\leq.05$ and in *Advocate*: $\bar{X}=3.08$, $p\leq.05$). These results can be explained by the fact that professors, by means of their high positions in academic title ranking, contribute more to postgraduate students' academic development on the road to becoming early career academics, professors prosecute more gatekeeping roles (like editor, reviewer, panelist) and pro bono activities (like joining promotion committees, academic boards, thesis examination committees), professors more often form project teams composed of junior and senior academics together and lead these research teams to attain the necessary sources, and professors are more active in community service events to inform the public thanks to their deep knowledge and to contribute to social welfare by using their disciplinary expertise'.

Table 24.

Analysis Results of Faculty's Perceptions According to Their Disciplines

VARIABLES	DISCIPLINE	n	\bar{X}	s.d.	d.f	F	p *	η^2 **	Dif.
Organizational Communication	1) <i>Applied Sci</i>	229	2.85	.89	3	.18	.91	.00	
	2) <i>Arts & Hum</i>	47	2.88	.83	488				
	3) <i>Natural Sci</i>	65	2.86	.94					
	4) <i>Soc.&Cre.Sci</i>	151	2.91	.84					
Organizational Climate	1) <i>Applied Sci</i>	229	2.93	.84	3	.13	.94	.00	
	2) <i>Arts & Hum</i>	47	2.96	.85	488				
	3) <i>Natural Sci</i>	65	2.99	.83					
	4) <i>Soc.&Cre.Sci</i>	151	2.96	.77					

* $p \leq .05$; ** .00-.06 = very small effect, .06-.14 = moderate effect, .14-... = very large effect

Table 24. (Continue)

Analysis Results of Faculty's Perceptions According to Their Disciplines

VARIABLES	DISCIPLINE	n	\bar{X}	s.d.	d.f	F	p *	η^{2**}	Dif.
<i>Recognition of the Organization</i>	1) <i>Applied Sci</i>	229	2.59	.90	3	.13	.94	.00	
	2) <i>Arts & Hum</i>	47	2.62	.94	488				
	3) <i>Natural Sci</i>	65	2.66	.95					
	4) <i>Soc.&Cre.Sci</i>	151	2.60	.83					
<i>Supported Structurally</i>	1) <i>Applied Sci</i>	229	3.16	.87	3	.13	.94	.00	
	2) <i>Arts & Hum</i>	47	3.19	.84	488				
	3) <i>Natural Sci</i>	65	3.22	.82					
	4) <i>Soc.&Cre.Sci</i>	151	3.21	.81					
<i>Man. Flex. Reg. Scholarly Practices</i>	1) <i>Applied Sci</i>	229	3.11	.77	3	4.26	.01*	.03	2<4
	2) <i>Arts & Hum</i>	47	2.81	.85	488				
	3) <i>Natural Sci</i>	65	3.09	.86					
	4) <i>Soc.&Cre.Sci</i>	151	3.28	.82					
<i>Man. Flex. Reg. Service Practices</i>	1) <i>Applied Sci</i>	229	2.77	.88	3	4.14	.01*	.02	1<4
	2) <i>Arts & Hum</i>	47	2.55	.91	488				2<4
	3) <i>Natural Sci</i>	65	2.82	.95					
	4) <i>Soc.&Cre.Sci</i>	151	3.02	.84					
<i>Man. Flex. Reg. Research Practices</i>	1) <i>Applied Sci</i>	229	3.45	.85	3	5.15	.00*	.03	2<1
	2) <i>Arts & Hum</i>	47	2.98	.99	488				2<4
	3) <i>Natural Sci</i>	65	3.30	.93					
	4) <i>Soc.&Cre.Sci</i>	151	3.54	.89					
<i>Man. Flex. Reg. Teaching Practices</i>	1) <i>Applied Sci</i>	229	3.19	.84	3	2.50	.06	.02	
	2) <i>Arts & Hum</i>	47	2.93	.87	488				
	3) <i>Natural Sci</i>	65	3.18	.94					
	4) <i>Soc.&Cre.Sci</i>	151	3.33	.93					
<i>Academic Intellectual Leadership</i>	1) <i>Applied Sci</i>	229	3.17	.73	3	2.89	.04*	.02	1<4
	2) <i>Arts & Hum</i>	47	3.16	.75	488				
	3) <i>Natural Sci</i>	65	3.26	.66					
	4) <i>Soc.&Cre.Sci</i>	151	3.38	.70					
<i>Ambassador</i>	1) <i>Applied Sci</i>	229	2.89	.90	3	2.86	.04*	.02	-
	2) <i>Arts & Hum</i>	47	2.80	.91	488				
	3) <i>Natural Sci</i>	65	2.90	.95					
	4) <i>Soc.&Cre.Sci</i>	151	3.14	.92					
<i>Mentor</i>	1) <i>Applied Sci</i>	229	3.41	.87	3	3.39	.02*	.02	1<4
	2) <i>Arts & Hum</i>	47	3.54	1.00	488				
	3) <i>Natural Sci</i>	65	3.66	.80					
	4) <i>Soc.&Cre.Sci</i>	151	3.70	.93					
<i>Acquisitor</i>	1) <i>Applied Sci</i>	229	3.11	.98	3	2.78	.04*	.02	2<3
	2) <i>Arts & Hum</i>	47	2.81	.95	488				
	3) <i>Natural Sci</i>	65	3.35	.94					
	4) <i>Soc.&Cre.Sci</i>	151	3.07	.99					
<i>Guardian</i>	1) <i>Applied Sci</i>	229	3.69	.77	3	3.80	.01*	.02	1<4
	2) <i>Arts & Hum</i>	47	3.58	.86	488				2<4
	3) <i>Natural Sci</i>	65	3.81	.69					
	4) <i>Soc.&Cre.Sci</i>	151	3.92	.71					
<i>Advocate</i>	1) <i>Applied Sci</i>	229	2.73	.99	3	6.04	.00*	.04	1<4
	2) <i>Arts & Hum</i>	47	3.06	.96	488				3<4
	3) <i>Natural Sci</i>	65	2.58	.96					
	4) <i>Soc.&Cre.Sci</i>	151	3.07	.97					

* $p \leq .05$; ** $.00-.06$ = very small effect, $.06-.14$ = moderate effect, $.14-\dots$ = very large effect

The findings presented in Table 24 indicate that there is a significant difference with a very small effect ($\eta^2=.03$) in faculty's perceptions on *Managerial Flexibility Regarding*

Scholarly Practices generally in favor of faculty who study in Social and Creative Sciences (\bar{X} =3.28, $p \leq .05$; in *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Service Practices*: \bar{X} =3.02, $p \leq .05$; in *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Research Practices*: \bar{X} =3.45, $p \leq .05$ in favour of Applied Sciences and \bar{X} =3.54, $p \leq .05$ in favor of Social and Creative Sciences). The difference may be derived from ‘Faculty from Applied Sciences and Arts & Humanities, fulfilling their scholarly activities, needing many more costly sources (like exceptional materials for research projects, laboratories with advanced technologies, different equipment for artistic works, exhibition and recreation areas, etc.) than faculty in Natural Sciences and Social & Creative Sciences’. Moreover, there is a significant difference with a very small effect ($\eta^2 = .02$) in faculty’s *Academic Intellectual Leadership* mostly in favor of faculty from Social and Creative Sciences (\bar{X} =3.38, $p \leq .05$; in *Ambassador* dimension: $p \leq .05$, in *Mentor*: \bar{X} =3.70, $p \leq .05$; in *Acquistor*: \bar{X} =3.35, $p \leq .05$ in favor of faculty in Natural Sciences; in *Guardian*: \bar{X} =3.92; $p \leq .05$ and in *Advocate*: \bar{X} =3.07, $p \leq .05$). The reason for this result may that faculty in Social & Creative Sciences which consist mostly interpretational disciplines are more active in keeping up their disciplinary standards, to transfer disciplinary values to next generation of academics, to produce solutions for social issues in their field of expertise as well as representing their institutions, while faculty from Applied Sciences, composed of many disciplines with more clearer scientific procedure to create new knowledge and technologies, make their greater effort to obtain competitive research funds to finance their groups’ projects which are mostly product-outcome-oriented.

Table 25.

Analysis Results of Faculty’s Perceptions According to Their Administrative Duties

VARIABLES	ADMIN DUTY	n	\bar{X}	s.d.	d.f	F	p *	η^2 **	Dif.
Organizational Communication	1) <i>Instit. Level</i>	71	3.30	.85	3	7.09	.00*	.04	2<1
	2) <i>Depart. Level</i>	158	2.80	.85	493				3<1
	3) <i>Others</i>	48	2.78	.77					4<1
	4) <i>Do not Have</i>	220	2.79	.88					

* $p \leq .05$; ** .00-.06 = very small effect, .06-.14 = moderate effect, .14-... = very large effect

Table 25. (Continue)

Analysis Results of Faculty's Perceptions According to Their Administrative Duties

VARIABLES	ADMIN DUTY	n	\bar{X}	s.d.	d.f	F	p *	η^{2**}	Dif.
Organizational Climate	1) <i>Instit. Level</i>	71	3.38	.79	3	8.38	.00*	.05	2<1
	2) <i>Depart. Level</i>	158	2.87	.78	493				3<1
	3) <i>Others</i>	48	2.81	.70					4<1
	4) <i>Do not Have</i>	220	2.87	.83					
Recognition of the Organization	1) <i>Instit. Level</i>	71	2.97	.91	3	5.64	.00*	.03	2<1
	2) <i>Depart. Level</i>	158	2.52	.85	493				3<1
	3) <i>Others</i>	48	2.42	.73					4<1
	4) <i>Do not Have</i>	220	2.56	.89					
Supported Structurally	1) <i>Instit. Level</i>	71	3.66	.76	3	9.51	.00*	.05	2<1
	2) <i>Depart. Level</i>	158	3.12	.81	493				3<1
	3) <i>Others</i>	48	3.09	.77					4<1
	4) <i>Do not Have</i>	220	3.09	.85					
Man. Flex. Reg. Scholarly Practices	1) <i>Instit. Level</i>	71	3.41	.88	3	3.67	.01*	.02	2<1
	2) <i>Depart. Level</i>	158	3.05	.77	493				4<1
	3) <i>Others</i>	48	3.08	.72					
	4) <i>Do not Have</i>	220	3.09	.83					
Man. Flex. Reg. Service Practices	1) <i>Instit. Level</i>	71	3.19	.93	3	4.76	.00*	.03	2<1
	2) <i>Depart. Level</i>	158	2.78	.81	493				4<1
	3) <i>Others</i>	48	2.79	.82					
	4) <i>Do not Have</i>	220	2.76	.92					
Man. Flex. Reg. Research Practices	1) <i>Instit. Level</i>	71	3.61	.95	3	1.67	.17	.01	
	2) <i>Depart. Level</i>	158	3.33	.87	493				
	3) <i>Others</i>	48	3.35	.81					
	4) <i>Do not Have</i>	220	3.40	.93					
Man. Flex. Reg. Teaching Practices	1) <i>Instit. Level</i>	71	3.48	.92	3	3.10	.03*	.02	2<1
	2) <i>Depart. Level</i>	158	3.10	.86	493				
	3) <i>Others</i>	48	3.16	.82					
	4) <i>Do not Have</i>	220	3.19	.92					
Academic Intellectual Leadership	1) <i>Instit. Level</i>	71	3.49	.72	3	5.25	.00*	.03	4<1
	2) <i>Depart. Level</i>	158	3.29	.64	493				
	3) <i>Others</i>	48	3.22	.67					
	4) <i>Do not Have</i>	220	3.12	.75					
Ambassador	1) <i>Instit. Level</i>	71	3.44	.81	3	11.89	.00*	.07	2<1
	2) <i>Depart. Level</i>	158	3.02	.89	493				4<1
	3) <i>Others</i>	48	3.08	.85					4<2
	4) <i>Do not Have</i>	220	2.74	.92					
Mentor	1) <i>Instit. Level</i>	71	3.71	.89	3	1.51	.21	.01	
	2) <i>Depart. Level</i>	158	3.58	.84	493				
	3) <i>Others</i>	48	3.49	.98					
	4) <i>Do not Have</i>	220	3.47	.92					
Acquistor	1) <i>Instit. Level</i>	71	3.24	1.01	3	1.42	.24	.01	
	2) <i>Depart. Level</i>	158	3.16	.83	493				
	3) <i>Others</i>	48	3.04	.85					
	4) <i>Do not Have</i>	220	3.01	1.08					
Guardian	1) <i>Instit. Level</i>	71	3.80	.75	3	.40	.75	.00	
	2) <i>Depart. Level</i>	158	3.80	.67	493				
	3) <i>Others</i>	48	3.77	.79					
	4) <i>Do not Have</i>	220	3.72	.80					
Advocate	1) <i>Instit. Level</i>	71	3.24	1.02	3	6.50	.00*	.04	3<1
	2) <i>Depart. Level</i>	158	2.90	.91	493				4<1
	3) <i>Others</i>	48	2.71	1.02					
	4) <i>Do not Have</i>	220	2.68	.99					

* $p \leq .05$; ** .00-.06 = very small effect, .06-.14 = moderate effect, .14-... = very large effect

Table 25 shows that, according to faculty's administrative duties, there is a significant difference with a very small effect ($\eta^2=.04$) in their perceptions on *Organizational Communication* in favor of faculty who have administrative duties at institutional level ($\bar{X}=3.30$; $p\leq.05$) like rector, vice-rector, dean, vice-dean, manager and vice-manager of institute or higher education school. This result may be the outcome of academic administrators in institutional level having more chances to access other members both with formal and informal communication channels, however, other faculty cannot easily reach administrators in upper level when they need to, and do not have time to communicate with their colleagues because of their heavy teaching loads'. Another significant difference with a very small effect ($\eta^2=.05$) is in *Organizational Climate* perceptions of faculty in favor of institutional level academic administrators ($\bar{X}=3.38$, $p\leq.05$; in *Recognition of the Organization* dimension: $\bar{X}=2.97$, $p\leq.05$; in *Supported Structurally*: $\bar{X}=3.66$, $p\leq.05$). These findings might indicate 'Academic administrators in institutional level are not very well informed by staff about ongoing issues or are informed superficially about the prominence of the issues, so they have a stronger belief that ongoing structures in the institution process pretty well'.

Additionally, there is a significant difference with a very small effect ($\eta^2=.02$) in faculty's perceptions on *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices* in favor of institutional level administrators ($\bar{X}=3.41$, $p\leq.05$; in *Man. Flex. Reg. Service Practices* dimension: $\bar{X}=3.19$, $p\leq.05$; in *Man. Flex. Reg. Teaching Practices*: $\bar{X}=3.48$, $p\leq.05$). That is possibly based on the fact that, owing to their intensive managerial responsibilities, academic administrators in institutional level have to participate in nearly all institutional community engagement activities as visible faces of universities, and they spend relatively less time for teaching loads so do not need to diversify support practices for their teaching activities as much as others. The last significant difference with a very small effect ($\eta^2=.03$) according to faculty's administrative duties is in their *Academic Intellectual Leadership* as generally in

favor of institutional level administrators (\bar{X} =3.49, $p \leq .05$; in *Ambassador* dimension: \bar{X} =3.44, $p \leq .05$; in *Advocate*: \bar{X} =3.24, $p \leq .05$). These differences can originate from ‘Academic administrators in top level have to represent their institutions in many external mediums both formally and informally as a part of their managerial role, thus, they, as more formal voices, have more opportunities to raise social issues in different media platforms, especially in institutional printed and visual broadcasts’.

Table 26.

Analysis Results of Faculty’s Perceptions According to Universities’ Establishment Dates

VARIABLES	ESTAB DATE	n	\bar{X}	s.d.	d.f	F	p*	η^{2**}	Dif.
Organizational Communication	1) <i>Pre-1992</i>	235	2.89	.87	2	4.39	.01	.02	2<3
	2) <i>1992-2005</i>	165	2.74	.87	498				
	3) <i>Post-2005</i>	101	3.06	.86					
Organizational Climate	1) <i>Pre-1992</i>	235	2.98	.77	2	3.64	.03*	.01	2<3
	2) <i>1992-2005</i>	165	2.81	.83	498				
	3) <i>Post-2005</i>	101	3.07	.88					
Recognition of the Organization	1) <i>Pre-1992</i>	235	2.65	.82	2	2.45	.09	.01	
	2) <i>1992-2005</i>	165	2.48	.92	498				
	3) <i>Post-2005</i>	101	2.67	.95					
Supported Structurally	1) <i>Pre-1992</i>	235	3.21	.81	2	4.15	.02*	.02	2<3
	2) <i>1992-2005</i>	165	3.04	.83	498				
	3) <i>Post-2005</i>	101	3.33	.90					
Man. Flex. Reg. Scholarly Practices	1) <i>Pre-1992</i>	235	3.17	.80	2	1.38	.25	.01	
	2) <i>1992-2005</i>	165	3.04	.80	498				
	3) <i>Post-2005</i>	101	3.17	.87					
Man. Flex. Reg. Service Practices	1) <i>Pre-1992</i>	235	2.84	.89	2	1.56	.21	.01	
	2) <i>1992-2005</i>	165	2.74	.90	498				
	3) <i>Post-2005</i>	101	2.93	.85					
Man. Flex. Reg. Research Practices	1) <i>Pre-1992</i>	235	3.54	.90	2	4.97	.01*	.02	2<1
	2) <i>1992-2005</i>	165	3.32	.86	498				3<1
	3) <i>Post-2005</i>	101	3.25	.96					
Man. Flex. Reg. Teaching Practices	1) <i>Pre-1992</i>	235	3.20	.84	2	1.72	.18	.01	
	2) <i>1992-2005</i>	165	3.12	.88	498				
	3) <i>Post-2005</i>	101	3.33	1.02					
Academic Intellectual Leadership	1) <i>Pre-1992</i>	235	3.28	.68	2	1.76	.17	.01	
	2) <i>1992-2005</i>	165	3.15	.74	498				
	3) <i>Post-2005</i>	101	3.28	.72					
Ambassador	1) <i>Pre-1992</i>	235	2.95	.86	2	2.04	.13	.01	
	2) <i>1992-2005</i>	165	2.86	.99	498				
	3) <i>Post-2005</i>	101	3.11	.91					
Mentor	1) <i>Pre-1992</i>	235	3.58	.85	2	1.29	.28	.01	
	2) <i>1992-2005</i>	165	3.45	.95	498				
	3) <i>Post-2005</i>	101	3.60	.90					
Acquisitor	1) <i>Pre-1992</i>	235	3.20	.95	2	3.37	.04*	.01	2<1
	2) <i>1992-2005</i>	165	2.94	1.00	498				
	3) <i>Post-2005</i>	101	3.12	.99					
Guardian	1) <i>Pre-1992</i>	235	3.80	.73	2	.48	.62	.00	
	2) <i>1992-2005</i>	165	3.73	.76	498				
	3) <i>Post-2005</i>	101	3.73	.79					

* $p \leq .05$; ** .00-.06 = very small effect, .06-.14 = moderate effect, .14-... = very large effect

Table 26. (Continue)

Analysis Results of Faculty's Perceptions According to Universities' Establishment Dates

VARIABLES	ESTAB DATE	n	\bar{X}	s.d.	d.f	F	p *	η^2 **	Dif.
<i>Advocate</i>	1) <i>Pre-1992</i>	235	2.89	.87	2	4.39	.01	.02	2<3
	2) <i>1992-2005</i>	165	2.74	.87	498				
	3) <i>Post-2005</i>	101	3.06	.86					

* $p \leq .05$; ** .00-.06 = very small effect, .06-.14 = moderate effect, .14-... = very large effect

The data in Table 26 shows that there is a significant difference with a very small effect ($\eta^2=.02$), in favor of faculty who work in Post-2005 universities ($\bar{X}=3.06$; $p \leq .05$), in their perceptions on *Organizational Communication* according to universities' establishment dates. This may be because 1992-2005 universities are generally expanding trend in both the number of students and academics and trying to establish new communication channels, but Post-2005 universities generally have smaller sizes, thus, faculty in these universities have more opportunities to interact with others especially by informal channels'. Also, there is a significant difference with a very small effect ($\eta^2=.01$) in *Organizational Climate* perceptions of senior academics in favor of faculty from Post-2005 universities ($\bar{X}=3.07$, $p \leq .05$; in *Supported Structurally* dimension: $\bar{X}=3.33$, $p \leq .05$). These findings may point out that 'Faculty from Post-2005 universities have chances to find higher positions suitable their qualifications and their successes are easily recognized and acknowledged by their administration, whereas others in 1992-2005 universities experience the disadvantages of being in highly competitive structures in gaining appreciations or rewards for their works in their thriving universities'.

Another significant difference with a very small effect ($\eta^2=.02$) is in faculty's perceptions on *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Research Practices* in favor of faculty from Pre-1992 universities ($\bar{X}=3.54$; $p \leq .05$). This may be because Pre-1992 universities, to provide high standard supports for their faculty's research activities, already completed building different research enterprises like techno-cities, career centers, central laboratories, research institutes, etc. Besides, in terms of *Academic Intellectual Leadership*, there is a significant

difference with a very small effect ($\eta^2=.01$) in only *Acquistor* dimension in favor of faculty who work in Pre-1992 universities ($\bar{X}=3.20$; $p\leq.05$). It is possible to comment that ‘Faculty from Pre-1992 universities, by means of extensive research support facilities in their institutions, provide much more financial contribution in their universities via their resource generation activities (like projects supported externally, collaborative works with industrial organizations or their participation and guidance in their colleagues’ research activities) than others especially in 1992-2005 universities which are developing higher education institutions with limited opportunities and challenging processes to gain research funds’.

Table 27.

Analysis Results of Faculty’s Perceptions According to Universities’ Geographical Regions

VARIABLES	REGION	n	\bar{X}	s.d.	d.f	F	p *	η^{2**}	Dif.
Organizational Communication	1) <i>Mediterranean</i>	35	2.65	.74	6	3.98	.00*	.05	3<5
	2) <i>East Ana.</i>	52	2.93	.77	495				4<5
	3) <i>Aegean</i>	65	2.61	.89					
	4) <i>Southeast Ana.</i>	36	2.53	.90					
	5) <i>Central Ana.</i>	130	3.07	.86					
	6) <i>Black Sea</i>	51	2.77	.97					
	7) <i>Marmara</i>	133	2.97	.85					
Organizational Climate	1) <i>Mediterranean</i>	35	3.05	.79	6	3.73	.00*	.04	4<5
	2) <i>East Ana.</i>	52	2.95	.72	495				4<7
	3) <i>Aegean</i>	65	2.75	.80					
	4) <i>Southeast Ana.</i>	36	2.61	.98					
	5) <i>Central Ana.</i>	130	3.07	.76					
	6) <i>Black Sea</i>	51	2.67	.87					
	7) <i>Marmara</i>	133	3.07	.80					
Recognition of the organization	1) <i>Mediterranean</i>	35	2.81	.85	6	3.94	.00*	.05	4<5
	2) <i>East Ana.</i>	52	2.63	.81	495				4<7
	3) <i>Aegean</i>	65	2.40	.89					6<5
	4) <i>Southeast Ana.</i>	36	2.22	.99					
	5) <i>Central Ana.</i>	130	2.75	.82					
	6) <i>Black Sea</i>	51	2.31	.95					
	7) <i>Marmara</i>	133	2.71	.87					
Supported Structurally	1) <i>Mediterranean</i>	35	3.21	.82	6	3.14	.01*	.04	–
	2) <i>East Ana.</i>	52	3.18	.74	495				
	3) <i>Aegean</i>	65	3.00	.80					
	4) <i>Southeast Ana.</i>	36	2.88	1.01					
	5) <i>Central Ana.</i>	130	3.30	.81					
	6) <i>Black Sea</i>	51	2.95	.88					
	7) <i>Marmara</i>	133	3.33	.82					
Man. Flex. Reg. Scholarly Practices	1) <i>Mediterranean</i>	35	3.09	.71	6	3.45	.00*	.04	4<5
	2) <i>East Ana.</i>	52	3.17	.75	495				6<5
	3) <i>Aegean</i>	65	2.99	.84					
	4) <i>Southeast Ana.</i>	36	2.79	.97					
	5) <i>Central Ana.</i>	130	3.33	.74					
	6) <i>Black Sea</i>	51	2.91	.86					
	7) <i>Marmara</i>	133	3.17	.80					

* $p \leq .05$; ** .00-.06 = very small effect, .06-.14 = moderate effect, .14-... = very large effect

Table 27. (Continue)

Analysis Results of Faculty's Perceptions According to Universities' Geographical Regions

VARIABLES	REGION	n	\bar{X}	s.d.	d.f	F	p*	η^{2**}	Dif.
<i>Man. Flex. Reg. Service Practices</i>	1) <i>Mediterranean</i>	35	2.77	.85	6	2.13	.05*	.02	-
	2) <i>East Ana.</i>	52	2.90	.80	495				
	3) <i>Aegean</i>	65	2.66	.94					
	4) <i>Southeast Ana.</i>	36	2.51	.96					
	5) <i>Central Ana.</i>	130	3.00	.86					
	6) <i>Black Sea</i>	51	2.75	.87					
	7) <i>Marmara</i>	133	2.85	.90					
<i>Man. Flex. Reg. Research Practices</i>	1) <i>Mediterranean</i>	35	3.49	.74	6	6.17	.00*	.07	3<5
	2) <i>East Ana.</i>	52	3.46	.85	495				4<5
	3) <i>Aegean</i>	65	3.27	.99					6<5
	4) <i>Southeast Ana.</i>	36	2.98	1.03					6<7
	5) <i>Central Ana.</i>	130	3.68	.79					
	6) <i>Black Sea</i>	51	2.97	.88					
	7) <i>Marmara</i>	133	3.45	.90					
<i>Man. Flex. Reg. Teaching Practices</i>	1) <i>Mediterranean</i>	35	3.09	.76	6	2.06	.06	.02	
	2) <i>East Ana.</i>	52	3.21	.87	495				
	3) <i>Aegean</i>	65	3.09	.91					
	4) <i>Southeast Ana.</i>	36	2.92	1.10					
	5) <i>Central Ana.</i>	130	3.37	.83					
	6) <i>Black Sea</i>	51	3.03	1.02					
	7) <i>Marmara</i>	133	3.25	.85					
Academic Intellectual Leadership	1) <i>Mediterranean</i>	35	3.27	.72	6	1.46	.19	.02	
	2) <i>East Ana.</i>	52	3.26	.76	495				
	3) <i>Aegean</i>	65	3.17	.71					
	4) <i>Southeast Ana.</i>	36	3.12	.77					
	5) <i>Central Ana.</i>	130	3.34	.71					
	6) <i>Black Sea</i>	51	3.04	.67					
	7) <i>Marmara</i>	133	3.27	.68					
<i>Ambassador</i>	1) <i>Mediterranean</i>	35	2.97	.98	6	1.98	.07	.02	
	2) <i>East Ana.</i>	52	3.12	.85	495				
	3) <i>Aegean</i>	65	2.85	.95					
	4) <i>Southeast Ana.</i>	36	2.69	1.00					
	5) <i>Central Ana.</i>	130	3.08	.97					
	6) <i>Black Sea</i>	51	2.71	.83					
	7) <i>Marmara</i>	133	2.99	.85					
<i>Mentor</i>	1) <i>Mediterranean</i>	35	3.36	.96	6	.88	.51	.01	
	2) <i>East Ana.</i>	52	3.53	.84	495				
	3) <i>Aegean</i>	65	3.48	.84					
	4) <i>Southeast Ana.</i>	36	3.63	1.04					
	5) <i>Central Ana.</i>	130	3.68	.81					
	6) <i>Black Sea</i>	51	3.51	.93					
	7) <i>Marmara</i>	133	3.50	.93					
<i>Acquistor</i>	1) <i>Mediterranean</i>	35	3.21	1.01	6	2.13	.05*	.03	6<5
	2) <i>East Ana.</i>	52	3.09	1.01	495				
	3) <i>Aegean</i>	65	3.01	1.01					
	4) <i>Southeast Ana.</i>	36	2.88	1.10					
	5) <i>Central Ana.</i>	130	3.29	.97					
	6) <i>Black Sea</i>	51	2.81	.84					
	7) <i>Marmara</i>	133	3.11	.93					
<i>Guardian</i>	1) <i>Mediterranean</i>	35	3.84	.70	6	.98	.44	.01	
	2) <i>East Ana.</i>	52	3.66	.76	495				
	3) <i>Aegean</i>	65	3.76	.76					
	4) <i>Southeast Ana.</i>	36	3.82	.96					
	5) <i>Central Ana.</i>	130	3.79	.69					
	6) <i>Black Sea</i>	51	3.57	.76					
	7) <i>Marmara</i>	133	3.83	.76					

* $p \leq .05$; ** .00-.06 = very small effect, .06-.14 = moderate effect, .14-... = very large effect

Table 27. (Continue)

Analysis Results of Faculty's Perceptions According to Universities' Geographical Regions

VARIABLES	REGION	n	\bar{X}	s.d.	d.f	F	p*	η^{2**}	Dif.
<i>Advocate</i>	1) <i>Mediterranean</i>	35	2.98	.99	6	1.29	.26	.02	
	2) <i>East Ana.</i>	52	2.90	.96	495				
	3) <i>Aegean</i>	65	2.77	.96					
	4) <i>Southeast Ana.</i>	36	2.60	1.01					
	5) <i>Central Ana.</i>	130	2.87	1.05					
	6) <i>Black Sea</i>	51	2.60	.93					
	7) <i>Marmara</i>	133	2.93	.96					

* $p \leq .05$; ** .00-.06 = very small effect, .06-.14 = moderate effect, .14-... = very large effect

According to results in Table 27, in terms of universities' geographical regions, there is a significant difference with a very small effect ($\eta^2=.05$) in faculty's perceptions on *Organizational Communication* in favor of faculty who work in Central Anatolian universities ($\bar{X}=3.07$; $p \leq .05$). The reason for this may be that Central Anatolia hosts many deep-rooted universities (9 Pre-1992 universities as 29.03%) which have succeeded in generating effective institutional communication systems with both formal and informal channels. Also, there is a significant difference with a very small effect ($\eta^2=.04$) in perceptions of faculty about *Organizational Climate* in favor of faculty from universities in Central Anatolia ($\bar{X}=3.07$, $p \leq .05$; in *Recognition of the Organization* dimension: $\bar{X}=2.75$, $p \leq .05$; in *Supported Structurally*: $p \leq .05$) and Marmara ($\bar{X}=3.07$, $p \leq .05$; in *Recognition of the Organization*: $\bar{X}=2.71$, $p \leq .05$; in *Supported Structurally*: $p \leq .05$). That can be the outcome of many pioneer universities being in Central Anatolia and Marmara regions (19 Pre-1992 universities as 61.29%), and they create more positive atmosphere by means of their appreciation, promotion and reward systems, which proceed according to clear and objective rules and regulations, related to the achievements of their faculty.

Besides, there is a significant difference with a very small effect ($\eta^2=.04$) in faculty's perceptions about *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices* in favor of faculty working in Central Anatolian universities ($\bar{X}=3.33$, $p \leq .05$; in *Man. Flex. Reg. Service Practices* dimension: $p \leq .05$; in *Man. Flex. Reg. Research Practices*: $\bar{X}=3.68$, $p \leq .05$) and in

favor of faculty from Marmara only for *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Research Practices* ($\bar{X}=3.45$, $p\leq.05$). These results possibly are caused by many universities from Central Anatolia being in the same area with most of Social Institutions of the State and NGOs that can ease to perform collaborative community engagement activities, and most of influential techno-parks, advanced laboratories and research institutes have been operated successfully to support faculty's research activities in universities from Central Anatolia and Marmara. Another significant difference with a very small effect ($\eta^2=.03$) is only in *Acquisitor* dimension of *Academic Intellectual Leadership* between faculty from Central Anatolia and Black Sea regions in favor of faculty from Central Anatolian universities ($\bar{X}=3.29$; $p\leq.05$). It is possible to comment that, by dint of powerful research support, faculty from Central Anatolian universities can obtain more grants both internally and externally than faculty from respectively young universities in Black Sea region'.

Correlations between Faculty's Perceptions about Communication, Climate and Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices, and Their Academic Intellectual Leadership

The third question of the research is '*Is there any significant relation among faculty's perceptions about organizational communication, organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities, and their academic intellectual leadership?*', and Table 28 comprises the results of relevant data analysis.

The findings in Table 28 denote that there are significant correlations between all variables and their dimensions. The significant correlations between variables are $r=.82$ ($p\leq.01$) for *Organizational Communication* and *Organizational Climate*, $r=.75$ ($p\leq.01$) for *Organizational Communication* and *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices*, $r=.29$ ($p\leq.01$) for *Organizational Communication* and *Academic Intellectual Leadership*,

$r=.71$ ($p\leq.01$) for *Organizational Climate* and *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices*, $r=.32$ ($p\leq.01$) for *Organizational Climate* and *Academic Intellectual Leadership*, and $r=.34$ ($p\leq.01$) for *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices* and *Academic Intellectual Leadership*. These correlations may arise from ‘the mutual effects of variables on each other by means of their common values, conjoint points, associations and similar practices with others’. Besides, these correlation coefficients are accepted as an adequate ($r\geq.30$) in order to test the theoretical model of the research (Çokluk et al., 2014).

Table 28.

The Correlations between Variables According to Faculty’s Perceptions

VARIABLES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1) Org Comm	1.00													
2) Org Climate	.82*	1.00												
3) <i>Recog org</i>	.76*	.94*	1.00											
4) <i>Struc support</i>	.79*	.97*	.81*	1.00										
5) <i>ManFlex Reg Scholarly Prac</i>	.75*	.71*	.68*	.68*	1.00									
6) <i>ManFlex Reg Service Prac</i>	.71*	.67*	.62*	.65*	.91*	1.00								
7) <i>ManFlex Reg Research Prac</i>	.61*	.59*	.58*	.55*	.88*	.70*	1.00							
8) <i>ManFlex Reg Teaching Prac</i>	.70*	.67*	.65*	.64*	.93*	.76*	.74*	1.00						
9) <i>Acad Intel Leadership</i>	.29*	.32*	.27*	.33*	.34*	.36*	.25*	.30*	1.00					
10) <i>Ambassador</i>	.35*	.39*	.33*	.41	.37*	.40*	.28*	.31*	.76*	1.00				
11) <i>Mentor</i>	.14*	.15*	.11 [†]	.17*	.16*	.19*	.09 [†]	.15*	.78*	.37*	1.00			
12) <i>Acquistor</i>	.22*	.28*	.26	.27*	.28*	.28*	.25*	.24*	.79*	.49*	.51*	1.00		
13) <i>Guardian</i>	.19*	.21*	.17*	.22*	.27*	.26*	.21*	.26*	.80*	.47*	.70*	.56*	1.00	
14) <i>Advocate</i>	.21*	.21*	.17*	.22*	.24*	.29*	.16*	.21*	.80*	.61*	.50*	.49*	.51*	1.00

n=504 – * $p\leq.01$; [†] $\leq.05$

Examination of the Theoretical Model about Communication, Climate, Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices and Academic Intellectual Leadership

The last research question is ‘Do faculty’s perceptions support the structure in the model which proposes an indirect relationship between organizational communication and academic intellectual leadership by the mediation of organizational climate and managerial

flexibility regarding scholarly practices?'; Figure 19 and Figure 20 show the results of path analyses, which were performed by Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) in AMOS 20.0 Software, related to this question.

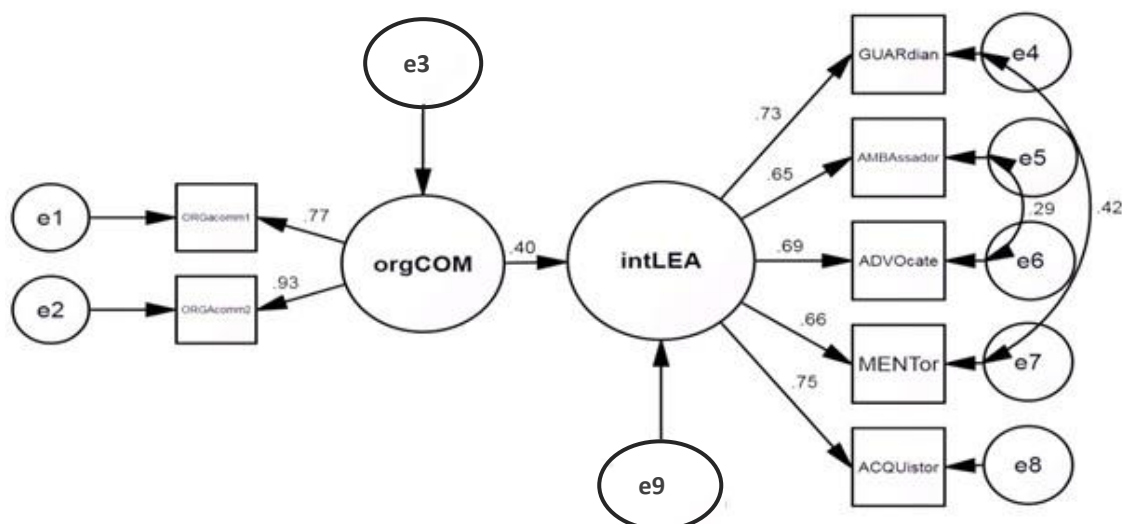


Figure 19. SEM for organizational communication and academic intellectual leadership

First, to detect the quantity of the relation between Organizational Communication and Academic Intellectual Leadership, the theoretical model was formed with only these two variables. In this model, to prepare the data set for SEM, the split-half (bisection or parceling [parselleme]; Kocayörük, 2012, p. 28) method was used for items of *Organizational Communication Scale* (OCS) as the first 5 items and the second 5 items because OCS consists only of one factor structure. Also, to reduce the effect of common behaviors within *Academic Intellectual Leadership* on error estimation, two modifications were made for *Ambassador–Advocate* (faculty’s social activities include representing their institutions intentionally or unintentionally) and *Guardian–Mentor* (mentoring covers reviewing and evaluating the studies of junior colleagues). Then, the model in Figure 19 was tested by path analysis, and Standardized Regression Weight as relation coefficient for *Organizational Communication* and *Academic Intellectual Leadership* was found as $\beta=.40$ (40%) (with Model Fit Indexes:

$\chi^2=38.942$, $p=.000$; $\chi^2/df=3.54$; $GFI=.978$; $AGFI=.944$; $CFI=.981$; $RMSEA=.071$ as moderate level of fit according to indicators in Table 18). This finding shows that the quality of *Organizational Communication* in universities is one of the determinative variables for faculty's *Academic Intellectual Leadership*.

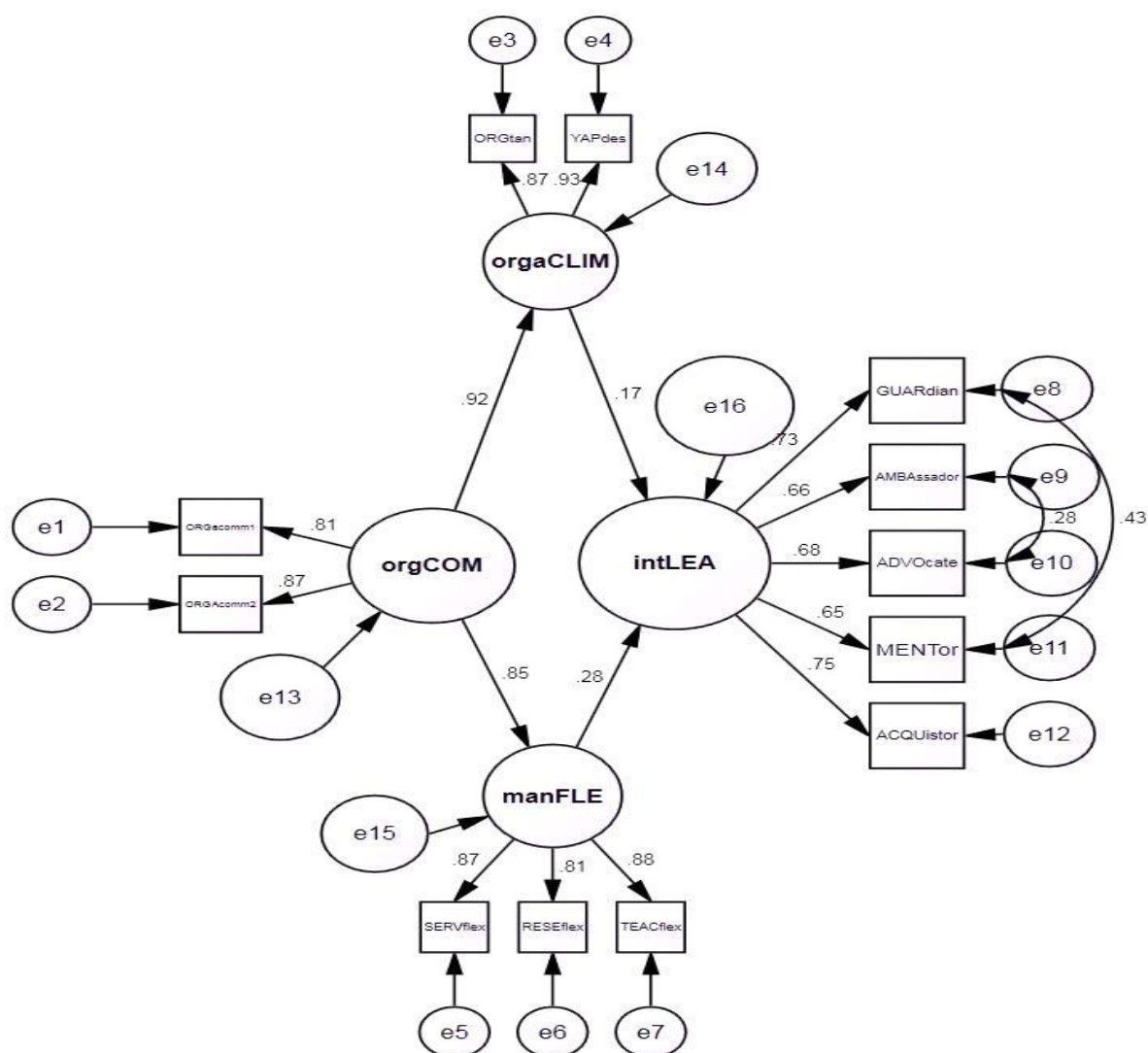


Figure 20. SEM for organizational communication, organizational climate, managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices and academic intellectual leadership

As the next step, after the same processes of data preparation above (the split-half of *Organizational Communication Scale* Items and the modifications for *Academic Intellectual Leadership* Dimensions), the theoretical model of the research was tested by using SEM to

examine the mediating effects of *Organizational Climate* and *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices* on the relationship between *Organizational Communication* in universities and faculty's *Academic Intellectual Leadership*. Figure 20 depicts the Standardized Regression Weights as 16% ($\beta=.16$ [.92 x .17]) of the relation between *Organizational Communication* and *Academic Intellectual Leadership* is mediated by *Organizational Climate*, and 24% ($\beta=.24$ [.85 x .28]) of the relation between *Organizational Communication* and *Academic Intellectual Leadership* is mediated by *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices*. Besides, Model Fit Indexes for the model in Figure 20 are $\chi^2=149.86$, $p=.000$; $\chi^2/df=3.122$; GFI=.950; AGFI=.919; CFI=.974; RMSEA=.065 (as indicators for moderate fit).

According to these findings, the model in Figure 19 related to research variables is rejected, and, as the proposed theoretical model of the research, the model in Figure 20 is accepted as valid to determine the mediating effects of *Organizational Climate* and *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices* on the relation between *Organizational Communication* and *Academic Intellectual Leadership*. Therefore, if *Organizational Climate* and *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices* are considered individually, both *Organizational Climate* ($\beta=.16$) and *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices* ($\beta=.24$) are partial mediators for the relation between *Organizational Communication* and *Academic Intellectual Leadership*, but *Organizational Climate* and *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices* together become a full mediator ($\beta=.40$ / $.16+.24$). As a result, *Organizational Communication* has powerful influences on both *Organizational Climate* ($\beta=.92$) and *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices* ($\beta=.85$) in universities, so the quality of *Organizational Communication* affects faculty's *Academic Intellectual Leadership* through the agency of its contributions to the positiveness of *Organizational Climate* and the extension of *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices*.

Chapter VI

In this chapter, the results of the research are summarized and discussed in accordance with the literature in the order of the research questions, and some suggestions related to the topics are presented for practitioners and researchers.

Discussion, Conclusion, and Suggestions

Discussion

The purpose of the research is to identify, according to faculty's perceptions, the level of Organizational Communication, Organizational Climate and Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices in universities, and their Academic Intellectual Leadership, and is to examine the relations between these variables. The findings of the research related to this purpose are discussed below within the research questions.

The levels of faculty's perceptions of organizational communication, organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities, and their academic intellectual leadership. The level of faculty's perceptions were investigated related to Organizational Communication, Organizational Climate and Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices in universities, and their Academic Intellectual Leadership behaviors, and then the results of the research are discussed within the order of topics below.

Firstly, faculty's perceptions about *Organizational Communication* in universities were found to be at a medium level. This result has similarities with previous studies about communication in universities. Şimşek (2011), for instance, found that academics' communication satisfaction was at a moderate level in her study focused on one Turkish university. Gülnar (2007), in his doctoral dissertation, stated that the communication satisfaction of research assistants who study in different Turkish universities was at a medium

level. Gizir and Gizir (2005) also indicated in their study about inhibitors of communication in academic mediums that faculty's perceptions of communication in universities generally were affected by *Poor Communication, Individualism, Inadequate Exchange of Scientific Knowledge, Lack of Motivation, Alliances, Administrative Issues, Lack of Common Goals, Criticism, Introvert Characteristics of the Department* and *Departmental Atmosphere*, and faculty's organizational communication perceptions were at a medium level by means of these variables in academic platforms. Moreover, Alipour (2011) found that, according to both academics and administrative staff, communication skills of managers in some Iranian higher education institutions were at a moderate level, and these skills deeply influenced the staff's perceptions about the efficiency of organizational communication. Besides, Nordin (2013) stated that communication modality, continuity of frequent communication and indicating mission and values during communication are essential to raising the effects of communication in transition of higher education institutions according to new changes in their environments. Accordingly, it can be said that organizational communication in universities is affected by many variables like communication systems, managers' communication skills, collegial interactions, and clear vision and mission statements navigating internal and external relations, and the efficiency of communication in universities is needed to be improved by establishing new formal and informal communication channels as well as evolving existing ones.

Secondly, *Organizational Climate* which has many associations with organizational communication was found at a moderate level in the research. Similarly, Giles (2010) who carried out her doctoral study with administrators and faculty from different 15 colleges and universities in the USA using the same scale found that their organizational climate perceptions were at a medium level in *Recognition* and *Support* dimensions. Also, Özdede (2010) by using the same scale found that both administrative staff and faculty's perceptions

of organizational climate in one Turkish university were at a moderate level. In another study, Balci-Bucak (2002), in a Faculty of Education at one Turkish university, examined the organizational climate within senior-junior relations by questions such as *support of your administrators, democracy level in your institution, respecting the personality of staff by administrators, valuing the ideas of junior staff by administrators, objectiveness of administrators on separating resources*, and she found that academics' perceptions towards organizational climate were generally at a medium level. Arabacı (2011) made a study to identify the level of organizational climate perceptions for academics in a Turkish university, and he found that the academics' perceptions on organizational climate, which consists of *Organizational Structure, Organizational Communication and Participating in Decision Making, Organizational Commitment and Organizational Conflict* dimensions, were at a moderate level. Besides, McMurray and Scott (2013) investigated the determinants of organizational climate in one Australian university, and they found that organizational climate in academia is composed of *Trust, Support, Recognition, Fairness and Innovation* dimensions and academics' perceptions towards Support and Recognition can explain nearly half of their overall organizational climate perceptions. After all, it may be concluded that appreciation of faculty's successes, valuing their ideas, respecting their personalities, their interactions with administrators, supporting their activities by different facilities/resources, reasonable key performance targets, informative (not oppressive) performance review processes, and fairness of promotion/reward system are powerful factors affecting their organizational climate perceptions, and universities have several weaknesses in these aspects according to faculty's expectations towards an ideal work environment.

Thirdly, faculty's perceptions on *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices* were found at a medium level, but for *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Research Practices* were found at a high level. Because of the new development of this scale by the

researcher, there is no study in reviewed literature which directly examines the features with the same name but there are several studies indicating similar results about support mechanisms to facilitate academics' scholarly activities. For example, Akman et al. (2006) measured faculty's job satisfaction from different Turkish universities with 37 items, and they found that faculty's satisfaction were at a moderate level according to items like *providing opportunities to attend national and international academic events by management, creating enough time to make research by manageable teaching load, providing ICT devices, necessary for scholarly activities, in office space and classrooms by management and existing facilities in the university for social and sportive activities*. Also, Altbach (1996) and Welch (2005d) based on CAP Survey in 1992-1993 indicated that the satisfaction of academics from 14 countries about their profession was not high because, unlike huge expectations, there were *insufficient secretarial support, limited resources, greater bureaucracy, inability to pursue their own ideas*, etc. Besides, Bentley et al. (2013) investigated job satisfaction of academics for 12 countries by using the data of 2007 CAP Survey, and they found that *Institutional Resources* (teaching load, teaching support staff, laboratories, research equipment, research funding, research support staff, computer facilities, libraries, office space, telecommunications, secretarial support) and *Administration Process* (a cumbersome administrative process, collegiality in decision-making, good communication between management and academics, a supportive attitude of administrative staff towards teaching, a supportive attitude towards research) were powerful predictors of academics' job satisfaction. Similarly, Coates et al. (2009) indicated that the quality of resources regarding *library facilities and services, telecommunications, computer facilities, office space, technology for teaching, classrooms, laboratories, research equipment and instruments, teaching support staff, research support staff, secretarial support and research funding* was one of the important factors which influenced academics' ideas about job changes within and without

academia. Furthermore, O'Meara et al. (2014) found that *Better Opportunities* (a higher salary, better resources and advanced academic development opportunities) were powerful determinants for faculty leave. Managerial practices regarding scholarly activities, based on information above, is one of the crucial aspects to determine academics' job satisfaction and leaving intentions, and managers in universities give priority to facilitating research activities of academics but faculty hope to generate broader supports by managements of universities for their scholarly practices especially for their teaching and service activities.

In short, the research exposed that faculty's perceptions about organizational communication, organizational climate and MFRSP in universities are not so high. According to these first three findings of the research, many Turkish universities do not have adequate physical infrastructure and managerial practices to facilitate faculty's scholarly activities, effective communication systems to enhance academics' participation in decision-making and favorable climate to empower collegiality and staff's commitments toward their institutions (Akman et al., 2013; Arabacı, 2011; Şimşek, 2011). It can be asserted that most of public universities in Turkey, especially younger ones, have not developed necessary work environment and organizational structures to motivate academics for higher productivity as well as to support their academic and social projects (Çetinsaya, 2014; Kavak, 2011).

Lastly, the general level of faculty's *Academic Intellectual Leadership* was found at a medium level whereas their intellectual leadership behaviors within *Mentor* and *Guardian (Steward)* dimensions were at a high level. However, only one previous study has been accessed by the researcher about measurement of academic administrators' intellectual leadership behaviors in universities. This study was performed by H. Yılmaz (2007) on a sample composed of rectors, vice-rectors, dean, head of department, and manager of graduate schools, higher education schools and vocational higher education schools from different Turkish universities, and he indicated dimensions in the study as *Giving Lectures, Producing*

Publications, Being a Public Voice and Being a Global Opinion Organizer. H. Yılmaz (2007) then found that, unlike the results of this research, for academic administrators in universities, the behaviors of *acting as an intellectual role model in their lectures, being a public voice and being a global opinion organizer* were at a high level but *acting as a writer to intellectual publication* was at a medium level. Aypay (2001) also studied faculty role performance in the USA universities within the framework of Boyer's 4 domains of scholarship, and found that faculty role performance in *Scholarship of Discovery* (publication of articles and books), *Scholarship of Integration* (publication of review and interdisciplinary work, publication for society, service to local organizations and lectures in local organizations), *Scholarship of Application* (application, service to academia, service to society, application of knowledge, service to institution) were at low frequency but *Scholarship of Teaching* (developing new courses, teaching, course preparation) was at medium frequency. Besides, Evans et al. (2013) examined professorial academic leadership within a sample containing academics from different UK universities, and they found that only 26.9% of the academics indicated their experiences related to professorial leadership as in 'excellent or exemplary level' while 93.7% of respondents expected high level academic leadership from professors (especially advising non-professorial colleagues and helping them develop professionally for building a successful career). There are 2 more studies, which were used to form the framework of academic intellectual leadership in the research, carried out by Macfarlane (2011) and Macfarlane and Chan (2014). Macfarlane (2011), in his study performed on professors from UK universities, stated 9 different roles for professoriate and found that *helping other colleagues to develop, leadership in research, being a role model, upholding standards of scholarship and influencing the work and direction of the university* were 5 prior roles according to professors, whereas *leadership in research, income generation, upholding standards of scholarship, helping other colleagues to develop and being a role model* were the preferential expectations

of higher education institutions from professors. Moreover, Macfarlane and Chan (2014) suggested 4 essential elements for intellectual leadership of professors as *passion for transformation, possessing a balance of personal virtues, commitment to service and overcoming adversity*, based on their qualitative analysis on academic obituaries published in Times Higher Education in terms of *Personal Characteristics* (values, roles, public intellectual, belief and unifying vision/mission) and *Scholarly Attributes* (academic duty, philanthropy and individuality) of professors. This finding shows that faculty give priority to the behaviors contributing in the advancement of their disciplines such as *keeping up standards in profession and scientific areas and helping their colleagues' academic development*, and the behaviors within other dimensions of academic intellectual leadership cannot be displayed at the expected level by faculty. Also, it can be considered that the differences among the result of the research, H. Yılmaz's (2007) and Aypay's (2001) findings arise from the shifting priorities of academic administrators towards institutional expectations instead of academic concerns in H. Yılmaz's (2007) study and the disparate distribution of scholarly behaviors in different aspects in Aypay's (2011) study. According to this finding, it can be claimed that Turkish faculty focus mainly on their scholarly performance within their disciplines because, similar to the general tendency in tenure assessment around the world, tenure criteria in Turkey are based only on academics publication records (Aypay, 2015; Campbell & O'Meara, 2014; Çetinsaya, 2014). They also give importance to supervising students' studies because of its contribution in academic promotions, especially at a professoriate level (H. Yılmaz, 2007).

The differences of faculty's perceptions of organizational communication, organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities, and their academic intellectual leadership in terms of some variables. The perceptions of faculty of Organizational Communication, Organizational Climate and

Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices in universities, and their Academic Intellectual Leadership were examined in terms of gender, seniority, academic titles, disciplines, managerial duties, and the establishment dates and geographical regions of universities in which faculty work. Then, the results of these examinations are discussed in accordance with related literature below.

At first, faculty's perceptions about communication, climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities, and academic intellectual leadership were examined according to their gender. The significant differences in favor of female faculty were found in faculty's perceptions of managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices (especially in regarding teaching practices) and their behaviors within a mentor dimension (of academic intellectual leadership). Because of newly developed scales by the researcher for these two topics, there is no study in reviewed literature to support directly the results of the research. However, Akman et al. (2006) found some differences in favor of female academics for *opportunities to attend national and international academic events, creating enough time to make research by manageable teaching load, existence of facilities in the university for social and sportive activities and providing ICT devices, necessary for scholarly activities, in office space and classrooms by management*. Also, Aypay (2001) found that being a male academic in the USA context is a negative predictor for *Scholarship of Teaching* which includes developing new courses, teaching and course preparation. Besides, Coates et al. (2009) stated that the number of female academics in Australia was higher at the entrance level of the profession, and they mostly performed intensive teaching duties. Therefore, it can be said that female faculty use the existing support facilities in universities more commonly for their scholarly practices, and they are subsidiary to developing their less experienced colleagues as a part of their teaching activities.

There are also significant differences on faculty's perceptions of managerial flexibility regarding research practices in universities and their academic intellectual leadership behaviors within ambassador, acquirer (enabler), guardian (steward) and advocate dimensions generally in favor of faculty with highest seniority. The researcher could not find any study in reviewed literature related directly to research supports in universities and faculty's seniority, but Bentley et al. (2013) indicated that there were significant relations between both late career academics and institutional resources, and job satisfaction of academics from 6 different countries (Australia, Germany, Japan, South Africa, UK and USA) according to CAP 2007 Survey. Likewise, Aypay (2001) stated that having 10 years or more experiences was one of the significant predictors for academics' *Scholarship of Integration* (publication of reviews and interdisciplinary work, publication for society, service to local organizations, lectures in local organizations) and *Scholarship of Application* (application, service to academia, service to society, application of knowledge, service to institution). As a result, it may be considered that, because of their extensive experiences, faculty having higher seniority know how to reach alternative practices which ease their research activities, and they have had many more opportunities in their longer careers to contribute in the development of their disciplines, the reputation of their institutions and social wellness of the community by using their comprehensive expertise.

Moreover, in terms of faculty's academic titles, there are several significant differences in their perceptions of managerial flexibility regarding research practices and academic intellectual leadership (especially behaviors in mentor, acquirer (enabler), guardian (steward) and advocate dimensions) in favor of professors. Similarly, Bornholt et al. (2005) indicated that academics in Level E (professors) from Australia had generally more positive perceptions about institutional policies and facilities towards international activities and research productivity. Akman et al. (2006) found that faculty's perceptions for the item

creating enough time to make research by manageable teaching load were better than junior academics. Besides, Bentley et al. (2013) mentioned that Argentinian senior rank academics' perceptions had significant relations with institutional resources and their job satisfaction. In addition, Aypay (2001) found that having tenure was a significant predictor for academics' behaviors in *Scholarship of Application* which includes application, service to academia, service to society, application of knowledge and service to institution. However, H. Yılmaz (2007), in his study about academic administrators' intellectual leadership, did not find any significant difference in academic intellectual leadership in terms of their academic titles. The dissimilar and limited sample of H. Yılmaz's (2007) study might be the reason for the different result from this research. After all, it could be affirmed that professors have broader information related to ongoing research practices in their universities by means of their intensive research activities allowing them to reach the highest academic rank. Also, growing responsibilities and expectation with higher titles can bring new duties and opportunities to serve their disciplines by being an editor, reviewer, panelist, committee member, department head, etc., to serve their institutions by being a keynote speaker, media speaker, dean, rector, etc. and to serve the community by being a public voice, activist, campaigner, NGO leader, etc.

In terms of faculty's disciplines, there are significant differences in their perceptions about managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices, especially for service and research practices, and academic intellectual leadership behaviors within all dimensions generally in favour of faculty from Social & Creative Sciences. Likely, Bornholt et al. (2005) stated that professors in social sciences are more satisfied with academic conditions, support, facilities and conditions of work than professors from arts & humanities and the sciences. Moreover, Bentley et al. (2013) found that studying natural sciences or medicine was a negative predictor for German academics' job satisfaction. Aypay (2001) also found that being an

academic in high consensus disciplines (e.g. astronomy, botany, biology, chemistry, geology, math, microbiology, physiology, physics, zoology) had a negative influence on the *Scholarship of Integration* (publication of reviews and interdisciplinary work, publications for society, service to local organizations, lectures in local organizations) and *Scholarship of Teaching* (developing new courses, teaching, course preparation). Besides, Locke (2008) found that academics from social sciences gave more responses as 'strongly agree' for the items: *Scholarship is best defined as the preparation and presentation of findings on original research, Scholarship includes the preparation of reports that synthesize the major trends of my field and Faculty in my discipline have a professional obligation to apply their knowledge to problems in society*. As a result, it may be claimed that requiring more extensive research equipment or artwork materials in other disciplines than in social sciences and arrangements of many service practices regarding to social concerns cause the lower satisfaction of academics from arts & humanities, applied and natural sciences about managerial support practices regarding scholarly activities. Also, it might be supposed that while knowledge production is much more mechanical in other disciplines, social sciences are composed of more subjective disciplines, and faculty from social sciences have more opportunities to use their expertise about social issues in different public mediums, thus, faculty from social sciences can display wider leadership behaviors to keep up the standards of their disciplines, to transfer their disciplinary values to early career colleagues and to adapt their knowledge in the solutions of problems in society.

Additionally, there are significant differences in faculty's perceptions about organizational communication, organizational climate (both for recognition of the organization and supported structurally) and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices (especially for service and teaching practices) in universities, and their academic intellectual leadership, especially in ambassador and advocate dimensions, generally in favor

of faculty who have administrative duties in institutional level. In the similar way, Alipour (2011) found that, in physical higher education organizations, executive managers had more positive perceptions about their communication skills and these skills were beneficial in achieving an efficient communication within the organizations. Şimşek (2011) also found that the perceptions of academics about communication with seniors were at a moderate level for one of the Turkish university. Besides, Gizir and Gizir (2005) stated that there were several communication problems arising from management, and these caused negative correlations with academics' organizational communication perceptions. Then again, Alipour (2011) indicated that the organizational climate perceptions of executive managers were higher than staff managers. Balcı-Bucak (2002), similarly, found for a Faculty of Education sample that managers perceived the organizational climate more favorable than others, but this difference was not statistically significant. However, Arabacı (2011) found that there were significant differences in the organizational climate perceptions of managers and officials in favor of managers in organizational structure and participation in decision making dimensions. In another aspect, O'Meara et al. (2014) stated that, although their institutions have large facilities for scholarly activities, university administrators identify better opportunities in other institutions as the initial reason for faculty leaving, but most important reason for their leaving, according to faculty, is a better campus climate of another university. Kezar and Lester (2009) also adduced that administrators from universities which proceeded official Leadership Development, Faculty Development and Mentoring Programs have more positive perceptions about facilities and opportunities to develop faculty grassroots leadership. In addition, H. Yılmaz (2007) found, in terms of managerial positions, a significant difference in the intellectual leadership of academic administrators in favor of academics at the top administration levels of the universities like rector, vice-rector and dean. After all, it is possible to claim that academics having administrative duties in institutional level strongly

suppose their managerial applications contributing positively to the effectiveness of communication, organizational climate and sustenance infrastructure for faculty's scholarly activities in universities. Also, top level academic administrators, because of their official title, represent their institutions intentionally or unintentionally in nearly all platforms while sharing their opinions related to social issues in different mediums and providing varied institutional support for public activities by means of the power of their positions.

Furthermore, in terms of the establishment date of universities, there are significant differences between the perceptions of faculty from 1992-2005 universities and post-2005 universities about organizational communication and organizational climate (especially for Supported Structurally dimension), in favor of faculty from post-2005 universities. There are also significant differences in favor of faculty from pre-1992 universities on their' perceptions about managerial flexibility regarding research practices and academic leadership behaviors in acqistor (enabler) dimension. After these results, many studies related to organizational communication from domestic and international literature were examined by the researcher but most of them focused on just one university as a population or the comparison of public and foundation universities, thus, any evidence cannot be presented to discuss the result related to the establishment dates of public universities in Turkey. On the other hand, McMurray and Scott (2013), in their study covering respondents from different Australian universities which include relatively young ones, indicated that support from their seniors and recognition of their success were important determinants of organizational climate perceptions of academics. Schulz (2013) also stated that faculty from new UK universities perceived a strong clan climate for their organizations. In addition, Locke (2008) found that academics from pre-1992 UK universities gave more responses as 'excellent' or 'very good' than others for research infrastructures such as *laboratories, research equipment and instruments, library facilities, computer facilities, and secretarial support*. Furthermore,

Macfarlane and Chan (2014) indicated that many obituaries, which are related to successful academics in different aspects of scholarship, mentioned mostly academics who studied in former universities. In the respect of information above, it may be asserted that academics from new universities can easily reach their administrators and interact with their colleagues both formally and informally thanks to the smaller size of their universities, and administrators in these universities can recognize the success of their faculty and use them to motivate faculty for greater achievements in their institutions. On the other side, former universities generally have stronger research infrastructure composed of broader libraries, techno-cities, technology transfer offices, advanced laboratories, powerful collaborations with industrial organizations, comprehensive PhD programs, and faculty from these universities benefit from well-rounded research facilities to secure more research funds to their universities for their own studies or their group projects.

According to universities' locations, there are significant differences in faculty's perceptions about organizational communication in favor of the faculty from universities in Central Anatolia, and for their perceptions on organizational climate (especially for recognition of the organization) in favor of the faculty from universities in Central Anatolia and Marmara regions. Besides, the perception of faculty from Central Anatolian universities about managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices (especially for research practices) and their behaviors in acquirer (enabler) dimension are significantly different from others. In a discussion of these results, there is no study in reviewed literature directly related to the comparison of communication, climate, resources for scholarly activities in universities and faculty's intellectual leadership in terms of universities' locations. However, Gizir and Gizir (2005), in their study based on responses of academics who studied in universities from different regions, stated that the strongest determinants for academics' perceptions about the effectiveness of organizational communication were *atmosphere in department, level of*

motivation and collaboration with colleagues. Also, Kezar (2013) indicated that higher education institution from urban area had a liberal and a progressive campus culture while higher education institution from suburban area had a politically moderate and a non-conservative culture and higher education institution from rural area had a fairly progressive culture. Furthermore, Kezar and Lester (2009) stated that research university in urban area had moderately strong resources, but universities from suburban, outside urban and rural areas had constrained resources. After all, it can be affirmed that Central Anatolia and Marmara host both many former and young universities but not many middle-aged universities; thus, faculty from universities in these two regions have advantages, because of their smaller size institutions or well-established communication channels in their sophisticated universities with a more collegial climate, to interact readily with their administrators and colleagues according to faculty from other regional universities, which are in growth tendency to improve their operations despite their complications. Moreover, faculty from Central Anatolian universities, owing to extensive research support practices executed by management in their institutions, can display more research leadership to bring larger external project funds in their universities than their colleagues from universities in other regions.

Correlations between faculty's perceptions of organizational communication, organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities, and their academic intellectual leadership. The relations between faculty's perceptions of Organizational Communication, Organizational Climate and Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices in universities, and their Academic Intellectual Leadership were analyzed in the research, and then, the results of this analysis are discussed below.

In the first instance, the perception of faculty about organizational climate has a positive relationship with their academic intellectual leadership behaviors. Similarly, Balçı-

Bucak (2002) found that some behaviors of university managers like *the contribution of managers to academics' self-development, the objectiveness of managers to distribute extra resources* and *the compatibility of managers' supervision format to the scholarly expectations* influenced academics' organizational climate perceptions as well as their scholarly productivities. Also, Schulz (2013) found that the role conflict and role ambiguity in universities affected negatively academics' job performance besides their climate perceptions. In addition, Campbell and O'Meara (2014), in the frame of their study, indicated that climate, norms and expectations were among the determinants of faculty's agency actions and perspectives which include faculty's professional growth, productivity, advancement and retention. After all, it may be stated that the frequency of faculty's academic intellectual leadership behaviors are affected by their perceptions about organizational climate in universities.

Additionally, there are positive correlations between managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices and organizational climate perceptions of faculty, and also their academic intellectual leadership. Likewise, Arabacı (2011) indicated that organizational structure covers hierarchy, roles, statuses, systems and operations in the institution, and then defined organizational structure as one of the dimensions of organizational climate. Besides, O'Meara et al. (2014) pointed out that better campus climate was one of the primary reasons for faculty leave, and to prevent faculty's leave administrators should create effective policies to generate better opportunities which contribute to form more positive climate in their institutions. Further, Coates et al. (2009) affirmed that the institutional resources facilitating academics' teaching, research and service duties affected extremely their scholarly performances, especially related to their research leadership. Kezar and Lester (2009) also stated that leadership development, faculty development and mentorship programs, and supportive superiors, opportunities to attend external academic events and different campus-wide

collegial networks supported faculty grassroots leadership. Therefore, it can be predicated that different practices of managements to support faculty's scholarly activities assist to form a favorable climate in universities, and faculty's academic intellectual leadership behaviors for contributing to the professional development of their junior colleagues, the advancement of their disciplines, the reputation of their institutions and the wellness of community.

Lastly, faculty's perceptions of organizational communication show meaningful relations with their perceptions about organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities, and their academic intellectual leadership. In similar ways, Alipour (2011) found the positive correlation between the perceptions of academics working in physical higher education institutions about organizational communication and climate in their institutions. In addition, Arabacı (2011) claimed that 'Organizational Communication and Participating in Decision Making' is a dimension of organizational climate in university. Gizir and Gizir (2005) also found that unsatisfactory communication in universities was one of the primary reasons for the problems arising from managerial practices which cause the inadequate sharing of scientific knowledge and to form isolated departments. Besides, Beytekin and Arslan (2013) stated that formal and informal communication channels used by administrators in universities like newsletters, brochures, management reports, bulletin boards, e-mail groups, online message boards and intranet systems assist to inform faculty about ongoing processes and operations, new policies and practices, as well as to benefit by faculty from internal-external facilities and different scholarly opportunities. Moreover, Aypay (2001) asserted that the increasing levels of communication in universities due to interdisciplinary facilities related to academics' scholarly activities contribute the intensity of academics' leadership behaviors by the higher productivity in their individual and collaborative studies. Kezar and Lester (2009) also stated that the effective communications and interactions between faculty in leadership

development, faculty development and mentorship programs, and campus-wide collegial networks contribute to raising the level of benefitting from faculty's academic leadership. As a result, it might be affirmed that the perceptions of faculty about organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities, and their academic intellectual leadership are proportional with the adequacy of organizational communication in universities.

Mediation roles of organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices between organizational communication and academic intellectual leadership. The theoretical model of the research about organizational communication, organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities, and faculty's academic intellectual leadership was formed by the researcher in accordance with information in the literature. After detecting relations mentioned above, this model was tested in two steps by Path Analysis Technique in Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). The result of the first step demonstrates that the level of organizational communication in universities is one of the important determinants for the frequency of faculty's academic intellectual leadership behaviors. Besides, the analysis in the second step shows that one part of the influences of organizational communication on faculty's academic intellectual leadership is mediated by organizational climate in universities while the remaining part is mediated by managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices. In another study, Balci-Bucak (2002) indicated that the positive interactions among academics and their administrators affect academics' perceptions about climate in a Faculty of Education, and these perceptions steer their motivation and productivity as well as their contribution to the institution. Likewise, both Arabacı (2011) and McMurray and Scott (2013) affirmed that the participation of academics in decision-making by open communication mediums contribute to

generate a favorable climate in higher education institutions, and this democratic atmosphere influence organizational performance which is determined by academics' individual efforts.

Additionally, Aypay (2001) claimed that clan structure formed by collegial dialogs provide more scholarly sharing about the latest pedagogical methods, different funds and research resources, interdisciplinary practices and community engagement opportunities, thus, academics' activities within varied scholarships become more efficient by means of these collegial collaborations. Kezar (2013) and Campbell and O'Meara (2014), similarly, asserted that positive social interactions among academics due to communication, collegueship and experience sharing in universities assist them to gain extensive information about managerial support mechanisms to facilitate their scholarly practices and the networks formed by different collegial bodies, and these operations induce academics' motivation, willingness, productivity and professional advancement. Furthermore, Geurts and Maassen (2005) stated that communication between managers and academics is one of the factors affecting the general perception of academics towards their institutions and one of their information sources about institutional resources, and these functions of organizational communication contribute to increasing the frequency of academics' professional and scholarly leadership behaviors. Bentley et al. (2013) also found that organizational communication as a part of administrative process, collegial climate in universities, especially in departmental level, and different institutional resources for teaching, research and community service activities were important predictors for academics' scholarly productivity besides their job satisfaction. As a result, it can be assumed that, owing to the contributions of the effective communication to creating a positive atmosphere and enhancing the functionalities of managerial operations in universities, all impacts of organizational communication on faculty's academic intellectual leadership are assured by the agency of organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices.

Conclusion

In this research, the perception levels of faculty about *Organizational Communication*, *Organizational Climate* and *Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices* in Turkish public universities and the frequency of Turkish faculty's *Academic Intellectual Leadership* were investigated. Also, the correlations between these topics, and the theoretical model based on the mediating roles of organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities within the relation between organizational communication and faculty's academic intellectual leadership were examined. Then, the results related to faculty's opinions about research variables, which are in the order of the research process, are presented below:

- The communication systems in Turkish public universities are not so effective as much as expected to enrich interaction among staff formally and informally, to facilitate quick and multi-way communication especially with top management and to provide alternative channels to obtain faculty's feedback and suggestions about organizational policies and practices.
- Formal management positions provide for faculty the power to initiate different communication channels to access personnel when they need and stronger information flow towards upper managerial positions, so faculty having administrative duties especially in institutional level have more positive ideas about the quality of communication in their institutions.
- In smaller size higher education institutions like post-2005 universities, faculty can find more opportunities, especially with informal ways, to interact easily with their administrators and colleagues, so they perceive better quality for organizational communication.

- In Central Anatolia, there are many former and younger universities but limited number of moderately aged universities, in which generally rapid growth in terms of student/staff number but slower development in their institutional infrastructure and communication networks than this quantitative growth. Thus, faculty working in universities from this region have more favorable perceptions on communication in their institutions due to well-established communication system and broadly formal and informal face-to-face interaction opportunities.
- The general atmosphere in Turkish public universities is not highly favorable in terms of providing for faculty desired work environments because of insufficient support from management, heavy academic expectations, huge teaching loads, inadequate institutional infrastructure, less appreciation for achievements, limited participation in decision-making and more dictating management approaches.
- Top level academic administrators believe that their decisions and practices related to operations in universities provide contributions to form more positive climate, but other faculty do not feel the same way about the positiveness of climate in their universities.
- Younger universities, thanks to respectively lower competition for the upper positions, easy recognition of faculty's success by their superior and intensive collegial interactions, have better atmosphere than the atmosphere in moderately aged universities.
- Many of the former Turkish public universities are in Central Anatolia and Marmara regions, and the organizational climate in these universities are more favorable because of well-designed institutional structures, a large number of highly respected senior academics and productive student bodies.

- In the parallel with the realism of the importance of research reputation in academia, university management give priority to improving research infrastructure, and managerial practices to facilitate faculty's teaching and service activities are in second, even in third order. Thus, institutional support regarding teaching and service activities are mostly limited with physical/technological infrastructure and not strong enough as much as in research support.
- As a known fact, more female faculty work in soft disciplines within Humanities and Social Sciences, and faculty from these disciplines need less expensive materials to carry out their teaching activities which are mostly theoretical-based, so female faculty and faculty who study on soft disciplines have better opinions about the support practices of management towards their teaching duties. Faculty from Social Sciences also reflect better ideas for institutional support towards their research and service practices, owing to their studies performed with respectively less resources and different internal-external social platforms on which they can use their expertise related to public issues.
- During their longer academic career, professors as generally faculty with highest seniority have more opportunities to benefit from institutional research facilities within different projects or collaborative studies undertaken at different positions such as a coordinator, counsellor, co-investigator or researcher because of their deep expertise and higher disciplinary reputation, so professors' opinions about the adequacy of research support in universities are more positive than their less experienced colleagues.
- Faculty who are academic administrators especially at institutional level, because of the requirements of their formal positions, have limited teaching responsibility and extra opportunities to give institutional supports as being a part in different

community engagement activities, so faculty having managerial duty make more optimistic evaluations related to managerial practices to facilitate faculty's teaching and service activities.

- Faculty working in pre-1992 universities, many of which are in Central Anatolia and Marmara regions, believe that their former institutions have advanced research facilities and well-organized managerial practices to enhance their research productivity.
- Faculty display more often the intellectual leadership behaviors which contribute to the advancement of their disciplines in accordance with the requirements of obtaining tenure based on having strong publication record as main criteria, and help to the development of their less experienced colleagues because of the contribution of advising younger researchers' studies in academic promotion than serving their institutions and communities.
- Female faculty display greater effort to help the professional development of their less experienced colleagues by their stronger motivator, emphatic and emotional characteristics.
- Professors with highest seniority have had much more opportunities to serve their disciplines, institutions and community during their longer work-life by using their scientific expertise in order to contributing in the professional development of junior colleagues, to keeping up standards in their disciplines, to gaining different research supports and to improving social wellness.
- Faculty from Social Sciences endeavor to develop their more subjective disciplines by gate-keeping activities, to convey professional values to early career academics and to benefit their knowledge for solutions of social problems, while faculty from

Natural Sciences give the majority of their attention to gain funds for their projects carried out with younger academics.

- Faculty having administrator duties especially at institutional level, as a part of their managerial duties, execute broader activities to represent their institutions in diverse academic and social activities.
- Faculty who work in pre-1992 universities especially from Central Anatolia, thanks to the developed research facilities in their former universities, have displayed more intellectual behaviors to acquire different funds and resources for their large scale studies carried out by wide research groups.
- Organizational climate has powerful associations with organizational communication, owing to the reflection of the quality of communication in interactions among staff, quick access to top management, providing feedback about institutional operations and participating in decision-making. In addition, the functionality of managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices deeply influence faculty's organizational climate perceptions by means of representing the strength of institutional resources and the positiveness of managerial support for academic activities in universities. In these perspectives, it can be claimed that organizational climate is a broader concept which is the sum of many components including management and leadership, institutional policies and practices and interpersonal relations and humanitarian motivators.
- Organizational communication shows high correlations with both organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities, whereas its correlation with faculty's academic intellectual leadership is not as powerful as others. Thus, the quality of organizational communication in universities is one of the important factors to steer faculty's appraisals about

climate and managerial practices towards scholarly activities in their institutions, and contribute positively in whole aspects of faculty's leadership behaviors.

- Favorable organizational climate has positive effects on the frequency of faculty's different academic intellectual leadership behaviors because of its supportive and motivator effects on faculty's academic performance, as well as on their job satisfaction.
- The strength of managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities shows a positive relation with faculty's academic intellectual leadership by facilitating their scholarly productivity and empowering their community engagement activities.
- The quality of organizational communication has a highly powerful effect on faculty's academic intellectual leadership. However, owing to the contributions of open and multi-ways communication systems to generate more participative, democratic and collegial work environment and to inform faculty about latest policies, different operations and new facilities in universities, the whole impact of organizational communication on faculty's intellectual leadership is ensured by the agency of organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities as two mediators.

Suggestions

The suggestions for practitioners and researchers generated in accordance with the results of the research given above are represented separately in this section.

Suggestions for practitioners. The suggestions for practitioners about organizational communication, organizational climate and managerial flexibility regarding scholarly practices in universities, and faculty's academic intellectual leadership are proposed below.

- To empower the organizational communication in universities, different formal and informal communication channels may be established such as departmental, faculty and institutional level *web-site announcements, e-mail groups, bulletins, internal telecommunication systems, voice-message systems, regular committee meetings, online official reports, formal research groups, disciplinary faculty meetings, social activities and celebration ceremonies.*
- University management can pattern the well-organized communication structures in former higher education institutions to effectuate parallel and bottom-up communication channels besides top-down communications using by ICT platforms like *self-appointment spots on administrators' online calendars, e-message accounts on institutional web-interfaces for administrators, regular online questions and answer sessions with administrators, chat options for students and academic staff on Learning Management Systems (LMS) and online reviewer-match systems on intranet platforms.*
- University management might empower collegiality, transparency and fairness in organizational operations to contribute positively to the organizational climate by forming *clear organizational goals, reasonable individual performance targets, apparent performance evaluation criteria, comprehensive reward systems, objective promotion process, official supervision operations, collegial discussion bodies and self-assessment tools.*
- Various policies and practices such as *organizing official research centers by partnership of different departments, giving priority for cooperative studies in fund options, rewarding co-authorship by honoring certifications, appreciation columns in institutional newsletters for faculty's scholarly achievements, arranging free-chat activities for emotional sharing and organizing collegial meetings to discuss*

ongoing processes freely can be applied especially in developing universities to maintain collegial work environment features.

- Faculty's teaching activities may be supported by providing *various teaching-learning technologies (Smart Boards, LMS, Massive Open Online Course platforms, etc.), different physical spaces (learning hubs, saloons, studios, sports courts, etc.), necessary formal arrangements for outdoor activities, quick material and equipment supply, open after-hours technology classes, laboratories and library facilities, teaching assistants and tutors for courses, central analysis unit for students' assessments about courses, and installing learning centers for the development of students' academic skills and teaching & learning institutes for the pedagogical improvement of faculty.*
- Different facilities like *central research office, project management unit for expert administrative staff assistance, formal institutional review bodies for project proposals, broader ethics committees in faculty and university levels, official career planning center, technology transfer offices, techno-cities, central laboratories, various exhibition areas, well-organized sabbatical and travel funds, institutional agreements to join different international research networks, telecommunication systems to open national and international contacts, different internal scholarships and fellowships, project-based research assistantship and extensive library and database access options* can be operated by university managements to brace faculty's research and project productivity.
- University managements, to contribute faculty's service activities, might set up several mechanisms such as *regulating the stable amount of days as duty leave for community engagement, teaching time-table regulation according to service activities, special permission options for public talks, personal assistantship to*

organize both institutional and social services, organizing institutional public events, physical space support for public activities, creating opportunities in institutional visual and printed media platforms, promoting officially faculty to be a part of national or international social responsibility projects and arranging interdisciplinary field trips related to social issues.

- Different managerial practices, to maximize the usage of institutional resources, like *arranging seminar, workshops and collegiums to share good teaching activity examples, regulating incentive programs to support younger researcher' studies, generating online sharing platforms to benefit from other academics' documents, materials and equipment, establishing common laboratories for using by faculty from different disciplines, making agreements with state institutions to benefit external arts and sports facilities by faculty and as well as academic administrators' opinions, giving place to other faculty's scientific contributions related to social issues in institutional broadcastings and publications* can be operated in universities.
- To increase faculty's academic intellectual leadership, university managements may give space for the behaviors within *institutional representations, community engagements and financial contributions* in academic promotion and reward systems, and also tenure criteria may be re-arranged to contain *participation in projects, contributions to solutions of social issues, attendance in national and international academic events, membership of committees, disciplinary gate-keeping activities* besides faculty's scholarly publications.
- University management, to elevate organizational development by augmenting the academic intellectual leadership behaviors of all faculty from various disciplines, can institute several practices such as *official leadership trainings, courses about*

the different aspects of faculty mentorship, formal entrusting for younger faculty in institutional scholarly publications, larger travel funds for younger faculty to attend scholarly events, giving priority for less experienced faculty to attend international exchange programs, creating inducement project opportunities for early career faculty, commissioning younger faculty with administrative duties and encouraging faculty from product-oriented disciplines to contribute to real life affairs using by their expertise.

- Various communications channels like *online recommendation delivery system about institutional practices, free attendance meeting related to institutional policies, opinion indication and voting platforms on institutional web domains for involving decision-making processes, regular staff well-being surveys both in department and institutional level, online message system to reach institutional level administrators and academic discussion forums on intranet systems* might be operated to generate more participative atmosphere in universities.
- University managements, to increase faculty's knowledge related to institutional practices regarding scholarly resources, can use several communication mediums such as *institutional bulletins about new teaching, research and service facilities, online letters about teaching development opportunities, announcements about internal and external pedagogy educations, e-invitations for seminars and workshops about project managements, website announcements of internal and external research funds, newsletters about international exchange programs and info e-mails about cooperative activities with different social actors.*
- Various operations like *academic discussion groups related to varied topics, different institutional peer-review bodies, interdisciplinary seminars and workshops, regular disciplinary academic meetings, teas, lunch trysts and*

celebration parties and institutional sports competitions, by assisting the formation of a more collegial work environment, may enrich faculty's intellectual leadership to contribute in the development of their colleagues, disciplines, institutions and communities.

- To enhance faculty's academic intellectual leadership behaviors, different institutional practices such as *initiating faculty development programs, performing official mentorship programs, forming interdisciplinary post-graduate programs, establishing institutional scholarly journals, providing physical space, ICT and secretarial support for disciplinary associations, forming stable funds for inviting overseas scholars, operating co-advisory systems, setting up search software to access suitable external funds, integrating ethic applications system within intranet platforms, arranging seminars and workshops about project managements, creating academic formations related to social topics on institutional environment, generating institutional opportunities on social media platforms to attending public campaigns, leading the organization of national or international academic or social events in universities, establishing media advisory unit to develop relations with external visual and printed media channels and inviting officially external media representatives to institutional activities* can be initiated by university managements.

Suggestions for researchers. Several suggestions about potential further studies on the research variables are recommended below.

- The contribution of academic administrators' communication skills to the quality of organizational communication in universities might be examined by using different research methods in various samples.

- Researchers can thoroughly investigate the determinants of organizational climate in universities by qualitative data collection and analysis techniques.
- Besides managerial flexibility regarding teaching, research and service, other managerial practices may be examined to understand which types of managerial operations contribute faculty's academic productivity.
- Researchers, by using qualitative methods in different study groups, might explore the personal characteristics of academics to nurture their role model behaviors within academic intellectual leadership.
- Similar studies may carry out with using different data set by collecting data from a whole faculty or academics in selected universities.
- Researchers can develop diverse theoretical models to test different directional relations among communication, climate and managerial practice flexibility in universities, and academics' intellectual leadership.
- In addition to the variables in this research, different personal and educational background features of academics and organizational elements of universities can be analyzed by comprehensive quantitative research techniques to assess their effects on academics' intellectual leadership behaviors.
- International comparative studies related to each topic in the research can be carried out to expose similarities and differences among participants and their institutions from different countries.

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Appendices

Appendix A. Semi-structured interview form (in Turkish)

YARI-YAPILANDIRILMIŞ GÖRÜŞME FORMU

Araştırma Sorusu: Öğretim üyelerinin, üniversitelerdeki öğretim, araştırma ve toplum hizmeti etkinliklerine ilişkin yönetsel uygulamaların oluşturduğu esnekliğe yönelik görüşleri nelerdir?

Görüşülen: _____ **Görüşmeci:** _____

Tarih ve Saat (Başlangıç ve Bitiş): _____

Sayın Öğretim Üyesi,

ÇANAKKALE Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi Eğitim Yönetimi, Tef. Plan. ve Ek. Anabilim Dalı'nda Araştırma Görevlisi ve Doktora Programı öğrencisiyim. Doktora tez çalışmam kapsamında "Üniversitelerdeki Akademik Uygulamalara İlişkin Yönetsel esneklik" konusuna ilişkin bir araştırma yapmaktayım. Araştırmanın amacı doğrultusunda siz değerli öğretim üyelerinin konu hakkındaki görüşlerinin belirleyici olduğuna inanmaktayım. Katkılarınız için şimdiden size teşekkürlerimi sunarım.

Görüşme sonucunda elde edilecek bilgiler kesinlikle gizli tutulacak, görüşmede konuşulanların yalnızca araştırmacı ve görüşülen öğretim üyeleri tarafından bilineceğini belirtmek isterim. Bunun yanı sıra araştırma raporunda isimleriniz hiçbir şekilde yer almayacak ve farklı sembollerle kodlanarak kullanılacaktır.

Görüşmemize başlamadan önce sormak istediğiniz soru veya belirtmek istediğiniz herhangi bir düşünceniz var mı?

Görüşmeyi izin verirseniz kaydetmek istiyorum. Bunun sizce bir sakıncası var mı?

Bu görüşmenin yaklaşık yarım saat süreceğini tahmin ediyorum. Tekrar teşekkür ediyor, izninizle sorularıma başlıyorum.

1. Üniversite yönetimi tarafından öğretim görevlerinizi kolaylaştırıcı ne tür uygulamalar gerçekleştirilmektedir? Lütfen, uygulamanın yönetim düzeyini (bölüm, fakülte veya üniversite) belirterek örnekler veriniz.

2. Üniversite yönetimi tarafından araştırmalarınızı ve proje çalışmalarınızı kolaylaştırıcı ne tür uygulamalar gerçekleştirilmektedir? Lütfen, uygulamanın yönetim düzeyini belirterek örnekler veriniz.

3. Üniversite yönetimi tarafından toplum hizmeti aktivitelerinizi kolaylaştırıcı ne tür uygulamalar gerçekleştirilmektedir? Lütfen, uygulamanın yönetim düzeyini belirterek örnekler veriniz.

4. Belirttiğiniz uygulamaların yanı sıra, üniversite yönetimi tarafından bilimsel-sosyal etkinliklerinizi destekleyici daha farklı ne tür uygulamalar yapılabilir? Lütfen, önerilerinizi öğretim, araştırma ve toplum hizmeti etkinliklerine yönelik olarak ayrı ayrı belirtiniz.

5. Akademisyenlerin görevlerini yürütebilmeleri için hangi yönetsel uygulamaların mutlaka yapılması gerekir?

6. Görüşme kapsamında belirtmek istediğiniz farklı düşünceleriniz ve önerileriniz var mı?

Katkılarınız için tekrar teşekkürler.

Appendix B. Semi-structured interview form (in English)

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW FORM^{*}

Research Question: What are the opinions of senior academics (associate professors and professors) towards the flexibility forming by managerial practices regarding teaching, research and service activities in universities?

Interviewee: _____ **Interviewer:** _____

Date and Start - End Times: _____

Dear Senior Academic,

I am a research assistant and PhD candidate at Educational Administration and Supervision Department in Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Turkey. I am also a visiting scholar in the Faculty of Education and Social Work, University of Sydney. I am undertaking research in Australia as a part of my PhD dissertation about “Managerial Flexibility Regarding Scholarly Practices in Universities”. For the purpose of the research, the opinions of senior academics (*Professors and Associate Professors*) related to my research subject are very important. Hereby, thank you in advance for your contributions to my research.

The information obtained from the interview will be kept strictly confidential. Your name will not be featured in the research report; each interviewee will be encoded in the report.

Before starting the interview, have you any question to ask, or any ideas to indicate?

To form transcription, I want to record our interview. Do you consent to the interview being recorded?

I estimate that our interview will take not more than around 30 minutes. For reasons of confidentiality, I will not refer to your name during the interview.

Now, if you let me, I want to ask my first question.

1. Which types of practices instituted by management in the university to facilitate your teaching duties? Please give some examples, that also indicate the management level (department, faculty or university).
2. Which types of practices executed by management in the university to facilitate your researches? Please give some examples, that also indicate the management level.
3. Which types of practices executed by management in the university to facilitate your service activities? Please give some examples, that also indicate the management level.
4. Besides managerial practices mentioned above, what should university management operate more to facilitate your scholarly activities? Please, indicate the practices for teaching, research and service activities separately.
5. Which managerial practices in universities are essential to accomplish academics’ duties and responsibilities?
6. Are there any ideas or suggestions which you want to add our interview?

Thank you again for your contribution.

* This semi-structured interview form was used after Ethical Approval of HREC, University of Sydney.

Appendix C. Data collection tools (in Turkish)

KİŞİSEL VE KURUMSAL BİLGİLER

Cinsiyetiniz : () Erkek () Kadın

Öğretim üyesi olarak görev süreniz : () 0-5 Yıl () 6-10 Yıl () 11-15 Yıl () 16-20 Yıl () 21-... Yıl

Akademik ünvanınız : () Profesör [Dr.] () Doçent [Dr.] () Yardımcı Doçent [Dr.]

***Çalışma/Uzmanlık alanınız** : Lütfen yazarak belirtiniz
* Biglan'ın (1973) disiplin sınıflamasına göre → [() Uygulamalı Bil. () Sanat ve Beşeri Bil. () Doğal Bil. () Sosyal ve Yaratıcı Bil.]

Yönetim görevi durumunuz : () Kurum düzeyi [Rektör, Rek. Yr, Dekan, Dek. Yr, Ens.-Yük. Ok. Müdür, Müd. Yr]
() Bölüm düzeyi [Böl. Baş., Böl., Baş. Yr., ABD Baş. veya ABD Baş. Yr]
() Diğer Lütfen yazarak belirtiniz
() Bulunmuyor

Görev yaptığınız üniversitenin...

...Kuruluş yılı : () 1992 öncesi () 1992-2005 arası () 2005 sonrası

...Bulunduğu bölge : () Akdeniz () Doğu An. () Ege () Güneydoğu An.
() İç An. () Karadeniz () Marmara

Görev yaptığınız üniversiteyi genel olarak değerlendirdiğinizde; aşağıda belirtilenlerin gerçekleşme sıklığını belirtiniz.					
[1=Hiçbir zaman ↔ 5=Her zaman]					
ÖRGÜTSEL İLETİŞİM ÖLÇEĞİ**	1	2	3	4	5
9. Bu kurumdaki insanlar birbirlerine karşı gerçekten açık ve dürüst olmaları için cesaretlendirilirler.					
10. Bu kurumdaki insanlar iş hedeflerinin ve amaçlarının ne derecede gerçekleştirildiği konusunda bilgilendirilirler.					
8. Bu kurumdaki insanlar işyerindeki değişimler konusunda bilgilendirilirler.					
2. Bu kurumdaki insanlar kurumun gittiği doğrultu (yön) konusunda bilgilendirilirler.					
5. Bu kurumda sorunlarımı iletmek üzere gerektiğinde üstlerime ulaşabiliyorum.					
4. Bu kurumda çalışanları doğrudan ilgilendiren konular zamanında iletilir.					
7. Bu kurumdaki insanlar serbestçe bilgi ve fikir alış verisi yapar.					
6. Bu kurumdaki insanlar bilgileri dedikodu ağındaki arkadaşlarından duymadan önce resmi kanallardan (resmi kanallar aracılığıyla) duyarlar.					
3. Bu kurumdaki insanlar, örgütle ilgili bilgileri resmi olmayan (informal) iletişim kanallarından (söylenti, dedikodu, saptırma, fısıltı gazetesi, vb.) öğrenirler.					
11. Çalıştığım kurumda işle ilgili sorunlarımı daha çok kişisel ilişkiler yoluyla çözüyorum.					
1. Bu kurumda yöneticiler, resmi olmayan (informal) iletişim kanallarından (söylenti, dedikodu, saptırma, fısıltı gazetesi, vb.) etkilenirler.					
** Bu ölçek E. Yılmaz (2007) tarafından geliştirilmiş olup, bu araştırmada yapılan geçerlik-güvenirlilik analizleri sonucu 1. madde elenerek tek boyutlu bir ölçek elde edilmiştir.					

Görev yaptığınız üniversiteyi genel olarak değerlendirdiğinizde; aşağıda belirtilenlerin katılma düzeyinizi belirtiniz.					
[1= Tamamen katılmıyorum ↔ 5= Tamamen katılıyorum]					
ÖRGÜT İKLİMİ ÖLÇEĞİ ***	1	2	3	4	5
15. (Yap. Des.) Bu örgüte ait olduğumdan dolayı mutluluk duyarım.					
11. (Yap. Des.) Genellikle belirlenen hedeflere inanırım.					
5. (Örg. Tan.) Çalışanlar performansları oranında ödüllendirilir.					
21. (Yap. Des.) Bu kurumda olup biten olaylara önem veririm.					
6. (Örg. Tan.) Teşvik ve ödüller, eleştirilerden daha fazladır.					
1. (Yap. Des.) İyi bir takımın üyesi olduğumu hissedirim.					
7. (Örg. Tan.) Performans için yüksek standart oluşturulmuştur.					
2. (Yap. Des.) Yönetim kararlarımı teşvik eder.					
19. (Örg. Tan.) Başarılı çalışanların ilerlemelerini sağlayan bir terfi sistemi vardır.					
16. (Yap. Des.) Yöneticim ya da iş arkadaşlarım görevlerimde bana yardım eder.					
20. (Örg. Tan.) İyi yönetim sistemiyle verimliliğimiz artmaktadır.					
10. (Yap. Des.) Yapılan işin sürekli geliştirilmesi istenmektedir.					
23. (Örg. Tan.) Çalışanlar kuruma bağlıdır.					
3. (Yap. Des.) Çalışanlar birbirine güvenir.					
4. (Örg. Tan.) Görevler açık bir şekilde tanımlanmıştır.					
22. (Yap. Des.) İşimi kendi işim gibi sahiplenirsem yükselebilirim.					
17. (Yap. Des.) Bir işi iyi yaptığımda takdir edilirim.					
*** Bu ölçek Litwin & Stringer'in (1968) geliştirdiği bu ölçek, Stringer (2002) tarafından güncellenmiş ve Hocaniyazov (2008) tarafından Türkçe'ye çevrilmiştir. Türkçe formun geçerlik-güvenirlik analizleri Hocaniyazov (2008), Özdede (2010) ve Kılınc-Ergülen (2011) tarafından ayrı ayrı yapılmıştır. Bu çalışmada ise yapılan DFA'lar (Doğrulayıcı Faktör Analiz'leri) sonucu Kılınc-Ergülen (2011) tarafından belirlenen ölçek yapısı kullanılmıştır.					
Görev yaptığınız üniversitenin yönetimini genel olarak değerlendirdiğinizde; aşağıda belirtilenlerin yönetim tarafından gerçekleştirilme sıklığını belirtiniz.					
[1=Hiçbir zaman ↔ 5=Her zaman]					
BİLİMSEL-SOSYAL UYGULAMALARA İLİŞKİN YÖNETSEL ESNEKLİK ÖLÇEĞİ	1	2	3	4	5
33. (Top. Hiz. Uyg.) Akademisyenlerin, sosyal hayata katılımlarını artırıcı oluşumların (STK, dernek, topluluk, vb.) kurulmasına veya devamlılığının sağlanmasına öncülük etmeleri desteklenir.					
11. (Araş. Uyg.) Kurum içi farklı oluşumlar (araştırma ofisi, teknokent, teknoloji transfer bürosu, kariyer merkezi, sportif-sanatsal etkinlikler birimi, vb.) yoluyla akademisyenlerin sanayi, araştırma veya uygulama kuruluşlarıyla ilişkileri güçlendirilir.					
1. (Öğr. Uyg.) Öğretim ortamlarının (sınıf, laboratuvar, salon, atölye, vb.) fiziksel-teknolojik yapısının eğitim faaliyetlerine uygunluğu sağlanır.					
15. (Top. Hiz. Uyg.) Akademisyenlerin toplumu ilgilendiren bilimsel konulara ilişkin açıklamalarının (demeç, röportaj, gazete yazısı, vb.), çeşitli araçlarla					

(sosyal ağlar, yerel basın, ulusal medya, vb.) topluma ulaştırılmasına katkı sağlanır.					
5. (Araş. Uyg.) Fikrî mülkiyet hakları, telif edinme süreci, patent başvurusu, vb. konularda akademisyenlere gerekli destek sağlanır.					
13. (Öğr. Uyg.) Materyal, malzeme, teknik donanım, vb. ihtiyaçlar eğitim-öğretim faaliyetlerini aksatmayacak bir sürede sağlanır.					
27. (Top. Hiz. Uyg.) Farklı çalışma alanlarından akademisyenlerin yer aldığı toplumsal olayları yerinde inceleme amaçlı, eğitim veya araştırma gezileri düzenlenir.					
35. (Araş. Uyg.) Akademisyenlerin ihtiyaç duydukları bilimsel kaynaklar (makale, gazete, dergi, kitap, e-kaynak, vb.) kütüphane tarafından temin edilerek, kullanıma sunulur.					
7. (Öğr. Uyg.) Eğitim-öğretimde sınıf dışı etkinliklere (alan çalışmaları, işyeri ziyaretleri, akademik aktivitelere katılım, vb.) ilişkin düzenlemeler gereken zamanda yapılır.					
21. (Top. Hiz. Uyg.) Toplumsal konularda, üniversitenin yetkili organları tarafından çeşitli yollarla (bildiriler, kamuoyu araştırmaları, bilimsel çalışma sonuçları, vb.) kurumsal görüş bildirilir.					
2. (Araş. Uyg.) Akademisyenlere, proje veya etkinlik çalışmaları için kurum dışı fon kaynakları konusunda bilgilendirme yapılır.					
3. (Öğr. Uyg.) Toplum hizmeti kapsamındaki öğretim faaliyetleri için akademisyenlere ihtiyaç duydukları fiziki ortamlar (sınıf, salon, spor alanı, sanat atölyesi, vb.) konusunda destek sağlanır.					
18. (Top. Hiz. Uyg.) Akademisyenlerin ülke çapındaki toplumsal sorumluluk projelerinde rol (düzenleyici, yürütücü, eğitimci, vb.) almaları desteklenir.					
25. (Öğr. Uyg.) Planlanmış ders saatleri dışındaki zamanlarda, öğrencilerin ve akademisyenlerin teknoloji sınıfları, laboratuvar, salon, vb. yerleri kullanmaları desteklenir.					
Bir akademisyen olarak; aşağıda belirtilenleri gerçekleştirme sıklığınızı belirtiniz.					
[1=Hiçbir zaman ↔ 5=Her zaman]					
AKADEMİK ENTELEKTÜEL LİDERLİK ÖLÇEĞİ	1	2	3	4	5
30. (Temsilci Olma) Kariyer günleri, tanıtım fuarları, okul ziyaretleri, vb. etkinliklerde üniversiteyi tanıtmaya					
26. (Rehber Olma) Deneyimi az olan meslektaşlarımı, kendilerinin güçlü ve zayıf taraflarını keşfetmeye yönlendirme					
11. (Kazandırıcı Olma) Yürütücüsü olduğum projeler veya etkinlikler ile öğrencilerin bursiyer, yardımcı personel, vb. yollarla finansal olarak desteklenmesini sağlama					
40. (Gözetici Olma) Uzmanlık alanım kapsamındaki yayın, proje, etkinlik vb. çalışmalara yönelik farklı değerlendirme uygulamalarında (editör, hakem, panelist, danışman, vb.) gönüllü olarak yer alma					
33. (Savunucu Olma) Çalışmalarımda toplumsal baskıya maruz kalan kesimlerin haklarını dile getirme					
18. (Temsilci Olma) Önemli günler için yapılan yerel veya ulusal törenlere (kutlama, anma, yürüyüş, vb.) kurumu temsilen gönüllü olarak katılma					
20. (Rehber Olma) Deneyimi az olan meslektaşlarıma örnek olması amacıyla, çalışma alanımdaki diğer akademisyenlerin başarılarını dile getirme					

17. (Kazandırıcı Olma) Yürütücüsü olduğum projeler veya etkinlikler ile deneyimi az olan meslektaşlarımın danışman, araştırmacı, eğitici personel, vb. yollarla finansal olarak desteklenmesini sağlama					
64. (Gözetici Olma) Meslektaşlarımın eğitsel veya akademik çalışmalarına yönelik değerlendirmelerde bulunma					
39. (Savunucu Olma) Çalışma alanımla ilişkili toplumsal oluşumlarda (STKlar, dernekler, basın-yayın organları, vb.) aktif olarak yer alma					
66. (Temsilci Olma) Kamusal veya sosyal ortamlarda üniversiteyi tanıtmaya					
14. (Rehber Olma) Proje, yayın, etkinlik, vb. başvurularının reddedilmesi durumunda deneyimi az olan meslektaşlarımı vazgeçmemeleri için cesaretlendirme					
5. (Kazandırıcı Olma) Araştırma fonları, kontratlar, kaynaklar ve diğer ticari olanakları üniversiteye kazandıracak çalışmalar yapma					
58. (Gözetici Olma) Çalışma alanımın bilgi üretme yöntemlerine katkı sağlayıcı yayınlar yapma					
45. (Savunucu Olma) Çalışma alanım kapsamındaki toplumsal sorunların çözümü için farklı aktörlerle (yerel yönetimler, meslek kuruluşları, ajanslar, vb.) işbirliği yapma					
54. (Temsilci Olma) Üniversitenin bilinirliğine katkı sağlayan ulusal veya uluslararası etkinlikler (konferanslar, uluslararası ağlar, araştırma işbirlikleri, vb.) düzenlemesine öncülük etme					
38. (Rehber Olma) Olumsuz olsa da deneyimi az olan meslektaşlarımın akademik gelişimlerine ilişkin geri bildirimde bulunma					
23. (Kazandırıcı Olma) Üniversiteye finansal katkı sağlayacak projeleri gerçekleştirebilmek için geniş katılımlı araştırma ekipleri oluşturma					
70. (Gözetici Olma) Mesleki paylaşımlar (akademik topluluklar, komiteler, çalışma değerlendirmeleri, bilimsel etkinlikler, vb.) yoluyla çalışma alanımın temel ilkelerini daha geniş bir alana yayma					
51. (Savunucu Olma) Çalışma alanım kapsamındaki toplumsal konulara ilişkin görüşlerimi, farklı medya kanallarını (gazete, dergi, radyo, tv, sosyal medya, vb.) kullanarak kamuya aktarma					

Appendix D. Data collection tools (in English)

PERSONAL & INSTITUTIONAL INFORMATIONS

Your gender : () Male () Female

Your seniority as faculty : () 0-5 Years () 6-10 Years () 11-15 Years () 16-20 Years () 21-... Years

Your Academic Title : () Prof. [Dr.] () Assoc. Prof. [Dr.] () Asist. Prof. [Dr.]

* **Your department/discipline:** Please, indicate by writing

* According to Biglan's (1973) classification → [() Applied Sci. () Arts & Humanities () Natural Sci. () Social & Creative. Sci.]

Your administrative duty: () Instit. lev. [Rector, Vice-Rec., Dean, Vice-Dean or Manager /Vice-Man. of Grad./Higher Ed.Sch.]

() Depart. lev. [Head/Deputy Head of Dep., Chair/Deputy Chair of Scientific Branch]

() Other Please, indicate by writing

() Do not have administrative duty

Your university's...

... **Establishment Date** : () Pre-1992 () 1992-2005 () Post-2005

... **Location as geographical region:** () Mediterranean () East Anatolia () Aegean

() Southeast Anatolia () Central Anatolia

() Blacksea () Marmara

Please, consider your university generally, and then indicate the frequency of actions stated in below.					
[1=Never ← → 5=Always]					
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION SCALE **	1	2	3	4	5
9. In this organization, people are encouraged to be open and honest against each other.					
10. In this organization, people are informed about the achievement level of job goals and tasks.					
8. In this organization, people are informed about the changes in the workplace.					
2. In this organization, people are informed about the direction which the organization goes to.					
5. In this organization, I can attain to my superiors when I need to tell my problems.					
4. In this organization, topics concerning personnel directly are conveyed in time.					
7. In this organization, people can make freely the exchange of information and ideas.					
6. In this organization, people learn information via official channels before hearing the information from their friends who are in gossip network.					
3. In this organization, people learn the information related to the organization from informal channels (rumour, gossip, diversion, whisper newspaper, etc.).					
11. In this organization, I mostly solve the problems related to my job by my personal connections.					
1. In this organization, administrators are influenced by informal channels (rumour, gossip, diversion, whisper newspaper, etc.).					
** This scale was developed by E. Yılmaz (2007), and #1 item was eliminated and one factor structure, composed of 10 items, was explored for the scale after validity and reliability analyses made by the researcher. Besides, all items of the scale given above were translated into English by the researcher.					

Please, consider your university generally, and then indicate the level of your agreement for the situations in below.					
[1=Completely Disagree ← → 5=Completely Agree]					
ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE SCALE ***	1	2	3	4	5
15. (<i>Supp. Struc.</i>) I am happy to be belonged to this organization.					
11. (<i>Supp. Struc.</i>) I generally believe in the targets given.					
5. (<i>Rec. of the Org.</i>) The employees are rewarded at the level of their performances.					
21. (<i>Supp. Struc.</i>) I care for what is happening in this organization.					
6. (<i>Rec. of the Org.</i>) The awards and encouragements are more than critizations.					
1. (<i>Supp. Struc.</i>) I feel as a member of a good team.					
7. (<i>Rec. of the Org.</i>) There is a high standard for performance.					
2. (<i>Supp. Struc.</i>) Management supports my decisions.					
19. (<i>Rec. of the Org.</i>) There is a promotion system which puts successful workers a step ahead.					
16. (<i>Supp. Struc.</i>) My manager or colleagues help me with my work.					
20. (<i>Rec. of the Org.</i>) Our productivity is increasing with our good management system.					
10. (<i>Supp. Struc.</i>) It is asked for continious development on the work being done.					
23. (<i>Rec. of the Org.</i>) Employees are loyal to the organization.					
3. (<i>Supp. Struc.</i>) Employees trust each other.					
4. (<i>Rec. of the Org.</i>) Tasks are explained obviously.					
22. (<i>Supp. Struc.</i>) I can promote if I own the work as it is mine.					
17. (<i>Supp. Struc.</i>) I am appreciated when I make a good work.					
*** After developed by Litwin & Stringer (1968), this scale was updated by Stringer (2002) and was translated into Turkish by Hocaniyazov (2008). The validity and reliability analysis for the Turkish form of the scale was performed by Hocaniyazov (2008), Özdede (2010) and Kılınç-Ergülen (2011) separately. In this study, the factor structure of the scale determined by Kılınç-Ergülen (2011) was used as a result of CFAs (Confirmatory Factor Analyses). Besides, all items of this scale given above were re-translated into English by Kılınç-Ergülen (2011) .					
Please, consider your university management generally, and then indicate the frequency of managerial practices stated in below.					
[1=Never ← → 5=Always]					
MANAGERIAL FLEXIBILITY REGARDING SCHOLARY PRACTICES SCALE ****	1	2	3	4	5
33. (<i>Ser. Prac.</i>) Academics are supported in leading to establishment and continuity of the formations (NGO, association, club, etc.) which enhance their participation into social life.					
11. (<i>Res. Prac.</i>) The relations between academics and industry, research or praxis organizations are empowered by different internal units (research office, techno-city, technology transfer bureau, career centre, sporty-artistic activities unit, etc.).					
1. (<i>Teac. Prac.</i>) Teaching mediums which have the physical-technological					

suitability (classroom, laboratory, saloon, studio, etc.) are provided for education activities.					
15. (Ser. Prac.) Various channels (social networks, local press, national media, etc.) are provided to deliver the commentaries (declaration, reportage, newspaper article, etc.) of academics about social issues.					
5. (Res. Prac.) Assistance is provided to academics about intellectual property rights, copyright acquisition process, patent application, etc.					
13. (Teac. Prac.) The need for materials, equipment, technical installations, etc. is supplied on time not causing to delay to the teaching-learning activities.					
27. (Ser. Prac.) The educational or research aimed field visits which academics from different disciplines can attend are organized to investigate social phenomena in their own areas.					
35. (Res. Prac.) The scientific sources (article, newspaper, journal, book, e-source, etc.) which academics need are procured and presented to them by the library.					
7. (Teac. Prac.) The regulations related to outdoor teaching-learning activities (field works, workplace visits, participation in academic events, etc.) are completed in the required time.					
21. (Ser. Prac.) Institutional views related to social issues are declared by component authorities in the university via various ways (notifications, public opinion surveys, scientific research reports, etc.).					
2. (Res. Prac.) Information is provided to academics about external fund opportunities for their project or activity studies.					
3. (Teac. Prac.) The physical mediums (classroom, saloon, sport area, art studio, etc.) needed for academics' teaching activities within community engagement are assured.					
18. (Ser. Prac.) Undertaking roles (organizer, coordinator, trainer, etc.) by academics in nation-wide social responsibility projects is promoted.					
25. (Teac. Prac.) The after-hours usage of technology classrooms, laboratories, saloons, etc., except planned lesson times, by students or academics is encouraged.					
**** This scale was translated into English by the researcher, but the English form of the scale has not been used yet.					
Please, as an academic, consider yourself, and then indicate your display frequency of behaviors stated in below.					
[1=Never ← → 5=Always]					
ACADEMIC INTELLECTUAL LEADERSHIP SCALE****	1	2	3	4	5
30. (Ambassador) To present my university in activities such as career days, publicity fairs, school visits, etc.					
26. (Mentor) To direct my less experienced colleagues to discover their strengths and weaknesses on their own					
11. (Acquistor) To provide financial support to my students as bursars, auxiliary staffs, etc. via the projects or activities coordinated by me					
40. (Guardian) To take part voluntarily in different reviewer mechanisms (editor, referee, panellist, counsellor, etc.) regarding publications, projects, activities, etc. within my discipline					
33. (Advocate) To voice the rights of communities exposed to social pressure in my studies					

18. (Ambassador) To attend voluntarily, as a representative of my university, in local or national ceremonies (celebration, commemoration, rally, etc.)					
20. (Mentor) To mention the successes of academics from my discipline for being examples for my less experienced colleagues					
17. (Acquistor) To provide financial support to my less experienced colleagues as consultant, researcher, trainer, etc. via the projects or activities coordinated by me					
64. (Guardian) To make evaluations towards the educational or academic studies of my colleagues					
39. (Advocate) To take an active role in social formations (NGOs, associations, unions, press-broadcast units, etc.) related to my study areas					
66. (Ambassador) To present my university in public or social mediums					
14. (Mentor) To encourage my less experienced colleagues for not giving up, when their project, publication or activity applications are rejected					
5. (Acquistor) To conduct studies which bring in research funds, contracts, resources and other commercial opportunities to my university					
58. (Guardian) To publish papers which contribute to the knowledge production methods in my discipline					
45. (Advocate) To collaborate with different actors (local authorities, professional associations, agencies, etc.) for solutions of social issues within my study areas					
54. (Ambassador) To lead the organization of national or international activities (conferences, international networks, research collaborations, etc.) which contribute to the reputation of my university					
38. (Mentor) To give feedback related to the academic development of my less experienced colleagues even if they are unfavorable					
23. (Acquistor) To form the wide-participation research teams for actualizing projects which provide financial contributions to my university					
70. (Guardian) To spread the fundamental principles of my discipline in broader areas via professional communions (academic unions, committees, study evaluations, scientific activities, etc.)					
51. (Advocate) To deliver my opinions related to social issues within my study areas by using different media channels (newspaper, magazine, radio-tv, social media, etc.)					
***** This scale was translated into English by the researcher, but the English form of the scale has not been used yet.					