



School Culture as a Tool for the Development of Occupational Commitment

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Abstract: This research has been conducted to determine the relationship between school culture and teachers' occupational commitment. The research was carried out according to the relational survey model for this purpose. The sample of the study consists of 377 teachers (150 male, 227 female) working in different public schools in Istanbul's Pendik district. The School Culture Scale and Occupational Commitment Scale have been used to collect the study data. The data obtained from the scales were transferred to the program SPSS. Frequency (f), mean (M), standard deviation (SD), kurtosis, and skewness coefficients for the data have been calculated and parametric tests performed. According to the study's findings, a significant relationship exists between teachers' occupational commitment and school culture. A positive and moderate relationship has been found for teachers' professional commitment with task culture, success culture, and support culture; meanwhile, a low and positive relationship exists between teachers' professional commitment and bureaucratic culture. Task culture is the strongest school culture predicting teachers' occupational commitment.

Keywords: Occupational commitment, school culture, task culture, success culture, support culture, bureaucratic culture.

Öz: Bu çalışma, okul kültürü ile öğretmenlerin mesleki bağlılıkları arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemek amacıyla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Araştırma, bu amaca uygun olarak ilişkisel tarama modeline göre yürütülmüştür. Araştırmanın örneklemini, İstanbul ili Pendik ilçesinde kamuya ait farklı okul kademelerinde görev yapan 377 (150 erkek, 227 kadın) öğretmen oluşturmuştur. Verilerinin toplanmasında "Okul Kültürü Ölçeği" ve "Mesleki Bağlılık Ölçeği" kullanılmıştır. Ölçekler aracılığıyla elde edilen veriler SPSS programına aktarılmıştır. Verilere ait frekans (f), ortalama (M), standart sapma (SD), basıklık ve çarpıklık katsayıları hesaplanmış ve parametrik testler yapılmıştır. Çalışmada elde edilen bulgulara göre öğretmenlerin mesleki bağlılıkları ile okul kültürleri arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmaktadır. Öğretmenlerin mesleki bağlılıkları ile görev kültürü, başarı kültürü ve destek kültürü arasında pozitif yönde ve orta düzeyde; diğer taraftan öğretmenlerin mesleki bağlılıkları ile bürokratik kültür arasında düşük düzeyde ve pozitif yönde anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. Görev kültürü, öğretmenlerin mesleki bağlılıklarını yordayan en güçlü okul kültürüdür.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Mesleki bağlılık, okul kültürü, görev kültürü, başarı kültürü, destek kültürü, bürokratik kültür.

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Introduction

The concept of culture, which is based on societal lifestyles, is used with many different meanings in daily life. By considering it as a way of life, culture gains a historical dimension (Doğan, 2018, p. 11). Because way of life is a phenomenon coming from certain processes, the emergence of an established culture is obviously a historical process. Culture is a concept specific to groups that have gone through a long process of coexisting, full of success or failures, in order to have common experiences (Buluç, 2013, p. 104). In this sense, culture can be considered as the entirety of the consciousness and practices that define a social group and differentiate it from other groups. Basically, it can be considered as the expression of group norms at the national, racial, and ethnic levels (Hogg & Vaughan, 2014, p. 612). What makes societies differ from one another is the most basic features of their culture (Ayık, 2007, p.13). Therefore, culture can be expressed as a unique set of characteristics that have been created and learned in the historical process and that differentiate one society from another.

From a sociological point of view, culture does not just refer to fine arts and intellectual tastes. It is composed of all the objects and ideas in a society, including slang words, ice cream cones, and rock music. Sociologists see both the portrait of painter Rembrandt and the work of graffiti painters as a part of culture. A tribe that cultivates the soil by hand has as much culture as a human community based on computer-driven machines. Every person's culture is unique by the way they collect and prepare food, build houses, structure the family, and reinforce right and wrong standards (Schaefer, 2008, p.58). The urge to live together has brought about humanity's need to organize. Establishing organizations and passing through the processes of living together have prepared the groundwork for forming a culture of organizations. Organizational culture is a system of orientations shared among the individuals who make up the organization and holding them together; it gives them a distinct identity (Hoy & Miskel 2010, p. 165) and is a social adhesive that binds the organization to society (Baytok, 2006, p. 12). An organizational culture built under the influence of local, social, and historical processes can be expressed as shared values, a way of doing a job, or the traditions, ceremonies, and stories that are shared. Culture can be found at all hierarchical levels and in every dimension of an organization, from the smallest to the largest (Buluç, 2013, pp. 103–104). For this reason, researchers both agree that organizations have a dominant/strong culture as well as more than one culture; different organizational culture models have been proposed. Examples that can be given to these models are hierarchy, market, clan,

and adhocracy culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2017); bureaucratic, innovative, and supportive culture (Wallach, 1983); and club-power (Zeus-club-power), role (Apollo, role), task (Athena, task), and individual-existential (Dionysos; see Handy, 1995) cultural models can be given as examples. This study has preferred Terzi's (2005) school culture model, which ranges from bureaucratic to task cultures as follows:

Task Culture: Organizational goals are the focus of attention. Organizations with a culture of duty are described as business-oriented organizations. Almost everything is goal-oriented, and organizational goals are prioritized over individual goals (Harrison, 1972).

Support Culture: It is based on bilateral relations and trust. Mutual relationships and commitment exist among organization members. Trust, support, expecting success, honest and open communication among members, and developing information networks for solving problems and protecting what is important for the organization are essential (Pheysey, 1993).

Success Culture: Doing business and achieving goals is prioritized over rules, and individual responsibility is given importance. Problems are solved optimally. This type of culture refers to organizations that support its members who do their job successfully (Cooke & Szumal, 1993).

Bureaucratic Culture: This has a rational and legal structure. In this culture type, organization members are free from personal relationships. Managers have complete desire to control the practices. Rules and standards increase, and a strong emphasis is placed on following these standards and rules (De Vries & Miller, 1996).

Numerous studies in the field of organizational culture show its elements to have been subjected to different classifications (Calori & Sarnin, 1991; Duncan, 1989; Martin & Siehl, 1983; Meek, 1988; Steinhoff & Owens, 1989; Trice & Beyer, 1984). Schein (1990, 1996), an important researcher in this field, stated that when analyzing the culture of a particular group or organization, the three main levels where culture manifests itself should be distinguished, and the importance of these levels should not be underestimated. Schein (2010, p.24) examined the elements of organizational culture in these three dimensions. The first of these is artifacts, the works that contain all the phenomena that one sees, hears, and feels when meeting a new group with a foreign culture (p. 23), as well as the directly perceived technology, symbols, stories, myths, and behavioral patterns of the culture in the organization (Tutar, 2017, p. 205). Espoused beliefs and values, accepted as the second element of organizational culture, are the criteria adopted

by the members of the organization in evaluating and judging events, situations, and behaviors (Şişman, 2014, p. 84). Such beliefs and values are often embodied in an ideology or organizational philosophy; this then serves as a guide to dealing with the uncertainty of uncontrollable or challenging events (Schein, 2010, p. 27). Schein's third element, basic underlying assumptions, is directed towards both organizational integration and relations with the organization's environment, as well as the unconscious beliefs, perceptions, thoughts, and emotions that play a role in forming organizational values (Doğan, 2018, p. 117). In order to understand a group's culture, one must try to reach shared basic assumptions and understand the learning process in which these basic assumptions develop (Schein, 2010, p. 32). The ultimate organizational culture always reflects the complex interplay between (1) the assumptions and theories that the founders initially brought to the group, and (2) the assumptions and theories that the group later learned from their own experiences (Schein, 1983, p. 15).

In theoretical studies about organizations as social structures that formed to realize certain goals, organizations are seen to have been examined in three different ways: the cultural environments, the economic units that respond to social needs, and the social assets formed by the voluntary participation of various interest groups (Doğan, 2018, p. 81). In this sense, one can say that "every cultural institution or system has problems and goals, in other words, an ideology (Güvenç, 1979, p. 101). From this point of view, one of the most important organizations established to respond to social needs can easily be said to be schools. Therefore, as every organization gains a culture over time, schools have gained their own culture in the process. In its simplest definition, school culture is the combination of ideals, values, assumptions, beliefs, and attitudes that bring the school community together (Ayık, 2007, p. 42). The culture a school possesses affects and is affected by the internal and external environments of the institution. Each school has either a strong or weak cultural structure. Having a strong culture contributes greatly to realizing the school/organization's goals (Doğan, 2014, pp. 209–223). No doubt, one of the most important questions in achieving these goals is how effective the organizational culture is on the members of the organization and the functioning of the organization. In order to find the answer to this question in organizations providing services in different fields such as health, educations, aviation, or banking, many studies have occurred that aim to uncover the effects of culture on individuals' communication skills (Özgenel & Büyükol, 2018), organizational citizenship behaviors of employees (Jo & Joo, 2011; Mohanty & Rath, 2012), organizational commitment (Ooi & Arumugam,

2006; Oran, 2016), performance (Lee & Yu, 2004; Shahzad, Luqman, Khan, & Shabbir, 2012; Turkish, 2018), job satisfaction (Akbıyık, 2019; Egan, Yang, & Bartlett, 2004; Gönenli, 2004; MacIntosh & Doherty, 2010; Lund, 2003; Oran, 2016; Tzeng, Ketefian, & Redman, 2002), the intention to leave an organization/job (Carmeli, 2005; MacIntosh & Doherty, 2010; Yılmaz, 2014), organizational silence levels (Acaray, 2014), organizational image perceptions (Cian & Cervai, 2014; Bayram, 2011; Hatch, 1993), alienation in organizations (Minaslı, 2013), creative thinking tendencies (Ali Taha, Sirkova, & Ferencova, 2016; Ballı, 2019; Martins & Martins, 2002; Tesluk, Farr, & Klein, 1997), and the levels of organizational identification (Kam, 2019; Sune, 2016). According to the results of these studies, strong organizational culture generally has a positive effect on employees and organizational performance. Therefore, a strong organizational culture can be interpreted as contributing to the positive development of an organization's members, especially teachers' attitudes, competence, knowledge, skills, and most importantly, their occupational commitment. In this context, the notion of occupational commitment should be emphasized in order to better understand the relationship.

The Turkish Language Association (TLA, 2019) defines the concept of occupation as "a defined job based on systematic knowledge and skills gained through a certain education to produce useful goods to people, to serve, and to earn money in return." Occupations are activities required for individuals to continue their vital activities; they provide financial gains (Kaya, 2012, p. 197) and usually involve a group of activities obtained after a long and serious education in order to sustain an individual's life (Fırat, 2015, p. 5). As one's occupation gains an important place in life, the individual begins to internalize the values and ideologies of that occupation (Morrow, 1983, p. 489).

Occupational commitment has a dynamic structure and was first defined by Greenhaus (1971) as the status of a career or job being important in one's whole life, starting at the stage of an individual's occupational training and more or less continuing throughout one's occupational life (Aranya & Ferris 1984, p. 10). Occupational commitment, which can be defined as one's specialization in an occupation by developing occupational skills, abilities, and attitudes as well as the valuing of an occupation by placing one's profession centrally in life (Yetgin, 2017, p. 36), requires being open to occupational development and progress (Kaya, 2012, p. 198), to follow publications related to the field (Çetinkaya et al., 2015, p. 54) and to be included in training programs (İşcan & Karabey, 2007, p.

185). Ensuring the use of an organization's opportunities for the benefit of the environment and voluntarily devoting time to problems related to education can be considered as requirements of commitment (Kaya, 1993, p. 153).

Allen and Meyer (1990) developed a three-component model to explain and define organizational commitment. This model consists of the dimensions of affective, continuance, and normative commitment (pp. 2-4). Meyer et al. (2002) showed that although this model was initially based on North American countries and cultures, it is also valid for other countries and cultures (p. 43). The theoretical background of occupational commitment is also based on Allen and Meyer's three component model. Identifying with one's occupation, loving it, expresses affective commitment to it, and the presence of a high cost in leaving one's occupation due to amount invested in it indicate one's continuance commitment. Normative commitment describes when an individual feel that remaining in one's occupation is a matter of responsibility and obligation (Meyer et al., 1993). The reflections of these three components on organizational behavior emerge in different ways. While affective and normative commitments contribute positively to organizational behavior, continuance commitment affects organizational behavior negatively (Meyer et al., 2002).

Occupations expect strong commitment from their members beyond their material gains; this can only be achieved by internalizing certain values. Occupational commitment is particularly important in occupations such as medicine, the military, and education, where sudden decisions are made without much thought and examination (Weick & McDaniel, 1989). For example, teachers' occupational commitment has been emphasized as needing to be high in order to create a successful teaching environment in schools (Aydın, 2010; Firestone & Pennel, 1993).

Blau (1985) argued that employees would adopt their jobs as their own and be much more successful with increased occupational commitment. Individuals with high job satisfaction who are committed to their profession have stronger intentions to stay in the organization (Uştu & Tümkaya, 2017; Ünal, 2015). Research has shown two elements to come to the fore in this commitment. Individuals who adopt organizational values and are satisfied with their managers are suggested as having greater intentions to stay in the organization (Atay, 2001; Snape et al., 2008; Zedef, 2017). This perception cannot be realized unless leaders express themselves with expertise and certain behaviors (Bell, 2013, p. 90). Individuals identify the values prevalent in an organization with the organization's managers. Teachers who are committed to their occupation want to work with managers who respect and

appreciate their occupational values in the school (Demirtaş & Ekmekyapar, 2012; İřcan & Karabey, 2007). This situation is seen to improve student commitment as well as to improve student success (Britton, 2018, pp. 116–117). Thinking that they will satisfy their occupational thoughts and ideals gives teachers broader meaning to their education (Unal, 2015, p. 28).

Many studies are seen to consider the variables that affect occupational commitment, as well as studies that aim to reveal the results of occupational commitment over the organization's outputs and employees. Many studies have examined the relationship of occupational commitment with performance (Lee, Carswell, & Allen, 2000; Özgenel, 2019); locus of control (Ataç & Özgenel, 2019); organizational commitment (Çalık, 2019; Demir, 2016; Appetite, 2013; Kim & Mueller, 2011; Yavaş, 2019); organizational citizenship behavior (Kim & Chang, 2007); self-efficacy (Demirülkü, 2019); organizational trust (Erçek, 2018); job satisfaction (Aghdasi, Kiamanesh, & Ebrahim, 2011; Demir, 2016; Demirci, 2018); career values (Demirci, 2018); intentions of staying at/leaving from an organization (Chang, Chi, & Miao, 2007; Haydari, 2014; Kim & Chang, 2007; Parasız, Koç, Ilgar, & Sahin, 2017; Reached, 2014; Zedef, 2017; Weng & McElroy, 2012); attitude towards work (Coşkun, 2016); burnout (Çalık, 2019; Engelberg-Moston, Stipis, Kippin, Spillman, & Burbidge, 2009; Fırat, 2015; Yetgin, 2017; Slow, 2019); job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and meaning of life (Ünal, 2015; Van der Heijden, Van Dam & Hasselhorn, 2009; Wang, Tao, Ellenbecker & Liu, 2012); emotional labor (İřtahlı, 2013); and classroom management skills (Ergen, 2016). However, studies determining the factors affecting teachers' occupational commitment are limited. For example, Aydın (2010) identified the factors that affect teachers' occupational commitment as job participation, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and organizational commitment. Nevertheless, experts and researchers in the field of organizational development agree that strength of culture has a positive impact on organizational members and outcomes (Acar & Acar, 2014; Baker, 2002; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2013; Mumford, Hunter, Friedrich, & Caughron, 2009; Schwartz & Davis, 1981). In this sense, school culture can be stated as an important factor in the connection of teachers and their professions. This study aims to determine whether school culture predicts teachers' occupational commitment. The findings are considered able to contribute to the field of education and school management, to researchers, and to practitioners. In line with the main purpose of the research, the following sub-objectives are sought:

- Do teachers' perceptions of school culture and their occupational commitment differ significantly according to gender, education level, and occupational seniority?
- Does a significant relationship exist between teachers' perceptions of school culture and their occupational commitment?
- Do teachers' perceptions of school culture predict their occupational commitment?

Method

Research Model

This study attempts to determine the relationship between teachers' professional commitment and school culture levels using a relational survey model. Erkuş (2005) defined relational research models as "the comparison of different groups in terms of various variables."

Universe and Sample

The research was carried out in Istanbul's Pendik district. Pendik is Istanbul's fourth most populated district (Anadolu Ajans, 2010), with 101 public schools, 134,701 students, and 7,644 teachers. In this sense, Pendik can be said to have great potential and data diversity for educational research. For this reason, the universe of the research is composed of the 7,644 teachers working in public schools in Pendik district. For a universe size of 7,644 with a 95% confidence level and 5% standard deviation, a sample size of 366 has been calculated as sufficient (see <https://www.surveysystem.com>). The sample of the study has been determined using the simple random sampling method, and 377 volunteer teachers participated in the study. 150 (39.8%) of the teachers are male and 227 (60.2%) are female; 335 (88.9%) of the teachers have undergraduate degrees, and 42 (11.1%) have graduate degrees; 104 (27.6%) primary schools; 146 (38.7%) work in secondary schools (including Imam Hatip Secondary Schools) and 127 (33.7%) in different high schools (e.g., Anatolian High Schools, Vocational High Schools, Imam Hatip High Schools). Of the teachers, 93 are 30 years old or younger (24.7%), 163 are between 31-40 years old (43.2%), 92 are between 41-50 years old (24.4%), and 29 are 51 years old or older (7%). In addition, 73 of the teachers have 5 years or less (19.4%), 113 have 6-10 years (30.0%), 66 have 11-15 years (17.5%), 46 have 16-20 years (12.2%), and 79 have 21 years or more (21.0%) of experience.

Data Collection Tools

The School Culture Scale and Occupational Commitment Scale have been used to collect the study data. Teachers' voluntary participation has been taken as the basis in applying the scales, and personal information has been kept confidential in this respect.

School Culture Scale. The first scale used in this study is the School Culture Scale developed by Terzi (2005). The scale, which was developed to identify the different types of culture in schools, is composed of 29 items and has 4 sub-dimensions: task culture (Items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, & 6), support culture (Items 7, 10, 11, 16, 18, 24, 26, & 27), achievement culture (Items 9, 17, 21, 22, 25, & 28), and bureaucratic culture (Items 8, 12, 13, 14, 15, 19, 20, 23, & 29). The School Culture Scale is scored as a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = Never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Mostly, & 5 = Always). Total scores cannot be obtained from the School Culture Scale, the items belonging to each cultural dimension of the scale are tallied and divided by the number of items, and an arithmetic average is calculated. In this study, Cronbach's alpha of reliability for the scale has been calculated as 0.892.

Occupational Commitment Scale. The Occupational Commitment Scale, developed by Blau (2003), consists of 22 items and four sub-dimensions. The scale was adapted to Turkish by Utkan and Kırdök (2017) and aims to measure individuals' commitment to their occupation. The scale, which consists of four sub-dimensions (affective commitment, normative commitment, accumulated costs, and limited alternatives), only reverse scores the sub-dimension of limited alternatives. The scale is rated as 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = I do not agree, 2 = I do not agree, 3 = I am indecisive, 4 = I agree, & 5 = I totally agree). Higher scores obtained from the scale indicate higher occupational commitment. Arithmetic averages can be obtained from the sub-dimensions of the Occupational Commitment Scale. In addition, the total score is divided by the number of items, and an arithmetic mean can be obtained for the overall scale. In this research, the analyses were made using the total scores. In this study, Cronbach's alpha of reliability for the scale has been calculated as 0.868.

Data Analysis

The data obtained through the scales used in the study were transferred to the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) program, and the frequency (f), mean (M), standard deviation (SD), and kurtosis and skewness coefficients for the data have been analyzed and given in Table 1.

Table 1

Reliability, Coefficients, and Standard Deviations for the Occupational Commitment and School Culture Scale

	N	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Task Culture	377	4.13	.621	.685	.176
Support Culture	377	3.83	.672	.516	.542
Achievement Culture	377	3.90	.640	.308	.422
Bureaucratic Culture	377	3.36	.674	.158	.039
Occupational Commitment Total	377	3.73	.551	.474	.317

When examining Table 1, teachers' occupational commitment is seen to be related to task culture ($M = 4.13$), achievement culture ($M = 3.90$), support culture ($M = 3.83$), and bureaucratic culture ($M = 3.36$). In addition, when examining the kurtosis and skewness values of the scales, the values are seen to remain between -1 and +1; this determined that the data show normal distribution.

In order to determine whether a significant difference exists between binary groups, the t -test was used for independent groups and the one-way ANOVA test was used to determine whether significant differences exist between the binary groups. At the same time, a correlation analysis was conducted to determine the significance of the relationships among the variables, and regression analyses were conducted to determine whether organizational culture as the independent variable of the study predicts the occupational commitment of teachers as the dependent variable. The significance level of $p < .05$ has been taken for all analysis results.

Results

The independent group's *t*-test results are given in Table 2 to determine whether the levels of teachers' occupational commitment and school culture differ significantly according to gender.

Table 2

The t-Test Results for Occupational Commitment and School Culture Scores by Gender

Variables	Groups	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>P</i>																																												
Task Culture	Female	227	4.12	.61	.391	375	.696																																												
	Male	150	4.15	.62				Support Culture	Female	227	3.82	.68	.460	375	.646	Male	150	3.85	.66	Achievement Culture	Female	227	3.87	.64	1.127	375	.260	Male	150	3.95	.63	Bureaucratic Culture	Female	227	3.37	.66	.266	375	.790	Male	150	3.35	.68	Occupational Commitment	Female	227	3.71	.55	.883	375	.378
Support Culture	Female	227	3.82	.68	.460	375	.646																																												
	Male	150	3.85	.66				Achievement Culture	Female	227	3.87	.64	1.127	375	.260	Male	150	3.95	.63	Bureaucratic Culture	Female	227	3.37	.66	.266	375	.790	Male	150	3.35	.68	Occupational Commitment	Female	227	3.71	.55	.883	375	.378	Male	150	3.76	.54								
Achievement Culture	Female	227	3.87	.64	1.127	375	.260																																												
	Male	150	3.95	.63				Bureaucratic Culture	Female	227	3.37	.66	.266	375	.790	Male	150	3.35	.68	Occupational Commitment	Female	227	3.71	.55	.883	375	.378	Male	150	3.76	.54																				
Bureaucratic Culture	Female	227	3.37	.66	.266	375	.790																																												
	Male	150	3.35	.68				Occupational Commitment	Female	227	3.71	.55	.883	375	.378	Male	150	3.76	.54																																
Occupational Commitment	Female	227	3.71	.55	.883	375	.378																																												
	Male	150	3.76	.54																																															

According to Table 2, teachers' perceptions of school culture and their occupational commitment show no significant difference according to gender ($p > .05$).

The results of the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine whether teachers' school culture perceptions differ according to the type of school they work in are given in Table 3.

Table 3
ANOVA Results of School Culture Scale Scores by School Type

	School Type	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	Sig.
Task Culture	1-Primary	104	4.21	.56	Between Groups	6.38	2	3.192	8.60	.000	1 > 2, 3 > 2
	2-Secondary	146	3.97	.63	Within Groups	138.69	374	.371			
	3-High School	127	4.25	.61	Total	145.08	376				
	Total	377	4.13	.62				4.167			
Support Culture	1- Primary	104	3.98	.65	Between Groups	8.33	2	.433	9.63	.000	1 > 2, 3 > 2
	2- Secondary	146	3.65	.66	Within Groups	161.79	374				
	3- High School	127	3.91	.65	Total	170.13	376	2.224			
	Total	377	3.83	.67				.401			
Achievement Culture	1- Primary	104	4.02	.66	Between Groups	4.44	2		5.55	.004	1 > 2
	2- Secondary	146	3.77	.63	Within Groups	149.86	374	3.774			
	3- High School	127	3.96	.60	Total	154.30	376	.438			
	Total	377	3.90	.64							
Bureaucratic Culture	1- Primary	104	3.33	.78	Between Groups	7.54	2	3.192	8.62	.000	3 > 1, 3 > 2
	2- Secondary	146	3.22	.55	Within Groups	163.75	374	.371			
	3- High School	127	3.55	.66	Total	171.30	376				
	Total	377	3.36	.67							

When examining Table 3, a significant difference is seen to exist between teachers' perceptions of task culture in terms of school culture according to their type of school ($F = 8.60; p < .05$). According to the results from the least significance difference (LSD) test conducted to determine how teachers' perceptions of task culture differ with respect to school type, teachers' perceptions of duty culture for those working in secondary education ($M = 4.25$) and primary schools ($M = 4.21$) are more positive than for those in secondary schools ($M = 3.97$). In other words, teachers perceive task culture more positively than those who work in secondary schools. Similarly, a significant difference exists between teachers' perceptions of support culture and the type of school they work for ($F = 9.63; p < .05$). Teachers working in primary schools ($M = 3.98$) are seen to have more positive perceptions

about support culture than those of secondary school teachers ($M = 3.91$) and those in secondary schools ($M = 3.65$). Teachers working in primary schools and different types of high schools are seen to have more positive perceptions of support culture than teachers working in secondary schools. A significant difference is seen to exist between teachers' perceptions of achievement culture and school type ($F = 5.55$; $p < .05$). Teachers working in primary schools ($M = 4.02$) are found to have more positive perceptions toward achievement culture than high school ($M = 3.96$) and secondary school ($M = 3.77$) teachers. Finally, a significant difference is seen between teachers' perceptions of bureaucratic culture and the type of school where they work ($F = 8.62$; $p < .05$). Teachers working in secondary education ($M = 3.55$) are found to have more positive perceptions on bureaucratic culture than primary school ($M = 3.33$) and secondary schools ($M = 3.22$) teachers.

The ANOVA results on determining whether teachers' occupational commitment levels differ according to school type are given in Table 4.

Table 4

ANOVA Results from the Occupational Commitment Scale by School Type

	School Type	n	M	SD	Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P	Sig.
Occupational Commitment	1-Primary	104	3.85	.51	Between Groups	2.56	2	1.25	4.19	.016	1 > 2
	2 -Secondary	146	3.65	.58	Within Groups	111.67	374	.29			
	3- High School	127	3.72	.52	Total	114.17	376				
	Total	377	3.73	.55							

When examining the data in Table 4, a significant difference is seen to exist between teacher's occupational commitment levels according to school type ($F = 4.19$; $p < .05$). According to the results from the LSD test conducted to determine how teachers' occupational commitment levels differ by school type, the levels of occupational commitment for teachers working in primary schools ($M = 3.85$) were determined to be higher than teachers working in secondary schools ($M = 3.65$).

Table 5 shows the results from one-way ANOVA to determine whether teachers' perceptions about school culture differ according to occupational experience.

Table 5
ANOVA Results of School Culture Scale Scores by Occupational Experience

	Occupational Experience	n	M	SD	Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	Sig.
Task Culture	1) 0-5 yrs.	73	4.21	.61	Between Groups	2.66	4	.66	1.73	.141	---
	2) 6-10 yrs.	113	4.05	.70	Within Groups	142.42	372	.38			
	3) 11-15 yrs.	66	4.04	.66	Total	145.08	376				
	4) 16-20 yrs.	46	4.23	.51							
	5) 21+ yrs.	79	4.19	.48							
	Total	377	4.13	.62							
Support Culture	1) 0-5 yrs.	73	3.94	.71	Between Groups	2.60	4	.65	1.44	.219	---
	2) 6-10 yrs.	113	3.89	.65	Within Groups	167.53	372	.45			
	3) 11-15 yrs.	66	3.72	.68	Total	170.13	376				
	4) 16-20 yrs.	46	3.78	.68							
	5) 21+ yrs.	79	3.76	.62							
	Total	377	3.83	.67							
Achievement Culture	1) 0-5 yrs.	73	4.00	.65	Between Groups	1.16	4		.70	.589	---
	2) 6-10 yrs.	113	3.91	.67	Within Groups	153.14	372	.29			
	3) 11-15 yrs.	66	3.89	.63	Total	154.30	376	.41			
	4) 16-20 yrs.	46	3.89	.61							
	5) 21+ yrs.	79	3.83	.60							
	Total	377	3.90	.64							
Bureaucratic Culture	1) 0-5 yrs.	73	3.56	.68	Between Groups	4.12	4	1.03	2.29	.059	---
	2) 6-10 yrs.	113	3.31	.69	Within Groups	167.17	372	.44			
	3) 11-15 yrs.	66	3.26	.70	Total	171.30	376				
	4) 16-20 yrs.	46	3.29	.65							
	5) 21+ yrs.	79	3.36	.59							
	Total	377	3.36	.67							

When examining Table 5; no significant difference exists for teachers' perceptions of school culture according to their occupational experience ($p > .05$). The results from one-way ANOVA on determining whether teachers' occupational commitment levels differ according to occupational experience are given in Table 6.

Table 6
ANOVA Results of Occupational Commitment Scale Scores by Occupational Seniority

Occupational Seniority	n	M	SD	Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	Sig.	
Occup. Commit.	1)5 years and under	73	3.76	.49	Between Groups	2.46	4	.61	2.05	.086	---
	2) 6-10 years	113	3.62	.51	Within Groups	111.71	372	.30			
	3)11-15 years	66	3.73	.56	Total	114.17	376				
	4)16-20 years	46	3.75	.64							
	5) 21+	79	3.84	.56							
Total	377	3.73	.55								

When examining the data in Table 6, no significant difference is found among teachers' perceptions of occupational commitment according to years of experience ($F = 2.05$; $p > .05$).

The results from the correlation analysis for teachers' perceptions of school culture with their occupational commitment are given in Table 7.

Table 7
Correlation Analysis Between Teachers' Perceptions of School Culture and Occupational Commitment

	Occupational Commitment
Task Culture	.387**
Support Culture	.309**
Achievement Culture	.310**
Bureaucratic Culture	.138**

According to the correlation analysis given in Table 7, significant relationships have been found for teachers' occupational commitment with task culture ($r = .387$; $p < .01$), support culture ($r = .309$; $p < .01$), and achievement culture ($r = .310$; $p < .01$). Meanwhile, a low-level positive correlation has been found for teachers' occupational commitment with bureaucratic culture ($r = .138$; $p < .01$).

Table 8 shows the results from the simple regression analysis of whether school culture predicts occupational commitment.

Table 8
Simple Regression Analysis Results on School Culture Predicting Occupational Commitment Levels

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	B	SD	(β)	t	p	R	R ²	F	p
Task Culture	Occupational	2.313	.177		13.094	.000	.387	.150	66.236	.000
	Commitment	.344	.042	.387	8.139	.000				
Support Culture	Occupational	2.764	.157		17.644	.000	.309	.095	39.566	.000
	Commitment	.253	.040	.309	6.290	.000				
Achievement Culture	Occupational	2.691	.167		16.094	.000	.310	.096	39.959	.000
	Commitment	.267	.042	.310	6.321	.000				
Bureaucratic Culture	Occupational	3.355	.143		23.422	.000	.138	.019	7.262	.007
	Commitment	.113	.042	.138	2.695	.007				

When examining the regression analyses given in Table 8, significant predictive relationships have been determined among all dependent and independent variables. Accordingly, task culture ($R = .387$; $R^2 = .150$; $F = 66.236$; $p < .05$), support culture ($R = .309$; $R^2 = .095$; $F = 39.566$; $p < .05$), achievement culture ($R = .310$; $R^2 = .096$; $F = 39.959$; $p < .05$), and bureaucratic culture ($R = .138$; $R^2 = .019$; $F = 7.262$; $p < .05$) all predict teachers' occupational commitment levels. In other words, approximately 15% of the total variance in teachers' occupational commitment is explained by task culture, 9% by support culture, 9% by achievement culture, and 2% by bureaucratic culture. The results from the multiple regression analysis that was performed after the simple regression analysis are given in Table 9.

Table 9
Regression Analysis Results of School Culture Predicts Occupational Commitment Level

Independent Variable	B	SD	β	t	p	R	R ²	F	p
Constant	2.147	.204		10.537	.000	.403	.162	18.025	.000
Task Culture	.267	.056	.301	4.806	.000				
Support Culture	.051	.069	.062	.747	.456				
Achievement Culture	.073	.071	.085	1.020	.308				
Bureaucratic Culture	.000	.041	.001	.010	.992				

When examining the regression analyses given in Table 9, school culture is seen to significantly predict teachers' occupational commitment levels ($R = .403$; $R^2 = .162$; $F = 18.025$; $p < .000$). However, when analyzing the four different school cultures that predict teachers' occupational commitment together; the predictive significance of support, achievement, and bureaucratic school cultures does not exceed that of task culture ($p > .05$). In this context, task culture in schools can be said to be a more effective predictive factor on teachers' professional commitment.

Conclusion

The most important factor driving a country's economic and social development is its education system (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2013). In other words, the education system in general should be effective at social and economic development, and the educational services provided by schools in particular should be qualified. This study has attempted to determine whether school culture perceived as a whole and the schools' values, assumptions, and artifacts that have been perceived as factors affecting school outcomes affect teachers' occupational commitment.

In the analyses' results, teachers' dominant perceptions of school culture have emerged respectively as task culture, achievement culture, support culture and bureaucratic culture. Research findings in the literature support the findings obtained from this study. In the study Terzi's (2005) study on primary schools, task culture was the dominant cultural dimension. Similarly, Sezgin's (2010) study on primary schools in Ankara also perceived task culture as the most dominant dimension, while evaluating bureaucratic culture as the least. Özdemir's (2012) research results revealed task culture to be dominant in primary schools and a negative relationship to exist between the dimensions of bureaucratic and support cultures. Therefore, the most dominant culture type among teachers' schools is seen to be task culture.

According to another result, teachers' perceptions on school culture do not significantly differ with respect to gender. Similar to the findings obtained in this study, Ayık (2007) and Demirkol and Savas (2012) showed gender to also not affect perceived school culture. On the other hand, studies are found that indicate women's perceptions on school culture to be greater than men's in studies conducted in the field (Çevik & Köse, 2017; Demirtaş & Ersözlü, 2007; Terzi, 2005). The reason for the differences in research findings on gender can be stated as other factors such as geographical location, school environment, the physical conditions of the school, socio-economic structure, and the characteristics of the group forming the school society.

According to the findings, the perceptions of teachers working in primary and secondary education toward support and task cultures were found to be more positive than those of teachers working in secondary schools. In addition, teachers working in primary schools perceive their schools' achievement culture more positively than teachers working in secondary schools. Teachers in high schools think their schools have more bureaucratic culture than teachers in primary and secondary schools. Özgenel and Dursun (2019) reached similar results in their studies. They found teachers' perceptions on school culture differ for various school levels. Based on the findings of the research, we can expect the student-teacher relationship in primary schools to have higher scores, especially for different types of school cultures compared to other grades. Primary school teachers can be said to spend relatively much more time with their students compared to other levels, making them more successful than other teachers in different school types.

According to the results of the study, teachers' perceptions about school culture do not show significant differences according to work experience. Similarly, the findings obtained by Çevik and Köse (2017) showed teachers' perceptions on school culture to not differ according to years of experience. However, Ayık (2007) concluded teachers' opinions on school culture to differ according to their seniority and length of service at school. Professional seniority can be argued to not be a single factor in influencing school culture as it has led to different research results in the field of professional seniority.

The findings of the study reveal teachers to have "high" professional commitment. Similar findings were found in studies conducted with different occupational groups. In common with the various studies conducted by Kurşunoğlu, Bakay, and Tanrıoğen (2010) on teachers; Cihangiroğlu, Teke, Özata, and Çelen (2015) on nurses; and Yetgin (2017) on tourist guides, the occupational commitment of individuals working in these fields was found to be "high." According to the findings obtained from field studies, the occupational commitment of individuals belonging to different occupational groups can be similarly interpreted as "high" due to the developed occupational commitment individuals acquire over time.

According to another result of the study, teachers' occupational commitments do not significantly differ with respect to gender. Fırat (2015) stated the level of occupational commitment for bank employees to not differ according to gender. Uştu and Tümkaya's (2017) study found occupational commitment scores for female classroom teachers to be higher than male classroom teachers'. Zedef (2017) found male teachers to have more occupational commitment and normative commitment

than female teachers. According to Lee, Carswell, and Allen (2000), many studies have found women's occupational commitment to be able to be stronger than men's. In addition to the study conducted by Lee et al. (1999), Blau (1999) found gender to positively affect individuals' occupational commitment levels. Based on these differing results in the literature, gender can be stated to not be a factor affecting occupational commitment alone, but whose effect can be understood when evaluated together with other variables. Similarly, Uştu and Tmkaya's (2017) study found the sub-dimension of affective commitment from teachers' organizational commitment to differ by gender, age, years of service, educational background, and class size, and continuance commitment to significantly differ with class size. The current research has determined the occupational commitment levels of primary-school teachers to be higher than middle-school teachers', with no difference between high school and secondary school teachers'. Uştu and Tmkaya's (2017) study found classroom teachers' affective commitment (a sub-dimension of occupational commitment) and their continuation and normative commitments to be low. In addition, teachers' occupational commitment and intention to quit were also low. Interestingly, the findings obtained Uştu and Tmkaya's (2017) study do not match the findings obtained in the current study.

Another result from this study is that teachers' occupational commitments do not differ according to seniority. Similarly, the data from Kurşunođlu, Bakay, and Tanrıođen's (2010) study were collected using the Three Dimensional Organizational Commitment Scale developed by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993), and teachers' organizational commitment levels and organizational commitment were examined in three different dimensions: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. According to the findings, no significant difference was found for teachers' affective, continuance, or normative commitment levels according to seniority. According to the results from Uştu and Tmkaya's (2017) study, on the other hand, a significant difference was observed in classroom teachers' occupational commitment according to their years of service. The current study also found the group with the highest differentiation to be classroom teachers with 1-10 years of work experience and the group with the lowest to be classroom teachers with 11-20 years of experience. The different results from these studies' findings can be said to have been reached because teachers' occupational commitment does not differ according to seniority. Cihangirođlu et al.'s (2015) study showed both nurses' occupational commitment and average organizational commitment scores in the group 21 years or more experience to be statistically significantly higher than the other groups. Zedef (2017) stated that teachers with more years of experience

show more occupational commitment and normative commitment than teachers with fewer years of experience. Firat (2015) stated older employees to spend more years at the same bank and to have greater continuance commitment to their jobs as they age. Based on the different results from the current research, an interpretation of the relationship between school culture and the variable of occupational seniority can also be made here. In other words, seniority can be argued to not be a single factor in affecting occupational commitment, but to possibly have meaning especially when evaluated together with teachers' school conditions (e.g., administration's attitudes, parent profiles, physical structure).

A significant relationship was found for teachers' professional commitment with school culture. Positive moderate relationships exist for teachers' professional commitment with task culture, achievement culture, and support culture, while a positive low-level relationship exists between teachers' occupational commitment and bureaucratic culture. The fact that teachers' occupational commitment is positively and highly correlated with task culture can be interpreted as teachers considering themselves to be professionally sufficient, to be positively associated with the bureaucratic culture, yet not associated with the school's official paperwork. According to the study's last findings, teachers' occupational commitment is most explained, predicted, and affected by task culture, support culture, achievement culture, and bureaucratic culture, in that order. However, when analyzing together the four different school cultures that predict teachers' occupational commitment, aside from task culture, the support, achievement, and bureaucratic school cultures were not seen to significantly predict teachers' occupational commitment. In this context, task culture in schools can be stated as a more effective culture for predicting teachers' occupational commitment. Because task culture is based on the aim and everything being aimed at the school's goals, task culture can support and ensure teachers' further development of occupational commitment in achieving these goals. Although many studies exist in the literature that have found organizational commitment, which constitutes the theoretical infrastructure of occupational commitment, to be affected by organizational culture (Arkan, 2019; Jo & Joo, 2011; Lahiry, 1994; Nongo & Ikyanyon, 2012; Ooi & Arumugam, 2006; Oran, 2016; Töker, 2018), a small number of studies are found that consider organizational culture to affect occupational commitment. Collie, Shapka, and Perry's (2011) study showed a positive school climate and a school culture reflected in the school's psychological environment to significantly predict three dimensions of teacher commitment. In addition, employees' stress levels, intention to leave the job, performance, job satisfaction, and creative-thinking tendencies were

found to relate to organizational culture and organizational culture to affect these variables (Ballı, 2019; Carmeli, 2005; Jepson & Forrest, 2006; Lee & Yu, 2010; MacIntosh & Amp, 2010; Doherty, 2010). When evaluating the current research results together, the influence of teachers' occupational commitment on school/organizational culture reveals the impact and importance of school/organizational culture on organizational life and employees.

Discussion

The dominant culture of the school in which a teacher works can shape the teacher's performance and the school's outcomes. This is because in schools in the same education region, some schools may have teachers with education and financial opportunities similar to the students and parents' physical opportunities; while one of the schools offers successful and qualified education, the other cannot achieve the same success and quality. One of the best examples of this situation is the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). Schools level differences are shown as one of the factors affecting the success of the Turkish education system in terms of PISA. One of the main reasons for this difference may be school culture. In fact, school culture can be placed at the top of these reasons. The fact is that having teachers, who are one of the most important factors in educational success, feel happy and valuable in their schools contributes positively to school success. In addition, this situation increases teachers' professional and school loyalty because in a school culture that feels safe, peaceful, and happy, teachers establish an emotional connection with their profession and fulfill professional activities lovingly and willingly. In addition, a school culture that supports teachers' professional values and attitudes enables teachers to act in accordance with their professions and to adapt the goals of the school to their professional goals. A strong culture of support in which the school community shares similar values and assumptions will play a leading role in achieving school goals, making it a key to school success. Teachers can be more productive and effective in a school culture that supports their professional actions, attitudes, beliefs, and goals.

In conclusion, different types of school culture have been found to positively affect teachers' professional commitment at different levels in the research. However, when analyzing different school cultures together, only task culture was revealed to significantly predict occupational commitment. Organizations with task culture can be concluded to cause teachers to have more commitment to

their occupation because the organization's goals are prioritized. Also noteworthy is that the bureaucratic culture dimension is the least predictive aspect of school engagement. This is because a legal structure consisting rules, which is what stands out in bureaucratic culture, is not effective at making teachers commit to their professions. In this sense, determining the factors affecting occupational commitment is important for understanding why some teachers working in the same schools and similar environmental conditions develop more occupational commitment than others. Therefore, future research can be explored using qualitative research to analyze the other factors of teachers' perceptions that increase their occupational commitment within the school. In addition, other variables affecting teachers' occupational commitment and school culture can be considered for future research. Future research can especially be suggested to evaluate school administrators' behaviors in school management in terms of their effects on school culture and teachers' occupational commitment, paying special attention to in-school practices.

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