

Reflections of Teachers' Self-leadership Experiences on Teaching Leadership Skills

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Abstract

The study investigated the reflections of teachers' self-leadership experiences on teaching students leadership skills in a highly centralized education system. Within leadership education, this scarcely studied phenomenon refers to a theoretical and practical problem. We carried out a mixed-method explanatory sequential research design by collecting quantitative data from 610 teachers using a multi-stage sampling method. For better understanding the phenomenon, semi-structured interviews (N=13) were conducted. In addition, the study hypothesized a model suggesting an interaction between teachers' self-leadership and teaching students leadership skills and then tested it. We performed content analysis, descriptive analysis, correlations, EFA, and SEM to analyse the data. We concluded that teachers' self-leadership experiences positively impact equipping students with leadership skills, and we found out that the crucial skill within the inter-related leadership skills is undertaking responsibility. The study identified disconnection among curricula, teaching, and evaluation, lack of training involving effective teaching methods, and teachers' unconsciousness as substantial barriers to leadership education.

Key words: mixed study; self-leadership; students; teachers; teaching leadership; SEM-AMOS.

Introduction

Leadership is a learnable and teachable skill therefore, schools should be effective in growing new leaders (Bush, 2008; Kearns, 2019; Konuk & Posner, 2021; Kouzes & Posner, 2018; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2022; Posner & Kouzes, 2012). It is possible to develop leadership skills in a school environment by creating a supportive infrastructure (Bush, 2008; Eckert & Daughtrey, 2019; Hallinger, 2018;). While some specific leadership development programs resulted in positive outcomes (Bush, 2008; Eckert

& Daughtrey, 2019; Kearns, 2019; Smylie & Eckert, 2018; Webber & Nickel, 2021), improving students' leadership skills at formal public schools is a more challenging issue. Within this approach, teachers have crucial roles (Hardie et al., 2022; Marzano, 2007; Smylie & Eckert, 2018).

Considering teacher-student interaction, integrating the self-leadership acquisition with teaching leadership skills can help to develop leadership education in formal public schools (Eckert & Daughtrey, 2019; Poekert, Alexandrou & Shannon, 2016; Oz & Baloglu, 2020). Leadership education refers to equipping people with leadership skills. In spite of their importance (EURYDICE, 2018; MoNE, 2021a; UNESCO, 2017), teaching leadership skills is a problematic issue (Kearns, 2019). In equipping students with leadership skills (shortly teaching leadership-TL), whether teachers have knowledge and experience about leadership is of key importance (Hardie et al., 2022). Within this scope, self-leadership theory can be applied to improving teachers' leadership skills. Self-management theory has evolved into a self-leadership theory (Houghton, Dawley & DiLiello, 2012; Manz, 1986; Manz and Sims, 1991; Prussia, Anderson & Manz, 1998). Since self-leadership theory focuses on individuals' self-leadership experiences, teachers' self-leadership (TSL) experience can be transferred to equipping students with leadership skills. That also implies an extension of self-leadership theory. Furthermore, employing it in formal compulsory schools gives an opportunity to explore the workable models. Aligned with the self-leadership theory proposed by Manz (1986), TL via TSL need to respond to some practical questions: To what extent do teachers develop self-leadership skills?; To what extent do they equip students with leadership skills?; What teaching activities do they perform, and finally what interactions exist in this process?

Teachers' self-leadership

According to Manz (1986, p. 589), to become a leader, one must first lead oneself. One should set the goals, persist to achieve these goals even if they encounter difficulties. This self-leadership model has mainly four interacted aspects: self-standards, practice, self-evaluation, and self-administered consequences. Houghton et al. (2012) emphasized the intrinsic motives (self-goal setting, self-observation, self-reward) to improve self-leadership. For a teacher, self-leadership reflects mainly on the teaching, which is, in fact, a process of interaction between teachers and students. Teacher leaders emerge from school community, particularly when new and uncertain issues related with teaching in the school and classroom emerge. According to Gerstenschlager and Barlow (2019), 'unfortunately, not all of these teachers are necessarily prepared in the field of teacher leadership'. Poekert et al. (2016, p. 325) found that teachers 'take a leadership stance that is responsive to the needs of their students'. In such cases, students imitate their teachers' leadership behaviours (Araşkal & Kılınc, 2019). Teachers may be exhibiting leadership behaviours unconsciously. Therefore, TL works in a complicated way. Furthermore, activities and timing for a particular leadership skill can affect not only students but also teachers themselves (Poekert et al., 2016).

Improving self leadership

In order to equip students with leadership skills in a conscious and organized way, teachers should first internalize the leadership concept and practice it in their life (Hardie et al., 2022; Smylie & Eckert, 2018). The sequential process in developing leadership skills contains capacity building, then implementation (Eckert & Daughtrey, 2019; Prussia et al., 1998). Manz and Sims (1991) classified SL process as cognitive and behavioural dimensions. Bolam (2004) suggested four steps in the development of leadership: create a sense of leadership, prepare for leadership, practice leadership, and improve leadership practices by reflective learning. According to Kearns (2019, p. 258) 'leadership can only be learned through a process of practice, reflection, refinement, and more practice'. Poekert et al. (2016) proposed an iterative model which focused on experience. Bush (2008) indicated that teachers should apply practices to support creativity and develop innovativeness which are important components of leadership. Emphasis on practising in leadership development drives us to ask a fundamental question: What and how should we practice? The first part of the question refers to leadership skills such as undertaking responsibility, decision-making, goal setting, problem-solving, entrepreneurship, creativity, innovation, perseverance, communication, group skills, critical thinking, and coping with uncertainty. These skills are also known as cross-curricular skills or 21st-century skills (21st-CS) (Grigoropoulos, 2020; Hardie, Highfield & Lee, 2022; Haug & Mork, 2021; Oz & Baloglu, 2020; Özdemir, Çoban & Bozkurt, 2020; UNESCO, 2017; Uslu & Aslan, 2020; Webber & Nickel, 2021; Woodhouse & Pedder, 2017). The aforementioned leadership skills might be related to each other because some literature indicates responsibility as the precondition skill of leadership (Connolly et al., 2019; Özdemir, et al., 2020; Webber & Nickel, 2021). Instead of running away, leaders engage the problem (Voegtlin, 2016). Undertaking responsibility also drives a person to the decision-making process. The person's self-confidence that they can solve the problem leads them to seek solutions to the problem. A particular way of finding a solution is to eliminate the uncertainty. Finally, the person determines their goal and puts this solution into practice (teaching). The second part of the question refers to student-centred or active teaching/learning methods such as problem-based, project-based or research-based learning (Hardie et al., 2022; Haug & Mork, 2021; Marzano, 2007; Smylie & Eckert, 2018). These activities should originate from teachers' genuine environments because top-down prescription-like initiatives can cause resistance (Muijs & Harris, 2003). Thus, teachers' intentions, consciousness and experience are key elements of TL.

Equipping students with leadership skills-TL

Literature indicated a research gap regarding the role of teacher leadership in TL and the interaction in this process (Beycioğlu & Aslan, 2012; Nguyen et al., 2019; Uslu & Aslan, 2020). Several positive results of particular leadership development programs

for gifted students, post-graduate students or school administrator candidates were reported (Eckert & Daughtrey, 2019; Kearns, 2019; Konuk & Posner, 2021; Koşar et al., 2017; Poekert et al., 2016). However, this is not the case for the average student in general compulsory education (Kim, 2009; Öz & Baloglu, 2020; Uslu & Aslan, 2020). According to Öz and Baloglu (2020), students exhibit leadership behaviours mostly at early school levels. Frequencies of leadership behaviours of average students decrease as education level increases. Araşkal and Kılınç (2019) argued that students who observe teachers' leadership practices are likely to exhibit leadership behaviours. However, Kılınç, Bellibaş, and Bektaş (2021) found no reflection of teachers' leadership on teaching activities. Elmuti, Minnis and Abebe (2005, p. 1025) argued the lack of a comprehensive and integrated approach to leadership education. Studies confirm the problematic situation in leadership education: Despite students' leadership potential, teachers have limited capability of improving students' problem solving, creativity and entrepreneurship skills in formal compulsory education (Hardie et al., 2022; Haug & Mork, 2021; Koşar et al., 2017; Lauermann, 2017).

Problem

Investigations of the relationships between TSL and TL seem to be ignored. Despite the importance given to equipping students with leadership skills, very limited research within this scope is a problem. The literature review indicated a research gap in finding out what interactional structure exist in equipping students with leadership skills through teachers' self-leadership experiences (Gumus, Bellibas, Esen & Gumus, 2018; Hallinger, 2018; Koşar et al., 2017; Nguyen et al., 2019). Therefore, this study focused on the following questions:

- (1) To what extent do teachers obtain self-leadership skills?
- (2) To what extent do teachers equip students with leadership skills?
- (3) What activities do teachers perform to equip students with leadership skills?
- (4) What are teachers' experiences when they teach students leadership skills?
- (5) To what extent are the activities performed by teachers effective?
- (6) Does the TL via TSL have any meaningful interactional structure?

Methodology

A meta-analysis by Nguyen et al. (2019) showed that the studies on teacher leadership overwhelmingly used small-scale, qualitative methodologies. This research is a descriptive and causal relational study within the explanatory sequential design of mixed method. Quantitative, qualitative, and synthesized results were obtained within the descriptive and interpretive approaches by using multi-data perspective (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). The research comprised three phases consisting of the pilot study (N=47), the main study including both quantitative (N=610) and qualitative (N=13), and the testing of the model. *Figure 1* shows the research model.

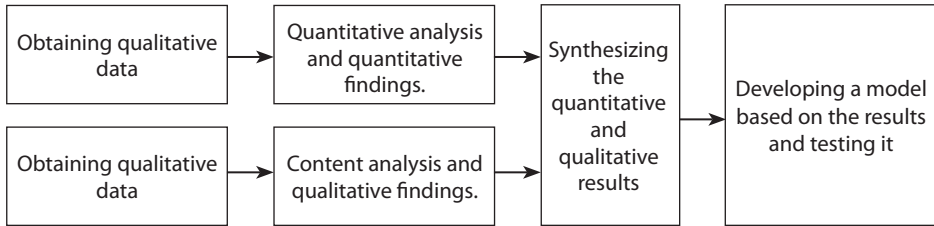


Figure 1. Research model

Context

This study was carried out in a highly centralized and exam-oriented system. This centralized and hierarchical organizational structure restricts the leadership at the school level (Araşkal & Kılınç, 2019; Koşar et al., 2017; Yıldırım & Yenipınar, 2021; 2021;). Although cross-curricular subjects, including leadership, take place in the curricula, they are treated as background skills (Konuk & Posner, 2021; MoNE, 2021a; Öz & Baloğlu, 2020). Teachers are expected to equip students with such skills but the lack of strong linkage between curriculum, teaching, and assessment weakens it (TEDMEM, 2020). Utilization of textbook is the other adverse condition that they are full of exam-oriented and paper-pencil activities instead of learner-based activities. Teachers perform daily teaching routines by following the course books and their teaching experiences (Öz & Baloğlu, 2020; TEDMEM, 2020; Uslu & Aslan, 2020).

Participants

The sample of participants consisted of teachers working in public and private schools providing compulsory formal education in 2020-2021 school year. In line with the multi-stage sampling, the participants were accessed by using stratified, purposeful and random sampling techniques. First, we randomly selected two provinces from each region classified by The Statistical Units of Regions (12 regions at the first level). Then, two towns were randomly chosen from selected provinces. Additionally, three villages/settlements were randomly selected from the towns, too. Hence, we aimed to reach 66 schools in a region (30 primary, 18 lower secondary, and 18 secondary). A total of 792 schools were included in the sample. To contact teachers, we utilized the service of correspondence information about schools through the website (<https://mebbis.meb.gov.tr/KurumListesi.aspx>) of the Ministry of National Education (MoNE). We sent an email informing about the study and a link to the questionnaire designed as Google Form.

The main, quantitative, study consisted of experienced teachers 70 % of whom have at least six years of experience. More than half of them were female (57 %). Nearly half of the participants had been working for four years at the same school. Only 9 % of participants had a master's degree, the rest of them had an undergraduate education degree. The proportion of teachers working in the private sector was 11 %, which is nearly the same as the national statistics (MoNE, 2021b). While nearly half of the

participants work in big schools that have at least 31 or more teachers, 1/5th of the teachers work in the small schools having 15 or fewer teachers. Socio-economic status (SES) was measured based on teachers' perceptions in considering the distribution of students' parents who have a regular job and house income in a particular classroom. Thus, nearly 70 % of participants work in schools with low SES parents. The proportion of schools with high SES parents was only 2.1 %.

To gain a deeper understanding of the reflections of teachers' self-leadership experiences on teaching students leadership skills we conducted face to face semi-structured interviews. We interviewed 13 teachers who were selected by multi-stage sampling (purposeful, stratified, and random) in considering different education levels, experiences, and subjects. All interviewees, who did not take part in the prior phases of the study, were selected from formal public schools located in the city centre. Participants were very experienced teachers and nine of them were female. Five of the participants had 6-10 years of experience and seven had 7-9 years of work experience at the same school. Only three of them had master's degrees, others had undergraduate education degrees. Two of the participants were in primary, eight teachers were in lower-secondary and three of them were in upper-secondary schools. Six teachers were working in large schools while three were at small-sized schools. Nine participants were in schools with low SES parents and four of them were teaching students whose parents were with medium level SES.

Collecting data

We utilized a three-section questionnaire and semi-structured interview to collect the data. The first section of the questionnaire had brief information about the study, ethical rules and participants' consent . The second part asked eight demographical questions. The last section included sub-sections that consist of both Likert type items and open-ended items. Proposed questions were generated by the researchers based on the literature (Houghton, Dawley & DiLiello, 2012; Manz, 1986; Smylie & Eckert, 2018). This was enhanced with independent reviewers' suggestions. The final version consisted of 30 items grouped into six leadership skills (goal-oriented, make-decision, undertake responsibility, perseverance, deal with uncertainty, self-confidence). For each leadership skill, we used four Likert type items focused on the process of TSL and TL. We also used one open-ended question to find out which teaching activities teachers perform to equip students with relevant leadership skills. We used the following questions in the example of goal-oriented skill: 1-How often did you think about the importance of setting goals? 2-How often did you determine goals for yourself? 3-How often did you make effort to carry out your goals? 4- How often did you design for your students to set goals for their own development? 5- What teaching activities did you perform to have your students generate personal goals? The first three questions involve the process of TSL. The last two questions focus on TL. Responses given for the first four questions were analysed by quantitative statistical techniques. Written answers for the last question were analysed using content analysis technique.

The questionnaire was transformed into Google Forms after which it was piloted. The pilot study was implemented with 47 teachers who were selected by purposeful sampling taking into consideration different geographical regions, education levels, experiences, and subjects. After the pilot study, the measurement tool was redesigned to improve its validity. Within this scope, the phrase of 'in the last six months' was changed by the phrase of 'in the last two years' because face to face teaching was interrupted by Covid-19 pandemic conditions.

In the main implementation, the link of measurement tool formed as Google Forms was sent to participants' email addresses. According to Merriam and Tisdell (2016, p. 187), the validity and reliability of the data obtained from the e-instrument are higher since the participants are in an influence-free environment. Two reminder emails were sent with a two week interval.

For better understanding of the phenomenon, we conducted semi-structured interviews with 13 teachers who did not take part in the previous research phases. Interviews were conducted outside of the school environment. At the beginning of the interview, we gave brief information about the study and ethical rules and then asked the interviewee to confirm voluntary participation. Based on the items used in the questionnaire, we investigated how they teach students leadership skills. We used three identical forms one of which was distributed to the interviewee. While one of the researchers asked questions, another researcher recorded the responses by writing on the form. During the interview, we asked probing questions (i.e. Could you please give an example? Why do you behave like that? What are the obstacles to teaching them? ...). At the end of the interview, which lasted one hour on average, we asked the interviewee to examine the recorded form, then confirm if it was correct.

Data analysis

We separately analysed quantitative and qualitative data and then synthesized them. We utilized descriptive statistics (%*f*, *S*), exploratory factor analysis (EFA), Pearson correlation coefficient (*r*) and structural equation modelling (SEM) for analysing quantitative data. We considered the .05 significance level when judging a result. In addition, to assess the significance of difference between means, we computed Cohen's *d* (0.00-0.20: Disregard, 0.21-0.50: Small, 0.51-0.80: Medium, 0.81+: Large) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

After scanning the quantitative data for eligibility (missing, duplication, and extreme score), data belonging to 610 participants were analysed. We checked the skewness and kurtosis that showed the data are within accepted boundaries (± 1) of a normal distribution. The item-total correlations were between 0.44 and 0.85. We also identified that Cronbach's Alpha (α) scores for all factorial dimensions were between 0.73 and 0.90. The general α was 0.93. Based on these scores, we can argue that the measurement tool was highly reliable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). We interpreted the Likert type data scores as 1: Never (1.00-1.80), 2: Seldom (1.81-2.60), 3: Sometimes (2.61-3.40), 4: Often (3.41-4.20), 5: Every time (4.21-5.00).

Qualitative data, taken from interviews, underwent content analysis. Data were coded and themed by explanatory perspective (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). The main goal was to learn about teachers' experiences, obstacles, and solutions related to leadership education. In analysing the qualitative data, beside content analysis, we used an analytical rubric to evaluate the effectiveness of teaching activities. When evaluating teaching activities, the main perspective was the extent to which a particular teaching activity serves to equip students with relevant leadership skill. In line with constructivism, children actively construct their knowledge rather than simply absorb ideas spoken to them by teachers (Cansoy & Parlar, 2018; EURYDICE, 2018; Lauermann, 2017; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2022). In evaluating each activity, the following criteria were considered: a) Applicability of proposed activity, b) Consistency of the activity with the relevant leadership skill, c) Its compliance with constructivist pedagogical principles. The rubric had five degrees [1: No appropriateness (1.00-1.80), 2: Minor (1.81-2.60) 3: Moderate (2.61-3.40), 4: Major (3.41-4.20), 5: Excellence (4.21-5.00)]. The content was graded independently by experts with a doctoral level in educational sciences. The average score of their grades was computed and used to represent the quality of teaching activities.

We performed EFA to check the structural validity. We excluded items that do not meet the criteria that the minimum factor loads for one factor smaller than $|.30|$ and between two factors must be bigger than $|.10|$. By EFA, 20 items out of 24 were structured under six factor groups explaining 72.2% of total variance (Eigenvalues greater than 1). Factor loadings of items were between $|.54|$ and $|.89|$. EFA produced an extra dimension *teaching for leadership skills* (TL) in addition to the aforementioned dimensions (goal-oriented, make-decision, undertake responsibility, perseverance, deal with uncertainty, self-confidence). By analysing correlations between factorial dimensions with Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r), we proposed a theoretical model based on the correlational network. We tested the theoretical model by covariance-based structural equation modelling (CB SEM). This kind of SEM 'provides model fit statistics and is preferable for testing more advanced models' (Yin & Huang, 2021). We performed SEM analysis by IBM SPSS AMOS 24. We considered the following criteria to evaluate the fit indices: In large samples ($300 \leq N$) the scores of fit indices are $\chi^2/sd \leq 0.3$ perfect fit, $\chi^2/sd \leq 0.5$ good fit, $RMSEA \leq .03$ perfect fit, $RMSEA \leq .07$ good fit. Furthermore, NNFI, CFI, GFI, AGFI, TLI greater than 0.95 implies perfect fit while greater than 0.90 means good fit (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p. 725).

Validity and reliability

Trustworthiness and consistency of the qualitative aspect of the study were satisfied by considering the hermeneutic-constructivist paradigm. Taking experts' views, piloting, variability of participants, and obtaining both quantitative and qualitative data are applications for validity and reliability requirements (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The content-related validity was satisfied by

taking views of experts who had a PhD in Education Sciences. Implementing the pilot study supported satisfying reliability.. EFA was used for construct-related validity. In quantifying process, field experts graded independently using a rubric. Furthermore, this study was carried out by researchers who had educational experiences as teachers, inspectors, and managers. Therefore, their multi-dimensional expertise also supported the validity of the study (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 18). The legal requirement of meeting ethical rules was confirmed by The Board of Ethical Rules in Human Research of Aksaray University with decree of 2021/06-07 numbered decision.

Results

The quantitative and qualitative results are presented simultaneously and in line with the research problems.

To what extent do teachers obtain self-leadership skills?

Table 1 shows the quantitative results of the acquisition of leadership skills. To visualize the change in descriptive scores, we also generated graphics displayed in Figure 1. The results show that teachers have a tendency of getting more difficulty from *mental preparation* ($\bar{x}=4.13, S=.82$) towards *application* ($\bar{x}=3.53, S=.94$). Teachers' perceptions about performing the actions of SL considerably change across the leadership skills. The highest relative performance was observed on making decisions ($\bar{x}=4.02, S=.78$). The lowest level of frequency was found to dealwith uncertainty ($\bar{x}=3.22, S=1.10$). Teachers reported that they often ($\bar{x}=3.80, S=.88$) carry out the SL actions. These results answer the first research question: Teachers perceived that they often execute SL actions.

Table 1
Descriptive scores about improving leadership processes across the leadership skills

Dimension	Variable	Content	\bar{x}	S	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha
Goal oriented	G ₁	Thinking on it	4.35	.70	.47	0,732, n=4
	G ₂	Cognitive design	3.88	.76	.61	
	G ₃	Action	3.71	.77	.57	
	G ₄	Teaching performance	3.76	.84	.44	
	G ₅	Quality of teaching activity	1.79	.65		
Decision	D ₁	Thinking on it	4.34	.72	.53	0,767, n=4
	D ₂	Cognitive design	4.05	.77	.64	
	D ₃	Action	3.66	.85	.67	
	D ₄	Teaching performance	3.51	.91	.46	
	D ₅	Quality of teaching activity	1.70	.63		

Dimension	Variable	Content	\bar{x}	S	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha
Responsible	R ₁	Thinking on it	4.13	.81	.51	0.800, n=4
	R ₂	Cognitive design	3.72	.88	.73	
	R ₃	Action	3.71	.93	.68	
	R ₄	Teaching performance	3.59	.96	.55	
	R ₅	Quality of teaching activity	1.90	.67		
Perseverance	P ₁	Thinking on it	4.06	.85	.55	0.821, n=4
	P ₂	Cognitive design	3.76	.87	.74	
	P ₃	Action	3.39	.99	.69	
	P ₄	Teaching performance	3.40	1.00	.61	
	P ₅	Quality of teaching activity	1.67	.62		
Uncertainty	U ₁	Thinking on it	3.44	1.10	.74	0.897, n=4
	U ₂	Cognitive design	3.18	1.08	.85	
	U ₃	Action	3.03	1.13	.81	
	U ₄	Teaching performance	2.87	1.18	.69	
	U ₅	Quality of teaching activity	1.32	.48		
Confidence	C ₁	Thinking on it	4.43	.74	.48	0.837, n=4
	C ₂	Cognitive design	3.87	.89	.80	
	C ₃	Action	3.70	.96	.78	
	C ₄	Teaching performance	3.67	1.00	.64	
	C ₅	Quality of teaching activity	1.84	.58		

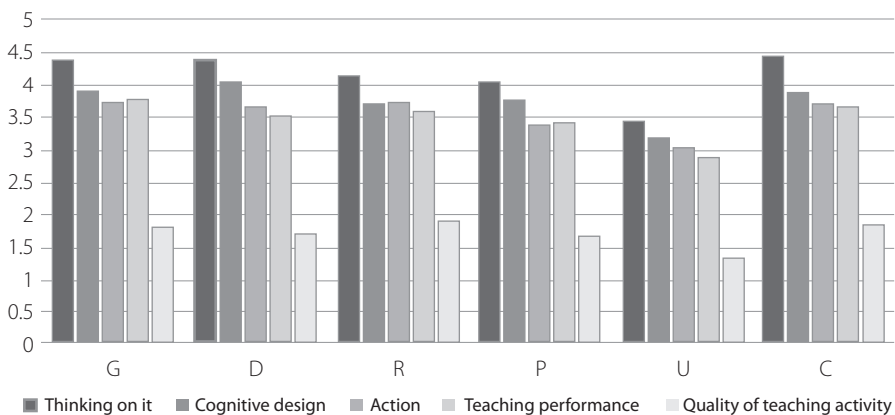


Figure 1. The tendency of change in process of improving TL via TSL

To what extent do teachers equip students with leadership skills?

Teachers' perception about the frequency level of TL ($\bar{x}=3.47$, $S=.94$) is lower than their perception about the frequency level of SL ($\bar{x}=3.80$, $S=.88$). The leadership skill that teachers perceived themselves as the most incompetent was dealing with uncertainty ($\bar{x}=2.87$, $S=1.18$). The highest level of their perception was equipping students with setting goals ($\bar{x}=3.76$, $S=.84$). The biggest difference (0.51) between TSL and TL was observed in *making decision*. The lowest difference (0.22) was observed for *setting the goal*. These results answer the second research question: Despite its lower score than that of TSL, teachers often teach leadership skills to students.

What activities do teachers perform to equip students with leadership skills?

Table 2 presents the content and frequency of teaching activities across the leadership skills. Nearly 34 % of participants reported no activity for teaching leadership skills. The most frequently reported reasons are 'we are not trained', 'our conditions do not allow us', 'these are adult skills', and 'school guidance service should do'. Some participants wrote that without specific teaching activities, students obtain these skills outside of the school environment. They also addressed the parents' role in equipping students with these skills. Nearly a quarter ($N=162$) of participants reported the following activities: Giving examples from their life and advising them, having students watch videos about famous people's experiences, and inviting people to make speeches at school. A lower-secondary school teacher expressed that 'to motivate them, I talked about its importance, and it seemed to influence them, but after a while, they behaved as if we had not had such talk'. Some teachers assigned tasks and responsibilities to students, and 48 of them gave tasks without students' preference and obliged them to fulfil these tasks. For instance, a teacher reported 'I first point to the goals and promise rewards. Feedback is positive'. Teachers generally talked about the importance of these skills without calling them leadership skills and expected students to act accordingly. However, they did not observe the process and give feedback on whether students achieved and improved. Few teachers declared activities including science fairs, school projects financed by international institutions such as ERASMUS+, field visits, science competitions and ceremonies-celebrations etc. Few participants tried to direct students into real-life applications by defining research tasks or team projects. For instance, a participant explained 'I define a problem and direct my students to research in groups. I get them to share what they've learned and ask them to come to a decision and resolve the ambiguity'. In addition, they encouraged students to undertake tasks voluntarily and rewarded those who fulfilled the responsibilities. Some participants used this strategy very frequently in daily routine classroom choirs. Few participant teachers did activities enabling students to obtain leadership skills. Across the leadership skills, teachers carried out more effective activities for self-confidence.

Table 2
Teaching activities to equip students with the leadership skills

Teaching activities	G	D	R	P	C	U	Mean
0 Those who do not perform any activity	382	186	222	150	72	227	207
1 Giving information, talking about its importance, giving encouragement, giving examples from your own life or the lives of famous people, inviting visitors to the school, watching videos.	81	196	65	298	163	167	162
2 Giving responsibilities, defining tasks, assigning homework, etc. But control and monitoring are not done. No feedback is given.	49	122	182	51	140	121	111
3 Working in groups, project tasks, social clubs, educational games, and competitions. Partial feedback is given, but no follow-up or direction is given.	94	89	113	66	92	61	86
4 Problem identification, think-plan-do activities, self-control, monitoring the process, supporting with help and feedback, rewarding.	4	17	28	45	143	34	45
The effectiveness index informing to what degree the activity enables students gain leadership skills	0.20	0.32	0.36	0.32	0.53	0.30	0.34

What are teachers' experiences when they teach students leadership skills?

Teachers' responses during the interviews confirmed the results of the survey. We compared the mean scores of both studies (survey and interview) according to the items. Cohen's d analyses indicate no significant differences (0.00-0.20). For only two items we computed medium-sized differences (0.51-0.80). We also compared teachers' responses regarding the type of teaching activities. Surprisingly, teaching activities were very similar as in the main study (e.g. talking about its importance, giving small responsibilities mainly formed in homework, solve math problems to prepare for exams, giving tasks in the ceremonies, projects etc.). The interviewees explained that they did not do any activity for dealing with uncertainty as in the survey. Within this scope, Mr Omer (age 36, English language teacher) stated that the following: "We follow course books and perform the activities defined in them. Most of us focus on activities directly related to our subject. We do not know if there are specific objectives related to leadership skills in the curriculum."

Mrs Asli (age 42, math teacher) explained that these kinds of knowledge or skills are not asked in the exams. This is a matter left to the teacher's choice. Mr Fevzi (age 47 classroom teacher) reminded that the behaviour section in the elementary school

reports that include some of the leadership skills and stated “These are not curricular matters but behavioural issues”. Interviewees were also asked about the reasons for difference between curricula and teaching practice. Their responses can be summarized as follows: a) disregarding curricula as it is impractical, b) Teaching based on the course books and trying to finish very intense topics, c) Seeing skills such as decision-making, initiative, and coping with uncertainty as the responsibility of the guidance service, outside their own field.

Are the activities performed by teachers capable to equip students with leadership skills?

Table 2 shows the extent to which teaching activities are effective. The general average is very low (0.34, max=1). We observed the lowest mean (0.20) for goal-setting (G), and the highest mean (0.53) for self-confidence (C). Teachers frequently mentioned a general strategy for teaching self-confidence in that they first give simple tasks and gradually increase the difficulty level. Thus, students feel successful. Teaching activities for dealing with uncertainty (U) and perseverance (P) have low means of 0.30 and 0.32, respectively. The content analysis also identified teachers’ understanding related to leadership skills. A participant (code 1) explains “I hate uncertainty, so I refrain from taking any task in such situation and I do not encourage anybody to do so.” Another participant reported that to enable students to notice the importance of perseverance, he repeats the same exam until all students become successful.

Content analysis showed that teachers perceive leadership skills as planning careers, preparing for high-stake exams, or planning the future. Teachers assume that they teach these skills by giving information, talking, and advising about it, describing a particular job, or using drama.

The results indicate the ineffectiveness of teaching leadership skills. Although teachers perceive that they teach leadership skills, their teaching activities are ineffective. The effect size analysis (Cohen’s d) verified this inconsistency for all the leadership skills. We computed the highest inconsistency for U ($d=3.95, p=.000$) and the lowest for R ($d=2.92, p=.000$).

Consistency between the results of the survey and interview affirmed the validity of the results. Depending on the confirmation of the main study, we set to look for a structural model.

Does the TL via TSL have an interactional structure?

We first performed EFA as an item reduction and had six factorial groups consisting of 20 variables encompassing items of TSL and TL. The total variance explained was 0.72 and KMO=0.89 ($p=0.000$). Based on the contents, the factors were named as follows:

F₁: Dealing with uncertainty-U (U₁, U₂, U₃, U₄),

F₂: Decision making-D (D₁, D₂, D₃),

F₃: Goal oriented-G (G₁, G₂, G₃),

F₄: Undertaking responsibility-R (R₁, R₂, R₃)

F₅: Confidence-C (C₁, C₂, C₃),

F₆: Teaching leadership-TL (P₄, D₄, R₄, G₄)

Although *perseverance* (striving to achieve goals despite difficulties) was a theoretical structure proposed by Manz (1986), EFA showed that it had high factorial loads in different factors. It was not a separate structure and treated as a general attitude within other factors. In addition, self-confidence took place in TSL but it did not take place within the teaching process. So, it seemed to be a personal feature that is a consequence of improving other leadership skills.

Correlations between factorial structures were analysed by Pearson r (bivariate). Table 3 shows that there are significantly positive and moderate relations. The highest powerful correlations are owned by R and TL ($0.43 \leq r \leq 0.55$, $p \leq 0.01$). Comparingly, U has the weakest correlation. R (undertaking responsibility) is the crucial skill of this relational network.

Table 3
The results of Pearson Correlation (r) analysis

	F1_U	F2_D	F3_G	F4_R	F5_C	F6_TL
F1_U: Dealing with uncertainty	1					
F2_D: Decision making	.246**	1				
F3_G: Goal oriented	.245**	.468**	1			
F4_R: Undertaking responsibility	.429**	.496**	.434**	1		
F5_C: Confidence	.375**	.521**	.431**	.512**	1	
F6_TL: Teaching leadership	.475**	.484**	.438**	.549**	.474**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

By considering correlations between leadership skills, we first generated a relational network, then we hypothesized a theoretical model proposing the interactions in equipping students with leadership skills via improving TSL. In this theoretical model (Figure 2), we hypothesized direct and indirect effects on TL (teaching leadership). We further assumed that R has direct effects on D, G, U, C and TL.

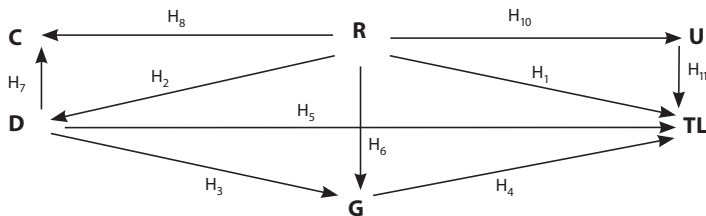


Figure 2. Proposed hypothetical model based on the correlation scores

After the confirmation of each measurement model, we performed covariance-based SEM with the maximum likelihood estimation technique to verify the expected relationships in Figure 2. Multivariate normality was checked by Mahalanobis distances.

Since the highest value (84.14) is smaller than χ^2 (538.8) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013: 99), we assumed that the data are normally distributed. SEM analyses were performed using data from 610 teachers. In the tested model, there were 20 observed endogenous variables, six unobserved endogenous variables, and 26 residuals. To develop a better fitting model, we performed two modifications. After modifications, the model (Figure 3) was significantly improved. We considered the most frequently used criteria of the goodness of fit statistics that are recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013, p. 725) to assess the fit between model and data set. Standardized estimates showed that a) correlations (r) between sub-skills of leadership are smaller than 0.85, and t values were significant, b) $\chi^2=538,829$, $df=157$, $\chi^2/df=3.43$ ($p=.000$), c) RMSEA= .063, d) CFI=.938, e) NFI=.915, TLI =.925. In addition, critical ratio (CR) scores are all significant because they are greater than 1.96 ($p<.05$) that informs that 'parameter estimates are normally distributed, and it is correct only in large samples' (Arbuckle, 2016, p. 31). These results confirm the good fit between the model and the data set.

Table 4 shows the regression weights and standardized total effects. Since all regression weights were significant at the 0.05 level, we can argue that TSL has a significant positive impact on TL. The influence of TSL on TL changes across leadership skills. The leadership skill that TSL has the most impact (.36, $p\leq.001$) on TL is R (undertaking responsibility). However, TSL relatively little predicts TL (.13, $p\geq.001$) in terms of goal-oriented (G). TSL predicts TL relatively better for D (.28, $p\leq.001$), and U (.19, $p\leq.001$). Standardized total effect scores shows that the leadership skill with the highest total effect of TSL on TL is undertaking responsibility (.68, $R^2=.47$). It means that TSL explains 47% of any one unit change in TL for undertaking responsibility. For decision making, it is 13 %, for dealing with uncertainty 4%, for goal setting 2 %.

Table 4
Maximum Likelihood Estimates-Regression Weights

Hypothesis	Unstandardized Estimate	Standard Error	Standardized Estimate	Critical Ratio	p	Standardized Total Effect
R→D	.533	.047	.576	11.458	***	.576
R→C	.394	.061	.344	6.498	***	.568
R→U	.448	.065	.378	6.846	***	.491
R→G	.195	.047	.244	4.138	***	.510
R→TL	.348	.054	.360	6.473	***	.684
D→C	.481	.068	.389	7.107	***	.389
D→G	.399	.055	.461	7.255	***	.461
D→TL	.298	.060	.285	4.992	***	.358
C→U	.204	.053	.197	3.877	***	.197
U→TL	.159	.035	.194	4.491	***	.194
G→TL	.152	.063	.125	2.407	**	.125

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level. **. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

The model also displayed indirect effects. Increased R of TSL predicted greater D of TSL which predicted greater G of TSL which finally predicted greater TL. Increased D of TSL predicted first greater C of TSL which predicted greater U of TSL which then predicted greater TL. Based on the following structural equations (1), 62 % of the variance in TL was accounted for by TSL's R, D, G, and U skills.

$$TL = 0.19*U + 0.28*D + 0.13*G + 0.36*R, \text{ Error} = 0.38, R^2=0.62 \text{ (1)}$$

Thus, experience and acquisition of TSL, for R, D, U and G skills, positively affect TL.

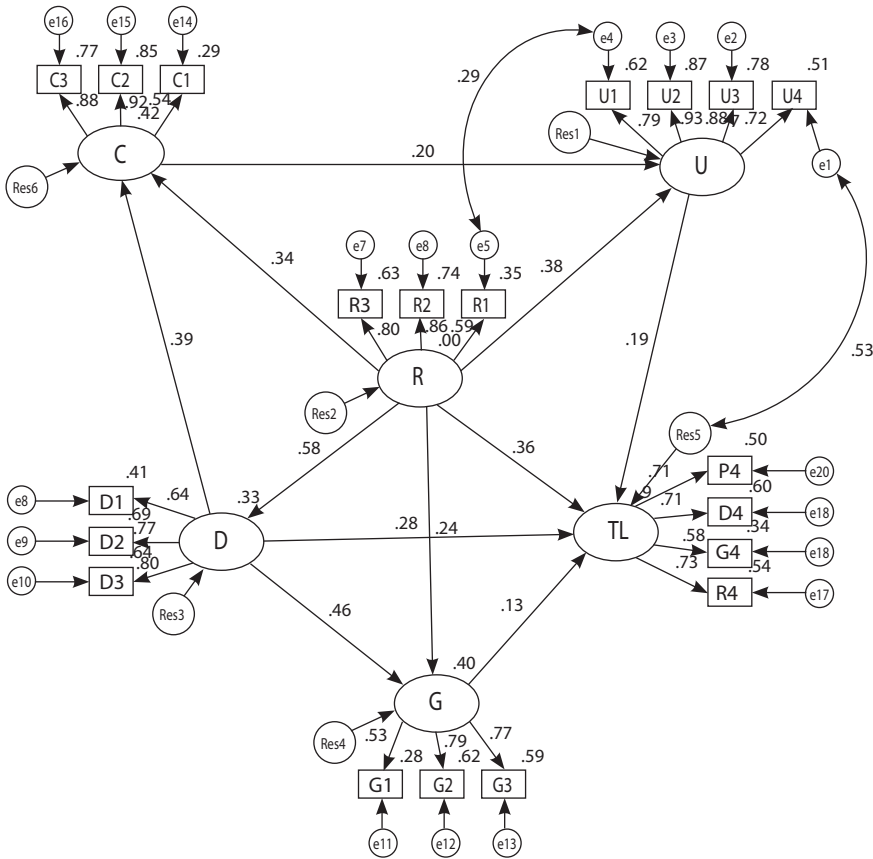


Figure 3. Testing model by path analysis (standardized estimates)

Discussion

This mixed-method study investigated the reflections of teachers' leadership experiences on teaching leadership skills to students. Despite teachers' perception of performing self-leadership behaviours and teaching students leadership skills frequently, their teaching activities are ineffective in equipping students with leadership skills. The most prevalent obstacles are detachment among curricula, teaching, and evaluation, lack of training involving effective teaching methods, and teachers'

unconsciousness about the importance of leadership skills. Based on the synthesizing results and correlations between leadership skills, we hypothesized a model arguing interaction between teachers' self-leadership (TSL) experiences and teaching students leadership skills (TL). Testing this model generated three practical results: a) TSL has a significant positive and moderate effect on TL. b) The most substantial skill in teaching leadership is undertaking responsibility. c) There are significant positive effects between leadership skills.

There are some differences between the current model and the original model of self-leadership. Manz's original model (1986) suggested that goals must be determined first as the standard and put into practice. Despite difficulties or failures, they should insist on implementing them. Instead of goal setting, the leadership process starts with undertaking responsibility in the current model. Another considerable difference is the interaction between leadership skills besides sequential work. Depending on the current model we can assume that someone who experiences a problem should undertake responsibility involving the problem solution, then run the decision-making process, and finally they eliminate the uncertainty. Upon making decision, they the goals, and then initiate actions, accordingly.

Although students at the compulsory school level have high leadership potential (Öz & Baloğlu, 2020; Uslu & Aslan, 2020), they lack appropriate leadership education (Elmuti et al., 2005; Kim, 2009; Koşar et al., 2017; Kouzes & Posner, 2018; Öz & Baloğlu, 2020). This current study confirmed the prior studies' results about the importance of practice in leadership education (Elmuti et al., 2005; Bolam, 2004; Bush, 2008; Eckert & Daughtrey, 2019; Kearns, 2019). This study showed that ineffective teaching activities are one of the main obstacles to enhancing leadership education. To advise children, talk about personal life experiences, or motivate them to prepare for high-stakes exams are irrelevant to teaching leadership. Instead, learner-centred instructional strategies support students' experiential learning (Hardie et al., 2022; Hattie, 2012; Marzano, 2007; Smylie & Eckert, 2018). For instance, introducing a real-life problem in project-based learning activity would drive students to undertake the responsibility, make decisions regarding a better way of solving problems, work collaboratively, and engage in discussions. During the process, teachers should observe, encourage, and work with students. Moreover, such activities are practices that can be applied in every subject (Haug & Mork, 2021; Lauermaun, 2017). However, the qualitative results of this study indicated some contextual hindrances in carrying out the students' experiential learning. In the exam-oriented system, the teaching of core subjects leaves no space for teaching cross-curricular skills such as leadership. As reported by Gerstenschlager and Barlow (2019) teachers are either unaware or have misunderstandings about cross-curricular skills such as leadership.

Another contextual matter is related to the centralized system with limited school autonomy that limits exhibiting leadership by teachers and students. Organization and operation style of the education system, school autonomy level, school environment,

teachers' role in school governance, and teachers' professional competencies can affect leadership in the school environment (; Bush, 2008; Eckert & Daughtrey, 2019; Gumus et al., 2018; Hallinger, 2018; Smylie & Eckert, 2018; Szeto, 2020; Viennet & Pont, 2017; Woodhouse & Pedder, 2017; Yıldırım & Yenipinar, 2021). Since students cannot observe leadership behaviours and practices, even if they have potential, their leadership tendencies weaken over time (Oz & Baloglu, 2020). On the other hand, we can speculate that a relatively positive school environment may have tolerated the negative influence of organizational structure. A positive environment and workrelated activities might have supported their high-level perception of leadership skills such as undertaking responsibility, making decisions, and self-confidence. However, teachers have problems transferring their mental preparation to practice. In addition, this problem becomes more apparent in the teaching phase. Moreover, their teaching activities are far from equipping students with these skills. This result is in line with the results of prior studies indicating the lack of appropriate teaching of leadership skills (Elmuti, et al., 2005; Gerstenschlager and Barlow, 2019; Hardie et al., 2022; Haug & Mork, 2021; Koşar et al., 2017; Lauer mann, 2017).

The current study identified undertaking responsibility as a key leadership skill. That is in line with some prior studies (Connolly et al., 2019; Özdemir, et al., 2020; Voegtlin, 2016; Webber & Nickel, 2021). For instance, Voegtlin (2016) defines *undertaking responsibility* as the main characteristic of leadership. It is one of the significant predictors of managerial leadership behaviour (Ozdemir et al., 2020). It is also a background skill feeding 21st-CS including creativity and entrepreneurship (UNESCO, 2017; Webber & Nickel, 2021). It distinguishes leadership from management. Managers are given the responsibility, but leaders undertake responsibility (Connolly et al., 2019). If someone undertakes the responsibility to engage a problem instead of running away, then they exhibit leadership potential (Voegtlin, 2016). Undertaking responsibility directly affects other leadership skills (decision making, dealing with uncertainty, self-confidence) and TL. Undertaking responsibility seems to drive teachers to make decisions and deal with uncertainty. Prior studies refer to the association between dealing with uncertainty and innovation, entrepreneurship, and change (Bush, 2008; Hallinger, 2018). Refraining or running away from uncertainty signifies low level of leadership potential (Yenipinar et al., 2020).

Conclusion

At the end of the study, we concluded that TSL affects TL positively. Therefore, we have extended Manz's self-leadership theory (1986) in a different context. Teachers' self-leadership experiences reflect positively on teaching students leadership skills, and this process enhances teachers' leadership. In that way leadership education improves. Therefore, this study verified the importance of teacher leadership in school development. This study also revealed the crucial role of teaching activities in equipping students with leadership skills. Owing to the lack of systematic mechanisms,

leadership education in formal compulsory schools seems to be left only to the choice and consciousness of teachers.

Limitation and strength

Because of its complex structure, measuring leadership using only some indicative skills (goal-oriented, make-decision, undertake responsibility, perseverance, deal with uncertainty, self-confidence) limits the study's external validity. In addition, we regarded only teachers' views and experiences. Besides the teachers' aspect, looking at the phenomenon from students' and administrators' perspectives may change the study's results. Furthermore, this study was carried out in a context with adverse conditions for performing leadership behaviours. The different contextual conditions might have different results. The other limitation involved with Covid-19 Pandemic, which interrupts face-to-face activities in the school environment. Despite its limitations, this study proposed a model pointing out how we can teach leadership skills. This study lights on the background elements of leadership education: Teachers' awareness, appropriate teaching activities, and systemic mechanisms among curriculum, teaching, and evaluation.

Implementation

Without well-designed pedagogical activities, students' leadership aspects would be limited. Therefore, teachers need awareness about the importance of leadership skills, and professional support in generating and implementing student-centred teaching activities addressing teaching leadership skills (Gerstenschlager & Barlow; 2019; Grigoropoulos, 2020; Haug & Mork, 2021). Since leadership education entails real-life linked school activities, a relevant systemic infrastructure should be established.

The authors report there are no competing interests to declare.

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Odras učiteljskih iskustava samovođenja na poučavanje vještina vođenja

Sažetak

U radu se prikazuje istraživanje percepcije učitelja o njihovim iskustvima samovođenja u kontekstu poučavanja učenika vještini upravljanja unutar centraliziranoga obrazovnog sustava. U okviru obrazovanja za vođenje, ovaj rijetko proučavani fenomen predstavlja teorijski i praktični problem. Provedeno je sekvencijalno eksplikativno istraživanje s kombiniranim metodama, pri čemu su kvantitativni podatci dobiveni od 610 učitelja putem višestupanjske metode uzorkovanja. Za bolje razumijevanje fenomena provedeni su i polustrukturirani intervjui (N = 13). Također, u istraživanju je postavljena hipoteza o modelu koji sugerira interakciju između samovođenja učitelja i poučavanja učenika vještini vođenja koja je zatim i testirana. Za analizu podataka korištena je metoda analize sadržaja, deskriptivna analiza, korelacije, EFA i SEM analiza. Zaključeno je da iskustva samovođenja učitelja pozitivno utječu na osposobljavanje učenika za vještine vođenja te je otkriveno da je ključna vještina unutar međusobno povezanih vještina vođenja preuzimanje odgovornosti. Istraživanje je ukazalo na nesklad između kurikula, nastave i vrednovanja, nedostatak osposobljavanja za provedbu učinkovitih nastavnih metoda i neosviještenost učitelja kao značajne barijere u obrazovanje za vođenje.

Ključne riječi: kombinirana metoda; poučavanje vođenja; samovođenje; učenici; učitelji.

Uvod

Vođenje je vještina koja se može naučiti i stoga bi škole trebale biti učinkovite u razvijanju novih voditelja (Bush, 2008; Kearns, 2019; Konuk i Posner, 2021; Kouzes i Posner, 2018; Lunenburg i Ornstein, 2022; Posner i Kouzes, 2012). Razvijanje vještine vođenja moguće je u školskom okruženju stvaranjem infrastrukture podrške (Bush, 2008; Eckert i Daughtrey, 2019; Hallinger, 2018;). Iako su neki programi za razvoj specifičnih vještina vođenja imali pozitivne ishode (Bush, 2008; Eckert i Daughtrey, 2019; Kearns, 2019; Smylie i Eckert, 2018; Webber i Nickel, 2021), poboljšanje vještina vođenja kod učenika u formalnim javnim školama predstavlja izazov. U ovom pristupu, učitelji imaju ključne uloge (Hardie i sur., 2022; Marzano, 2007; Smylie i Eckert, 2018).

S obzirom na interakciju učitelj-učenik, integriranjem usvajanja vještine vođenja s poučavanjem vještini vođenja može se doprinijeti razvoju obrazovanja za vođenje u državnim školama (Eckert i Daughtrey, 2019; Poekert, Alexandrou i Shannon, 2016; Oz i Baloglu, 2020). Obrazovanje za vođenje odnosi se na osposobljavanje ljudi za vještine vodstva. Unatoč njihovoj važnosti (EURYDICE, 2018; MoNE, 2021a; UNESCO, 2017), poučavanje vještinama vođenja predstavlja problem (Kearns, 2019). U poučavanju učenika vještinama vođenja, ključno je pitanje imaju li učitelji znanja ili iskustva s vođenjem (Hardie i sur., 2022). U tom kontekstu, teorija samovođenja može se primijeniti na poboljšanje vještine vođenja kod učitelja. Teorija samoupravljanja razvila se u teoriju samovođenja (Houghton, Dawley i DiLiello, 2012; Manz, 1986; Manz i Sims, 1991; Prussia, Anderson i Manz, 1998). Budući da se teorija samovođenja fokusira na iskustva samovođenja pojedinca, iskustvo samovođenja (SVU) može se prenijeti i na opremanje učenika vještinama vođenja. To također podrazumijeva i proširenje teorije samovođenja. Nadalje, njegova primjena u formalnim, obveznim školama pruža priliku za istraživanje funkcionalnih modela. U skladu s teorijom samovođenja koju je predložio Manz (1986), poučavanje samovođenja putem iskustva učiteljevih vještina samovođenje treba dovesti do odgovora na neka praktična pitanja: Do koje mjere učitelji razvijaju vještine samovođenja?; Do koje mjere oni osposobljavaju učenike vještinama vođenja?; Koje nastavne aktivnosti provode i na kraju, kakve su interakcije u ovom procesu?

Samovođenje učitelja

Prema Manzu (1986., str. 589.), da bi netko bio vođa, mora najprije voditi sam sebe. Osoba treba postaviti ciljeve i biti uporna u ostvarenju istih čak i kada se naiđe na poteškoće. Ovaj model samovođenja uglavnom ima četiri međusobno isprepletene aspekta: vlastiti standardi, vježba, samoevaluacija i samprovedene posljedice. Houghton i sur. (2012) naglasili su važnost unutarnjih motiva (postavljanje ciljeva, samoopažanje, samopoticanje) za poboljšanje samovođenja. Za učitelja, samovođenje se uglavnom odnosi na poučavanje, što je, zapravo, proces interakcije između učitelja i učenika. Vođe među učiteljima javljaju se iz školske zajednice, posebno kada se pojave nova i neodređena pitanja vezana za poučavanje u školi i učionici. Prema Gerstenschlageru i Barlowu (2019.), „nažalost, svi ovi učitelji nisu nužno osposobljeni u području vođenja učitelja.” Poekert i sur. (2016., str. 325) utvrdili su da učitelji „imaju stav vođe koji reagira na potrebe svojih učenika”. U takvim slučajevima, učenici imitiraju ponašanje vođenja svojih učitelja (Araškal i Kılınc, 2019.). Nastavnici možda nesvjesno pokazuju ponašanja vođenja. Stoga, poučavanje vođenja (PV) djeluje na složen način. Osim toga, aktivnosti i određivanje vremena za razvijanje konkretne vještine vođenja mogu utjecati ne samo na učenike, već i na same učitelje (Poekert i sur., 2016.).

Poboljšanje samovođenja

Da bi na svjestan i organiziran način opremili učenike vještinama vođenja, učitelji bi prvo trebali internalizirati koncept vođenja i primijeniti ga u vlastitom životu (Hardie i sur., 2022; Smylie i Eckert, 2018). Sekvencijalni proces razvoja vještina vođenja obuhvaća

izgradnju kapaciteta, a zatim i implementaciju (Eckert i Daughtrey, 2019; Prussia i sur., 1998). Manz i Sims (1991) klasificirali su proces samovođenja kao kognitivnu i bihevioralnu dimenziju. Bolam (2004.) je predložio četiri koraka u razvoju vođenja: stvoriti osjećaj vođenja, pripremiti se za vođenje, provesti vođenje i poboljšati praksu vođenja refleksivnim učenjem. Prema Kearnsu (2019., p. 258) „vođenje se može naučiti samo kroz proces prakse, refleksije, usavršavanja i još više prakse.” Poekert i sur. (2016) predložili su iterativni model fokusiran na iskustvu. Bush (2008.) je naglasio da bi učitelji trebali primijeniti praksu podržavanja kreativnosti i razvijanja inovativnosti, što su važne komponente vođenja. Naglasak na vježbanje razvoja vođenja navodi nas na temeljno pitanje: što i kako treba vježbati? Prvi dio pitanja odnosi se na vještine vođenja kao što su preuzimanje odgovornosti, donošenje odluka, postavljanje ciljeva, rješavanje problema, poduzetništvo, kreativnost, inovativnost, ustrajnost, komunikacija, vještine grupnoga rada, kritičko razmišljanje i suočavanje s neodređenošću. Ove vještine poznate su i kao međupredmetne vještine ili vještine 21. stoljeća (21st-CS) (Grigoropoulos, 2020; Hardie, Highfield i Lee, 2022; Haug i Mork, 2021; Oz i Baloglu, 2020; Özdemir, Çoban i Bozkurt, 2020; UNESCO, 2017; Uslu i Aslan, 2020; Webber i Nickel, 2021; Woodhouse i Pedder, 2017). Navedene vještine vođenja mogu biti međusobno povezane jer u nekim relevantnim izvorima preuzimanje odgovornosti ističe kao preduvjet za vještine vođenja (Connolly i sur., 2019; Özdemir i sur., 2020; Webber i Nickel, 2021). Vođe se, umjesto da bježe, hvataju u koštac s problemom (Voegtlin, 2016). Preuzimanje odgovornosti također pokreće osobu u proces donošenja odluke. Samopouzdanje osobe da može riješiti problem vodi osobu prema traženju rješenja za taj problem. Jedan od načina pronalazjenja rješenja jest eliminacija neodređenosti. Konačno, osoba određuje svoj cilj i to rješenje primjenjuje u praksu (poučavanje). Drugi dio pitanja odnosi se na metode poučavanja/učenja usredotočene na učenike ili aktivne metode poput učenja zasnovanoga na problemima, projektima ili istraživanju (Hardie i sur., 2022; Haug i Mork, 2021; Marzano, 2007; Smylie i Eckert, 2018). Ove aktivnosti trebale bi nastati iz autentičnih učiteljskih okruženja jer inicijative propisane odozgo prema dolje mogu izazvati otpor (Muijs & Harris, 2003). Dakle, namjere učitelja, svijest i iskustvo ključni su elementi poučavanja vođenja (PV).

Osposobljavanje učenika vještinama vođenja-TL

U literaturi je ukazano na nedostatak istraživanja o ulozi učiteljskoga vođenja u poučavanju vođenja (PV) i interakciji u tom procesu (Beycioğlu i Aslan, 2012; Nguyen i sur., 2019; Uslu i Aslan, 2020). Objavljeno je nekoliko pozitivnih rezultata istraživanja specifičnih programa razvoja vođenja za darovite učenike, studente na poslijediplomskim studijima ili kandidate za ravnatelje škola (Eckert i Daughtrey, 2019; Kearns, 2019; Konuk i Posner, 2021; Koşar i sur., 2017; Poekert i sur., 2016). Međutim, za učenike u općem obveznom obrazovanju, to nije slučaj (Kim, 2009; Öz i Baloglu, 2020; Uslu i Aslan, 2020). Prema Özu i Baloglu (2020), učenici uglavnom pokazuju ponašanja vođenja u ranim fazama obrazovanja. Učestalost pokazivanja vođenja prosječnoga učenika smanjuje se kako razina obrazovanja raste. Araşkal i Kılınç (2019) tvrde da će učenici koji promatraju učiteljske prakse vođenja vjerojatno

pokazivati ponašanja vođenja. Međutim, Kılınç, Bellibaş i Bektaş (2021) nisu naišli na odraz učiteljskoga vodstva na nastavne aktivnosti. Elmuti, Minnis i Abebe (2005, p. 1025) tvrde da nedostaje sveobuhvatan i integrirani pristup obrazovanju za vođenje. Istraživanja potvrđuju problematičnu situaciju u obrazovanju za vođenje: unatoč studentskom potencijalu za vođenje, učitelji imaju ograničenu sposobnost poboljšanja vještina rješavanja problema, kreativnosti i poduzetništva kod učenika u formalnom obveznom obrazovanju (Hardie i sur., 2022; Haug i Mork, 2021; Košar i sur., 2017; Lauermann, 2017).

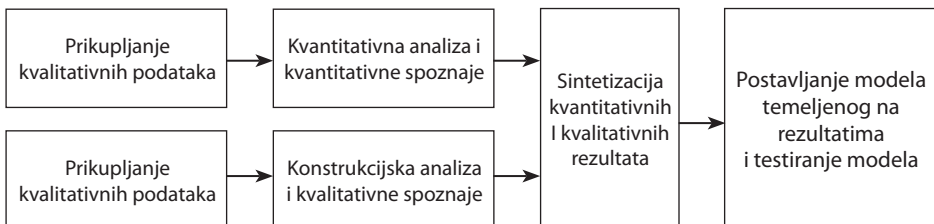
Problem

Čini se da se istraživanja odnosa između samovođenja učitelja i poučavanja vođenja zanemaruju. Unatoč važnosti osposobljavanja učenika za vještinu vođenja, ograničeni broj istraživanja toga aspekta stvara veliki problem. Pregled literature ukazao je na nedostatak istraživanja o interakcijskim strukturama koje postoje u osposobljavanju učenika vještinama vođenja kroz iskustva samovođenja učitelja (Gumus, Bellibas, Esen i Gumus, 2018; Hallinger, 2018; Košar i sur., 2017; Nguyen i sur., 2019). Stoga je ovo istraživanje usmjereno na sljedeća pitanja:

- (1) Do koje mjere učitelji razvijaju vještine samovođenja?
- (2) Do koje mjere učitelji osposobljuju učenike vještinama vođenja?
- (3) Koje aktivnosti provode učitelji kako bi osposobili učenike za vještinae vođenja?
- (4) Kakva su iskustva učitelja kada poučavanju učenike vještinama vođenja?
- (5) Do koje mjere su aktivnosti koje provode učitelji učinkovite?
- (6) Ima li poučavanje vođenja (PV) putem samovođenja učitelja (SSN) smislenu interakcijsku strukturu?

Metodologija

Metaanaliza koju su proveli Nguyen i sur. (2019) pokazala je da su istraživanja o učiteljskom vođenju pretežno koristila metodologije maloga opsega i kvalitativnoga karaktera. Ovo je istraživanje deskriptivno i kauzalno-relacijsko unutar eksplanatornoga sekvencijalnog dizajna kombiniranih metoda. Kvantitativni, kvalitativni i sintetizirani rezultati dobiveni su unutar deskriptivnih i interpretativnih pristupa korištenjem perspektive više podataka (Creswell i Plano Clark, 2018). Istraživanje se sastojalo od tri faze: pokusno istraživanje (N = 47), glavno istraživanje koje je uključivalo i kvantitativni (N = 610) i kvalitativni (N = 13) dio i testiranja modela. Slika 1 prikazuje model istraživanja.



Slika 1. Istraživački model

Kontekst

Ovo istraživanje provedeno je u iznimno centraliziranom i ispitno-orijentiranom sustavu. Ovakva centralizirana i hijerarhijska organizacijska struktura ograničava vođenje na razini škole (Araşkal i Kılınç, 2019; Koşar i sur., 2017; Yıldırım i Yenipınar, 2021). Iako se u kurikulu nalaze međupredmetni predmeti, uključujući i vođenje, oni se tretiraju kao pozadinske vještine (Konuk i Posner, 2021; MoNE, 2021a; Öz i Baloğlu, 2020). Od učitelja se očekuje da osposobe učenike takvim vještinama, ali slaba povezanost između programa, nastave i vrednovanja slabi taj učinak (TEDMEM, 2020). Još jedan nepovoljan uvjet jest i korištenje udžbenika koji su pretrpani aktivnostima orijentiranim na ispite i rad s papirom i olovkom, umjesto aktivnosti usmjerenih na učenike. Učitelji provode uobičajene nastavne aktivnosti slijedeći udžbenike i svoje učiteljsko iskustvo (Öz i Baloğlu, 2020; TEDMEM, Državni memorandum o obrazovnoj politici Turske, 2020; Uslu i Aslan, 2020).

Ispitanici

Uzorak ispitanika obuhvaćao je učitelje koji su radili u državnim i privatnim školama koje nude obvezno formalno obrazovanje u školskoj godini 2020./2021. U skladu s višestupanjskim uzorkovanjem, do ispitanika se došlo primjenom stratificiranoga, namjernoga i slučajnoga uzorkovanja.

Prvo su nasumično odabrane dvije županije iz svake regije klasificirane po Statističkim jedinicama regija (12 regija na prvoj razini). Zatim su nasumično odabrana dva grada iz odabranih županija. Dodatno su i tri sela/naselja nasumično odabrana iz gradova. Cilj je bio obuhvatiti 66 škola u regiji (30 osnovnih, 18 nižih srednjih i 18 srednjih).

Ukupno je u uzorak uključeno 792 škole. Za kontakt s učiteljima koristili smo servis za informiranje i korespondenciju škola preko web stranice (<https://mebbis.meb.gov.tr/KurumListesi.aspx>) Ministarstva nacionalnoga obrazovanja (MoNE). Ispitanicima je poslana e-pismo s informacijama o istraživanju i poveznica prema upitniku dizajniranom u Google Forms formatu.

Glavno, kvantitativno, istraživanje obuhvatilo je iskusne učitelje od kojih je 70 % imalo najmanje šest godina iskustva. Više od polovice njih bile su žene (57 %). Gotovo polovica ispitanika radila je četiri godine u istoj školi. Samo 9 % ispitanika imalo je završen diplomski studij, dok su ostali završili prijediplomski studij. Udio nastavnika koji rade u privatnom sektoru bio je 11 %, što je gotovo isto kao statistika na nacionalnoj razini (Ministarstvo prosvjete i obrazovanja, 2021b). Dok gotovo polovica ispitanika radi u velikim školama koje imaju najmanje 31 ili više nastavnika, 1/5 nastavnika radi u malim školama s 15 ili manje nastavnika. Socioekonomski status (SES) mjereno je na temelju percepcije učitelja uzimajući u obzir raspodjelu roditelja učenika koji imaju stalni posao i dohodak kućanstva u određenom razredu. Dakle, gotovo 70 % ispitanika radi u školama u kojima roditelji imaju niski SES. Udio škola s roditeljima s visokim SES-om bio je samo 2,1 %.

Za bolje razumijevanje promišljanja učitelja o njihovom iskustvu samovođenja u kontekstu poučavanja vještina vođenja kod učenika, proveli smo individualne

polustrukturirane intervjuue. Intervjuirano je 13 nastavnika koji su odabrani višestupanjskim uzorkovanjem (namjerno, stratificirano i nasumično) uzimajući u obzir različite obrazovne razine, iskustva i predmete. Svi ispitanici, koji nisu sudjelovali u prethodnim fazama istraživanja odabrani su iz formalnih državnih škola smještenih u gradskom centru. U intervjuima su sudjelovali vrlo iskusni učitelji od kojih su devet bile žene. Petero ispitanika imalo je 6-10 godina iskustva, a sedmero 7-9 godina radnoga iskustva u istoj školi. Samo troje njih imalo je diplomsku razinu obrazovanja, dok su ostali imali završenu prijediplomsku razinu. Dvoje ispitanika bilo je iz osnovne škole, osam učitelja u starijim razredima osnovne škole, a troje iz srednje škole. Šestero nastavnika radilo je u velikim školama, dok su troje bili u malim školama. Devet ispitanika bilo je u školama s roditeljima niskoga SES-a, a četvero s roditeljima prosječnoga SES-a.

Prikupljanje podataka

Za prikupljanje podataka korišten je upitnik koji se sastojao od tri dijela te polustrukturirani intervju. Prvi dio upitnika sadržavao je kratke informacije o istraživanju, etičkim pravilima i privoli sudionika. Drugi dio sastojao se od osam demografskih pitanja. Posljednji dio uključivao je podskupine koje su sadržavale stavke Likertova tipa i otvorenih pitanja. Predložena pitanja formulirali su istraživači na temelju literature (Houghton, Dawley i DiLiello, 2012; Manz, 1986; Smylie i Eckert, 2018). Pitanja su poboljšana prijedlozima nezavisnih recenzenata. Konačna verzija sadržavala je 30 stavki podijeljenih u šest vještina vođenja (orijentiranost prema cilju, donošenje odluka, preuzimanje odgovornosti, ustrajnost, suočavanje s neodlučnošću, samopouzdanje). Za svaku vještinu vođenja koristili smo četiri stavke Likertova tipa fokusirane na proces samovođenja (TSL) i vođenja učenika (TL). Koristili smo i jedno otvoreno pitanje kako bismo saznali koje nastavne aktivnosti izvode nastavnici kako bi poučili učenike relevantnim vještinama vođenja. Kao primjer vještine orijentiranosti prema cilju koristili smo sljedeća pitanja: 1. Koliko ste često razmišljali o važnosti postavljanja ciljeva? 2. Koliko ste često sami sebi postavljali ciljeve? 3. Koliko ste se često trudili ostvariti svoje ciljeve? 4. Koliko ste često planirali da vaši učenici postavljaju ciljeve za svoj vlastiti razvoj? 5. Koje ste nastavne aktivnosti proveli kako bi vaši učenici postavili osobne ciljeve? Prva tri pitanja odnose se na proces samovođenja (TSL). Posljednja dva pitanja fokusiraju se na vođenje učenika (TL). Odgovori dani na prva četiri pitanja analizirani su kvantitativnim statističkim alatima. Pisani odgovori na posljednje pitanje analizirani su metodom analize sadržaja.

Upitnik je prebačen u Google Forms nakon čega je provedeno probno ispitivanje. Probno ispitivanje provedeno je s 47 nastavnika odabranih namjerno uzimajući u obzir različite geografske regije, obrazovne razine, iskustva i nastavne predmete. Nakon provedenoga pokusnog istraživanja, instrument za mjerenje preoblikovan je radi bolje valjanost. U tom kontekstu, izraz „u posljednjih šest mjeseci” zamijenjen je izrazom „u posljednje dvije godine” jer je nastava u učionici prekinuta zbog pandemijskih uvjeta Covid-19.

U glavnoj implementaciji, poveznica na instrument, preoblikovan u Google Forms, poslana je na e-adrese sudionika. Prema Merriam i Tisdell (2016, p.187), valjanost i pouzdanost podataka dobivenih iz e-instrumenta su veće jer se ispitanici nalaze u okruženju bez utjecaja. Kao podsjetnik, poslana su dva dodatna e-pisma u razmaku od dva tjedna.

Za bolje razumijevanje fenomena, proveli smo polustrukturirane intervju s 13 učitelja koji nisu sudjelovali u prethodnim fazama istraživanja. Intervjui su provedeni izvan školskoga okruženja. Na početku intervju dani smo kratke informacije o istraživanju i etičkim pravilima, a zatim smo zamolili ispitanike da potvrde dobrovoljno sudjelovanje. Na temelju stavki korištenih u upitniku, istraživali smo kako oni poučavaju učenike vještinama vođenja. Koristili smo tri identična obrasca od kojih je jedan podijeljen ispitaniku. Dok je jedan od istraživača postavljao pitanja, drugi je istraživač bilježio odgovore pisanjem na obrazac. Tijekom intervju postavljali smo istraživačka pitanja (npr. Možete li dati primjer? Zašto se tako ponašate? Koje su prepreke u njihovom učenju? ...). Na kraju intervju, koji je u prosjeku trajao sat vremena, zamolili smo ispitanike da pregledaju popunjeni obrazac te potom potvrde točnost.

Analiza podataka

Odvojeno su analizirani kvantitativni i kvalitativni podatci koje su zatim sintetizirani. Za analizu kvantitativnih podataka koristili smo deskriptivnu statistiku ($\%$, f , \bar{x} , S), eksplorativnu faktorsku analizu (EFA), Pearsonov koeficijent korelacije (r) i modeliranje strukturnih jednadžbi (SEM). Kod procjene rezultata uzimali smo u obzir razinu značajnosti od 0,05. Također, za procjenu značajnosti razlika između srednjih vrijednosti, izračunali smo Cohenov d (0,00-0,20: Zanemarivo, 0,21-0,50: Malo, 0,51-0,80: Srednje, 0,81+: Veliko) (Tabachnick i Fidell, 2013).

Nakon provjere ispravnosti kvantitativnih podataka (nepotpuni podatci, dupliranje i ekstremne vrijednosti), analizirani su podatci dobiveni od 610 ispitanika. Provjerili smo koeficijente asimetrije i kurtoze koji pokazuju da su podatci unutar prihvaćenih granica (± 1) normalne distribucije. Korelacije između stavke i ukupnoga skora bile su između 0,44 i 0,85. Također je identificirano da Cronbachov alfa (α) za sve faktorske dimenzije iznosi između 0,73 i 0,90. Opća α vrijednost bila je 0,93. Na temelju ovih podataka možemo tvrditi da je instrument za mjerenje bio izuzetno pouzdan (Tabachnick i Fidell, 2013). Rezultate stavki Likertova tipa interpretirali smo kao: 1: Nikada (1,00 - 1,80), 2: Rijetko (1,81 - 2,60), 3: Ponekad (2,61 - 3,40), 4: Često (3,41 - 4,20), 5: Uvijek (4,21 - 5,00).

Kvalitativni podatci, prikupljeni tijekom intervju, podvrgnuti su analizi sadržaja. Podatci su kodirani i tematizirani prema interpretativnoj perspektivi (Creswell i Plano Clark, 2018). Glavni cilj bio je saznati iskustva nastavnika, prepreke i rješenja u vezi s obrazovanjem za vođenje. Prilikom analize kvalitativnih podataka, osim analize sadržaja, korištena je i analitička rubrika za procjenu učinkovitosti nastavnih aktivnosti. Prilikom procjene nastavnih aktivnosti, glavna je perspektiva bila mjera do koje

određena nastavna aktivnost služi osposobljavanju učenika za relevantne vještine vođenja. U skladu s konstruktivizmom, djeca aktivno konstruiraju svoje znanje, odnosno ne upijaju pasivno ideje koje im predstave nastavnici (Cansoy i Parlar, 2018; EURYDICE, 2018; Lauermaun, 2017; Lunenburg i Ornstein, 2022). Prilikom procjene svake aktivnosti, razmatrali su se sljedeći kriteriji: a) primjenjivost predložene aktivnosti, b) usklađenost aktivnosti s relevantnom vještinom vođenja, c) njezino pridržavanje konstruktivističkim pedagoškim principima. Rubrika je imala pet stupnjeva [1: nije prikladno (1,00 – 1,80), 2: manje prikladno (1,81 – 2,60), 3; umjereno (2,61 – 3,40), 4: značajno (3,41 – 4,20) i 5: izvrsno (4,21 – 5,00)]. Sadržaj su neovisno ocjenjivali stručnjaci s doktoratom iz obrazovnih znanosti. Izračunata je i korištena prosječna ocjena njihovih bodova kako bi se predstavila kvaliteta nastavnih aktivnosti.

Provedena je eksplorativna faktorska analiza (EFA) kako bi se provjerila strukturalna valjanost. Isključene su stavke koje ne zadovoljavaju kriterije: minimalno faktorsko opterećenje za jedan faktor mora biti manje od $|\cdot 30|$, a između dva faktora mora biti veće od $|\cdot 10|$. EFA je pokazala da je 20 od 24 stavke strukturirano u šest faktorskih grupa koje objašnjavaju 72,2 % ukupne varijance (vlastita vrijednost veća od 1). Faktorska opterećenja stavki su bila između $|\cdot 54|$ i $|\cdot 89|$. EFA je osim već spomenutih dimenzija (orijentiranost prema cilju, donošenje odluka, preuzimanje odgovornosti, ustrajnost, suprotstavljanje neodlučnosti, samopoštovanje) identificirala i dodatnu dimenziju - poučavanje vještine vođenja (TL). Analizom korelacija između faktorskih dimenzija pomoću Pearsonova koeficijenta korelacije (r) predložen je teorijski model zasnovan na korelacijskoj mreži. Teorijski model testiran je pomoću kovarijantno-baziranoga modela strukturalnih jednadžbi (CB SEM). Ova vrsta SEM-a „pruža statistiku prilagođenu modelu i poželjnija je za testiranje naprednijih modela” (Yin i Huang, 2021). Analiza SEM-a provedena je pomoću IBM SPSS AMOS 24. Za evaluaciju pokazatelja prilagođenosti u obzir su uzeti sljedeći kriteriji: u velikim uzorcima ($N \geq 300$) ocjene pokazatelja prilagođenosti su $\chi^2/sd \leq 0,3$ - savršena prilagođenost, $\chi^2/sd \leq 0,5$ - dobra prilagođenost, $RMSEA \leq 0,03$ - savršena prilagođenost, $RMSEA \leq 0,07$ - dobra prilagođenost. Nadalje, vrijednosti NNFI, CFI, GFI, AGFI i TLI veće od 0,95 impliciraju savršeno prilagođavanje, dok vrijednosti veće od 0,90 znače dobro prilagođavanje (Tabachnick i Fidell, 2013, str. 725).

Valjanost i pouzdanost

Provjerljivost i konzistentnost kvalitativnoga aspekta istraživanja zadovoljeni su uzimanjem u obzir hermeneutičko-konstruktivističku paradigmu. Uključivanje stručnih mišljenja, pokusnoga istraživanja, raznolikost ispitanika i prikupljanje kvantitativnih i kvalitativnih podataka predstavljaju odgovor na potrebe za valjanošću i pouzdanošću (Creswell i Plano Clark, 2018; Merriam i Tisdell, 2016). Valjanost sadržaja zadovoljena je uzimanjem mišljenja stručnjaka s doktoratom iz obrazovnih znanosti. Provedba pokusnoga istraživanja doprinijela je zadovoljenju pouzdanosti. EFA (eksplorativna faktorska analiza) korištena je za valjanost konstrukta. Tijekom

kvantifikacije, stručnjaci s terena neovisno su ocjenjivali. Osim toga, ovo istraživanje proveli su istraživači koji su imali iskustva kao nastavnici, inspektori i rukovoditelji. Stoga, njihovo multidimenzionalno stručno znanje također ide u prilog valjanosti istraživanja (Merriam i Tisdell, 2016, str. 18). Držanje etičkih principa, kao pravnoga zahtjeva, potvrdio je Odbor za etička pravila u znanstvenom istraživanju s ljudima Sveučilišta u Aksaray u odlukom br. 2021/06-07.

Rezultati

Kvantitativni i kvalitativni rezultati prikazani su simultano prateći istraživačka pitanja.

Do koje mjere učitelji stječu vještine samovođenja?

Tablica 1 prikazuje kvantitativne rezultate stjecanja vještina vođenja. Kako bismo vizualizirali promjenu u deskriptivnim rezultatima, generirali smo i grafikone prikazane na Slici 1. Rezultati pokazuju da nastavnici imaju tendenciju da im mentalna priprema ($\bar{x}=4,13$, $S = .82$) predstavlja veću poteškoću od primjene ($\bar{x}=3,53$, $S = .94$). Percepcija nastavnika o izvođenju radnji SL značajno se mijenja s obzirom na vještine vođenja. Najviša relativna učinkovitost uočena je kod donošenja odluka ($\bar{x}=4,02$, $S = .78$). Najniža razina učestalosti zabilježena je kod suočavanja s neodlučnošću ($\bar{x}=3,22$, $S = 1,10$). Učitelji su izjavili da često ($\bar{x}=3,80$, $S = .88$) izvode aktivnosti SL-a. Ovi rezultati odgovaraju na prvo istraživačko pitanje: učitelji su procijenili da često izvode aktivnosti samovođenja.

Tablica 1

Slika 1

Do koje mjere nastavnici osposobljuju učenike za vještine vođenja?

Percepcija nastavnika o razini učestalosti TL-a ($\bar{x}=3,47$, $S = .94$) niža je od njihove percepcije o razini učestalosti SL-a ($\bar{x}=3,80$, $S = .88$). Vještina vođenja kod koje se nastavnici osjećaju najnekompetentnijima jest suočavanje s neodlučnošću ($\bar{x}=2,87$, $S = 1,18$). Najviša razina njihove percepcije bila je osposobljavanje učenika za postavljanje ciljeva ($\bar{x}=3,76$, $S = .84$). Najveća razlika (0,51) između TSL-a i TL-a uočena je u donošenju odluka. Najmanja razlika (0,22) uočena je u postavljanju ciljeva. Ovi rezultati odgovaraju na drugo istraživačko pitanje: Unatoč nižoj ocjeni od one kod TSL-a, nastavnici često poučavaju vještine vođenja.

Kakve aktivnosti nastavnici provode kako bi poučili učenike vještinama vođenja?

Tablica 2 prikazuje sadržaj i učestalost nastavnih aktivnosti za različite vještine vođenja. Gotovo 34 % ispitanika nije prijavilo nikakve aktivnosti za poučavanje vještina vođenja. Najčešći razlozi su „nismo osposobljeni”, „naši uvjeti to ne dopuštaju”, „to su vještine za odrasle” i „to bi trebalo biti u nadležnosti školske službe za profesionalnu orijentaciju”. Neki su ispitanici napisali da učenici stječu ove vještine izvan školskoga

okružja bez određenih nastavnih aktivnosti. Također su se osvrnuli na ulogu roditelja u osposobljavanju učenika ovim vještinama.

Gotovo četvrtina (N = 162) ispitanika prijavila je sljedeće aktivnosti: davanje primjera iz vlastitoga života i savjetovanje, gledanje videozapisa o iskustvima poznatih osoba i pozivanje ljudi da u školama održe govore. Nastavnica viših razreda osnovne škole rekla izjavila je: „Za motivaciju sam govorila o važnosti toga i činilo se da ih je to poticalo, ali nakon nekog vremena ponašali su se kao da nismo ni razgovarali o tome.”

Neki su učitelji povjerali zadatke i zaduženja učenicima, a njih 48 je zadavalo zadatke bez obzira na učenikov izbor i obvezalo ih na njihovo izvršenje. Na primjer, jedan je nastavnik izjavio: „Prvo im pokažem ciljeve i obećam nagrade. Povratne informacije su pohvalne.”

Nastavnici su uglavnom govorili o važnosti ovih vještina ne nazivajući ih vještinama vođenja i očekivali su od učenika da djeluju prema tome. Međutim, nisu pratili proces i nisu davali povratne informacije o tome jesu li učenici uspjeli i napredovali.

Neki su nastavnici naveli aktivnosti poput sajмова znanosti, školskih projekata financiranih od strane međunarodnih institucija poput ERASMUS+, terenskih posjeta, natjecanja iz znanosti te svečanosti, proslava itd. Malo je ispitanika pokušalo usmjeriti učenike na praktične primjene određivanjem istraživačkih zadataka ili timskih projekata. Na primjer, jedan je ispitanik to ovako objasnio: „Definiram problem i usmjeravam svoje učenike da istražuju u skupinama. Tražim da podijele ono što su naučili s drugima i donesu odluku i riješe nedoumicu.”

Uz to, ohrabivali su učenike da dobrovoljno preuzmu zadatke te su nagrađivali one koji su odgovorno izvršili zadatak. Neki ispitanici su vrlo često koristili ovu strategiju u svakodnevnoj rutini razrednih zaduženja. Malo je nastavnika provodilo aktivnosti koje omogućavaju učenicima da steknu vještine vođenja. Gledano po pojedinačnim vještinama vođenja, najučinkovitije aktivnosti provedene su za aspekt samopoštovanja.

Tablica 2

Kakva su iskustva učitelja u poučavanju učenika vještinama vođenja?

Odgovori nastavnika prikupljeni tijekom intervjua potvrdili su rezultate ankete. Usporedili smo prosječne rezultate obaju istraživanja (ankete i intervjua) prema stavkama. Cohenove d analize ne upućuju na značajne razlike (0,00 – 0,20). Kod samo dvije stavke ustanovili smo srednje velike razlike (0,51 – 0,80). Također smo usporedili odgovore nastavnika u vezi s vrstom nastavnih aktivnosti. Iznenađujuće, nastavne aktivnosti bile su vrlo slične onima iz glavnoga istraživanja (npr. govorenje o važnosti vještina vođenja, davanje manjih odgovornosti uglavnom u obliku zadaća kod kuće, rješavanje matematičkih zadataka za pripremu za ispite, zadavanje zadataka na svečanostima, projektima itd.). Ispitanici su objasnili da nisu provodili nikakve aktivnosti za suočavanje s neodlučnošću, kao što je to bilo u anketi. U tom kontekstu, gospodin Omer (36 godina, nastavnik engleskoga jezika) izjavio je sljedeće: „Slijedimo

udžbenike i provodimo aktivnosti definirane u njima. Većina nas se fokusira na aktivnosti direktno povezane s predmetom. Ne znamo ima li u kurikulumu specifičnih ciljeva vezanih za vještine vođenja.”

Gospođa Aslı (42 godine, nastavnica matematike) objasnila je da se ovakva vrsta znanja ili vještina ne traži na ispitima. To je prepušteno izboru nastavnika. Gospodin Fevzi (47 godina, razredni učitelj) podsjetio je na dio o ponašanju u izvješćima osnovnih škola koji uključuje neke od vještina vođenja i izjavio: „To nisu kurikulske stvari, već ponašanja.” Ispitanici su također pitali o razlozima zbog kojih nastaju razlike između kurikula i nastavne prakse. Njihovi se odgovori mogu sažeti ovako: a) zanemarivanje kurikula jer je nepraktičan, b) poučavanje prema udžbenicima i nastojanje da se dovrše vrlo intenzivne teme, c) gledanje na vještine kao što su donošenje odluka, inicijativa i suočavanje s neodlučnošću kao na odgovornost službe za profesionalnu orijentaciju, izvan njihova vlastitog apodručja rada.

Jesu li aktivnosti koje nastavnici provode dovoljno učinkovite za osposobljavanje učenika vještinama vođenja?

Tablica 2 prikazuje razinu učinkovitosti nastavnih aktivnosti. Opći prosjek je vrlo nizak (0,34, maks = 1). Najnižu prosječnu vrijednost (0,20) zabilježili smo za postavljanje ciljeva (G), a najvišu (0,53) za samopoštovanje (C). Nastavnici su često spominjali opću strategiju za poučavanje samopoštovanja, pri čemu najprije daju jednostavne zadatke i postupno povećavaju razinu težine zadatka. Tako se učenici osjećaju uspješnima.

Aktivnosti poučavanja aspekta suočavanje s neodlučnošću (U) i ustrajnosti (P) pojedinačno imaju niske prosjeke od 0,30 i 0,32. Analiza sadržaja također je identificirala razumijevanje nastavnika vezano za vještine vođenja. Jedan je ispitanik (oznaka 1) objasnio: „Mrzim neodlučnost pa se u takvoj situaciji suzdržavam od preuzimanja bilo kojeg zadatka i ne bodrim nikoga da to učini.” Drugi je ispitanik izjavio da kako bi učenicima omogućio uočiti važnost ustrajnosti, ponavlja isti ispit sve dok svi učenici ne budu uspješni.

Analiza sadržaja pokazala je da nastavnici pod vještinama vođenja podrazumijevaju planiranje karijere, pripremu za važne ispite ili planiranje budućnosti. Nastavnici pretpostavljaju da te vještine poučavaju davanjem informacija, razgovorom i savjetovanjem o tome, opisujući određeni posao ili koristeći dramske metode.

Rezultati ukazuju na neučinkovitost u poučavanju vještina vođenja. Iako nastavnici smatraju da poučavaju vještine vođenja, njihove nastavne aktivnosti nisu učinkovite. Analiza veličine učinka (Cohenov d) potvrdila je ovu nedosljednost za sve vještine vođenja. Najveću nedosljednost izračunali smo za U ($d = 3,95$, $p = 0,000$), a najmanju za R ($d = 2,92$, $p = 0,000$). Dosljednost između rezultata ankete i intervjua potvrdila je valjanost rezultata. Ovisno o potvrdi glavnoga istraživanja, krenuli smo u potragu za strukturnim modelom.

Ima li TL putem TSL-a interakcijsku strukturu?

Prvo je provedena EFA za reduciranje čestica unutar šest faktorskih skupina koje su sadržavale 20 varijabli i koje obuhvaćaju stavke TSL i TL. Ukupna objašnjena varijanca iznosila je 0,72 a KMO = 0,89 ($p = 0,000$). Na temelju sadržaja, faktori su nazvani prema sljedećem:

- F₁: suočavanje s neodlučnošću-U (U₁, U₂, U₃, U₄),
- F₂: donošenje odluka-D (D₁, D₂, D₃),
- F₃: orijentiranost na cilj-G (G₁, G₂, G₃),
- F₄: preuzimanje odgovornosti-R (R₁, R₂, R₃)
- F₅: samopouzdanje-C (C₁, C₂, C₃),
- F₆: poučavanje vještina vođenja-TL (P₄, D₄, R₄, G₄)

Iako je *ustrajnost* (stremljenje prema ostvarenju ciljeva unatoč poteškoćama) bila dio teorijske strukture koju je predložio Manz (1986), EFA je pokazala da ima visoka faktorska opterećenja na različitim faktorima. Nije se radilo o odvojenoj strukturi i tretirana je kao opći stav unutar drugih faktora. Također, samopoštovanje se pojavilo u TSL-u, ali nije bilo prisutno u nastavnom procesu. Dakle, činilo se da se radi o osobnom obilježju koje je posljedica unaprjeđenja drugih vještina vođenja.

Korelacije između faktorskih struktura analizirane su pomoću Pearsonova koeficijenta korelacije (r) (bivarijantna analiza). Tablica 3 pokazuje da postoje značajne pozitivne i srednje jake relacije. Najjače korelacije imaju R i TL ($0,43 \leq r \leq 0,55$, $p \leq 0,01$). Usporedno s tim, U ima najslabiju korelaciju. Preuzimanje odgovornosti (R) ključna je vještina u ovoj relacijskoj mreži.

Tablica 3

Uzevši u obzir korelacije između vještina vođenja, najprije smo generirali relacijsku mrežu, a zatim smo postavili hipotezu o teorijskom modelu koji predlaže interakcije u opremanju učenika vještinama vođenja kroz poboljšanje TSL-a. U ovom teorijskom modelu (Slika 2) pretpostavili smo direktne i indirektne učinke na poučavanje vještina vođenja (TL). Nadalje smo pretpostavili da R (preuzimanje odgovornosti) ima izravne učinke na D (donošenje odluka), G (ciljna orijentiranost), U (suočavanje s neodlučnošću), C (samopoštovanje) i TL.

Slika 2

Nakon potvrde svakog modela mjerenja, provedena je SEM analiza bazirana na kovarijanci s tehnikom procjene maksimalne vjerojatnosti kako bi se potvrdili očekivani odnosi prikazani na Slici 2. Multivarijantna normalnost provjerena je Mahalanobisovim udaljenostima. Budući da je najveća vrijednost (84,14) manja od χ^2 (538,8) (Tabachnick i Fidell, 2013, str. 99), pretpostavili smo da su podatci normalno distribuirani. SEM analize provedene su s podacima od 610 nastavnika. U ispitanom modelu bilo je 20 promatranih endogenih varijabli, šest nepromatranih endogenih

varijabli i 26 reziduala. Kako bismo razvili model s boljim prilagođavanjem, proveli smo dvije modifikacije. Nakon modifikacija, model (Slika 3) značajno je poboljšana.

Za procjenu prilagođenosti modela skupu podataka koristili smo najčešće korištene kriterije statistike valjanosti podudaranja koje preporučuju Tabachnick i Fidell (2013, str. 725). Standardizirane procjene su pokazale da su a) korelacije (r) između podvještina vođenja manje od 0,85, a t vrijednosti su značajne, b) $\chi^2 = 538,829$, $df = 157$, $\chi^2/df = 3,43$ ($p = .000$), c) RMSEA = .063, d) CFI = .938, e) NFI = .915, TLI = .925.

Uz to, sve vrijednosti kritičnoga omjera (CR) su značajne jer su veće od 1,96 ($p < .05$), što znači da su „procjene parametara normalno distribuirane i to je ispravno samo u velikim uzorcima” (Arbuckle, 2016, str. 31). Ovi rezultati potvrđuju dobru prilagodbu modela skupu podataka.

Tablica 4 prikazuje regresijske težine i standardizirane ukupne učinke. Budući da su sve regresijske težine značajne na razini od 0,05, možemo tvrditi da TSL ima značajno pozitivan utjecaj na TL (poučavanje vještina vođenja). Utjecaj TSL-a na TL mijenja se kroz vještine vođenja. Vještina vođenja na koju TSL ima najveći utjecaj (.36, $p \leq .001$) na TL je preuzimanje odgovornosti (R). Međutim, TSL relativno malo predviđa TL (.13, $p \geq .001$) orijentiranost prema orijentiranost (G). TSL relativno bolje predviđa TL za donošenje odluka (D) (.28, $p \leq .001$) i suočavanje s neodlučnošću (U) (.19, $p \leq .001$). Standardizirani rezultati ukupnoga učinka pokazuju da je vještina vođenja s najvećim ukupnim učinkom TSL-a na TL preuzimanje odgovornosti (.68, $R^2 = .47$). To znači da TSL objašnjava 47 % bilo koje promjene od jedne jedinice u TL-u za preuzimanje odgovornosti. Za donošenje odluka to je 13 %, za suočavanje s neodlučnošću 4 %, a za postavljanje ciljeva 2 %.

Tablica 4

Model je također prikazao neizravne **učinke**. **Povećano R od TSL-a** predvidjelo je veće D od TSL-a, što je predvidjelo veće G od TSL-a, što je na kraju predvidjelo veće TL. Povećano D od TSL-a predvidjelo je najprije veće C od TSL-a, što je predvidjelo veće U od TSL-a, a zatim i veće TL. Na temelju sljedećih strukturnih jednadžbi (1), 62 % varijance TL-a čine vještine R, D, G i U iz TSL-a.

$$TL = 0,19U + 0,28D + 0,13G + 0,36R, \text{ pogreška} = 0,38, R^2 = 0,62 \text{ (1)}$$

Dakle, iskustvo i stjecanje TSL-a, za vještine R, D, U i G, pozitivno utječu na TL.

Slika 3

Rasprava

Ovim istraživanjem, provedenim kombiniranim metodama, proučavan je odraz iskustva nastavnika u vođenju na poučavanje učenika vještinama vođenja. Unatoč mišljenju učitelja da često demonstriraju vještinu samovođenja i poučavaju učenike vještinama samovođenja, njihove nastavne aktivnosti nisu učinkovite u poučavanju učenika tim vještinama. Najčešće prepreke su razdvojenost između kurikula, nastave i vrednovanja, nedostatak osposobljavanja koja uključuje učinkovite metode poučavanja

i nedostatak svjesnosti nastavnika o važnosti vještina vođenja. Na temelju sintetiziranih rezultata i korelacija između vještina vođenja, postavili smo hipotezu o modelu koji podrazumijeva interakciju između iskustava nastavnika u samovođenju (TSL) i poučavanja učenika vještinama vođenja (TL). Testiranje ovoga modela dovelo je do tri praktična rezultata: a) TSL ima značajan pozitivan i umjeren učinak na TL. b) Najvažnija vještina u poučavanju vještina vođenja jest preuzimanje odgovornosti. c) Postoje značajni pozitivni učinci među vještinama vođenja.

Postoje neke razlike između sadašnjega modela i originalnoga modela samovođenja. Manzov izvorni model (1986.) sugerirao je da se ciljevi moraju prvo postaviti kao standardi i provesti u praksu. Bez obzira na poteškoće ili neuspjehe, treba inzistirati na njihovoj provedbi. Umjesto postavljanja ciljeva, proces vođenja u sadašnjem modelu započinje preuzimanjem odgovornosti. Osim sekvencijalnoga rada, još jedna značajna razlika jest interakcija između vještina vođenja. Prema trenutačnom modelu, možemo pretpostaviti da bi osoba koja naiđe na problem trebala preuzeti odgovornost vezanu za rješenje problema, zatim provesti proces donošenja odluke i na kraju eliminirati neodlučnost. Nakon donošenja odluke, ona tada postavlja ciljeve i s obzirom na njih pokreće aktivnosti.

Iako učenici u osnovnoj školi imaju visok potencijal za vođenje (Öz i Baloğlu, 2020; Uslu i Aslan, 2020), nedostaje im odgovarajuće obrazovanje u tom području (Elmuti i sur., 2005; Kim, 2009; Košar i sur., 2017; Kouzes i Posner, 2018; Öz i Baloğlu, 2020). Ovo je istraživanje potvrdilo rezultate ranijih istraživanja o važnosti vježbe u obrazovanju vođenja (Elmuti i sur., 2005; Bolam, 2004; Bush, 2008; Eckert i Daughtrey, 2019; Kearns, 2019). Istraživanje pokazuje da su neučinkovite nastavne aktivnosti jedna od glavnih prepreka unaprjeđivanju obrazovanja o vođenju. Savjetovanje djece, pričanje o osobnim životnim iskustvima ili motiviranje za pripremu za važne ispite nisu relevantni za poučavanje vođenju. Umjesto toga, strategije poučavanja usmjerene na učenike podržavaju njihovo eksperimentalno učenje (Hardie i sur., 2022; Hattie, 2012; Marzano, 2007; Smylie i Eckert, 2018). Na primjer, uvođenje stvarnoga problema u aktivnost projektnoga učenja potaknulo bi učenike na preuzimanje odgovornosti, donošenje odluke o boljem načinu rješavanja problema, suradnju i sudjelovanje u raspravama. Tijekom procesa, učitelji bi trebali promatrati, ohrabrivati i surađivati s učenicima. Štoviše, takve aktivnosti su vježbe koje se mogu primijeniti u svakom predmetu (Haug i Mork, 2021; Lauer mann, 2017). Međutim, kvalitativni rezultati ovoga istraživanja ukazuju na neke kontekstualne prepreke u provođenju eksperimentalnoga učenja učenika. U sustavu orijentiranom na ispite, poučavanje osnovnih predmeta ne ostavlja prostor za poučavanje međupredmetnih vještina poput vođenja. Kako su istaknuli Gerstenschlager i Barlow (2019.), učitelji ili nisu svjesni ili pogrešno shvaćaju međupredmetne vještine poput vođenja.

Još jedno kontekstualno pitanje povezano je s centraliziranim sustavom s ograničenom autonomijom škola, što ograničava provedbu vođenja od strane nastavnika i učenika. Stil organizacije i rada obrazovnih sustava, razina autonomije škola, školska sredina,

uloga nastavnika u upravljanju školom i profesionalne kompetencije nastavnika mogu utjecati na vođenje u školskom okruženju (Bush, 2008; Eckert i Daughtrey, 2019; Gumus i sur., 2018; Hallinger, 2018; Smylie i Eckert, 2018; Szeto, 2020; Viennet i Pont, 2017; Woodhouse i Pedder, 2017; Yıldırım i Yenipınar, 2021). Budući da učenici ne mogu promatrati načine vođenja i provedbu vođenja, čak i ako imaju potencijala, njihove tendencije prema vođenju slabe s vremenom (Oz i Baloglu, 2020).

S druge strane, možemo pretpostaviti da je relativno pozitivno školsko okruženje možda toleriralo negativni utjecaj organizacijske strukture. Pozitivno okruženje i aktivnosti vezane za posao možda su podržale njihovo visoko percepcijsko razumijevanje vještina vođenja poput preuzimanja odgovornosti, donošenja odluka i samopoštovanja. Međutim, nastavnici imaju problem prenijeti svoju mentalnu pripremu u praksu. Uz to, problem postaje uočljiviji u fazi nastave. Štoviše, njihove nastavne aktivnosti daleko su od toga da učenici steknu ove vještine. Ovaj je rezultat u skladu s rezultatima ranijih istraživanja koja ukazuju na nedostatak odgovarajuće nastave vještina vođenja (Elmuti i sur., 2005; Gerstenschlager i Barlow, 2019; Hardie i sur., 2022; Haug i Mork, 2021; Koşar i sur., 2017; Lauerermann, 2017).

Ovo istraživanje identificiralo je preuzimanje odgovornosti kao ključnu vještinu vođenja. To je u skladu s nekim ranijim istraživanjima (Connolly i sur., 2019; Özdemir i sur., 2020; Voegtlin, 2016; Webber i Nickel, 2021). Na primjer, Voegtlin (2016) definira preuzimanje odgovornosti kao glavnu karakteristiku vođenja. To je jedan od značajnih prediktora ponašanja vođenja u upravljanju (Ozdemir i sur., 2020). Također to je temeljna vještina i okosnica vještina učenja za 21. stoljeće uključujući kreativnost i poduzetništvo (UNESCO, 2017; Webber i Nickel, 2021). To razlikuje vođenje od upravljanja. Menadžerima se daje odgovornost, ali vođe preuzimaju odgovornost (Connolly i sur., 2019). Ako netko preuzme odgovornost za suočavanje s problemom umjesto bježanja, tada pokazuje potencijal za vođenje (Voegtlin, 2016). Preuzimanje odgovornosti izravno utječe na druge vještine vođenja (donošenje odluka, suočavanje s neodlučnošću, samopoštovanje) i na poučavanje učenika vještinama vođenja (TL). Čini se da preuzimanje odgovornosti pokreće nastavnike da donose odluke i suoče se s neodlučnošću. Ranija istraživanja govore o povezanosti između suočavanja s neodlučnošću i inovacijama, poduzetništvom i promjenama (Bush, 2008; Hallinger, 2018). Ustručavanje ili bježanje od neodlučnosti znak je niske razine potencijala za vođenje (Yenipınar i sur., 2020).

Zaključak

Na kraju istraživanja zaključili smo da TSL (iskustva samovođenja) pozitivno utječe na TL (poučavanje vještina vođenja). Stoga smo proširili Manzovu teoriju samovođenja (1986) u drugačijem kontekstu. Iskustva nastavnika u samovođenju pozitivno se odražavaju na poučavanje učenika vještinama vođenja, a taj proces poboljšava vodstvo nastavnika. Tako se unaprjeđuje obrazovanje o vođenju. Stoga je ovo istraživanje potvrdilo važnost vodstva nastavnika u razvoju škole. Istraživanje je

također pokazalo ključnu ulogu nastavnih aktivnosti u osposobljavanju učenika za vještine vođenja. Zbog nedostatka sustavnih mehanizama, čini se da se obrazovanje o vođenju u formalnim osnovnim školama prepušta samo izboru i svijesti nastavnika.

Ograničenja i prednosti

Zbog složene strukture vođenja, mjerenje ovoga pojma samo kroz nekoliko indikativnih vještina (orijentiranost prema cilju, donošenje odluka, preuzimanje odgovornosti, ustrajnost, suočavanje s neodlučnošću, samopoštovanje) ograničava eksternu valjanost samoga istraživanja. Nadalje, uzeli smo u obzir samo stavove i iskustva nastavnika. Pored učiteljskoga aspekta, promatranje fenomena iz perspektive učenika i uprave škole moglo bi promijeniti rezultate istraživanja. Štoviše, ovo je istraživanje provedeno u kontekstu nepovoljnih uvjeta za iskazivanje ponašanja vođenja. Različite kontekstualne uvjetovanosti mogle bi dati različite rezultate. Drugo ograničenje povezano je s pandemijom COVID-19 koja je prekinula izvođenje nastave u učionicama.

Unatoč ograničenjima, ovo istraživanje ponudilo je model koji ukazuje kako se vještine vođenja mogu poučavati: osviještenost nastavnika, odgovarajuće nastavne aktivnosti i sistemski mehanizmi između kurikula, poučavanja i vrednovanja.

Implementacija

Bez dobro osmišljenih pedagoških aktivnosti, aspekti vođenja kod učenika bit će ograničeni. Stoga je potrebo nastavnike osvijestiti o važnosti vještina vođenja i ponuditi im profesionalnu podršku u stvaranju i provođenju nastavnih aktivnosti usmjerenih na učenike, a koje se bave razvijanjem vještina vođenja (Gerstenschlager i Barlow, 2019; Grigoropoulos, 2020; Haug i Mork, 2021). Budući da obrazovanje o vođenju podrazumijeva školske aktivnosti povezane sa stvarnim životom, potrebno je uspostaviti relevantnu sistemsku infrastrukturu.

Autori napominju da nemaju sukoba interesa koje bi trebalo prijaviti.