

Review Article

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Author for correspondence:

Ali Faruk Yaylacı

✉ alfay06@yahoo.com

✉ Faculty of Education, Kutahya Dumlupınar University, Türkiye



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School Citizenship, Definition and Types: A Conceptualization in the Context of Organizational Citizenship System

Ali Faruk Yaylacı

Abstract

Background/purpose. In the field of educational management, different approaches and models have been developed to improve the success and quality of educational organizations. However, there is still a need for approaches that are appropriate to the unique characteristics of educational organizations. The concept of “organizational citizenship,” inspired by the relationship between the state and the citizen, can make important contributions to this need.

Materials/methods. This paper, which is a theoretical and conceptual discussion aims to outline the concept of school citizenship, thus offering a proposal for a new approach in the field of educational administration based on the organizational citizenship system. It also aims to define school citizenship, types of school citizens, and the school citizenship contract within this context. Adopting organizational citizenship as a central concept, this analysis is expected to contribute to the creation of a meaningful ground for the restructuring of the school as an educational institution.

Results. This paper attempts to draw the general framework of school citizenship on the basis of organizational citizenship understanding, in which school citizenship is defined, its different types explained, and the general characteristics and stages of the school citizenship contract are discussed. This paper also aims to outline school citizenship based on the organizational citizenship system, with school citizenship types defined and the school citizenship contract emphasized.

1. Introduction

Discussions are ongoing in the context of many factors, such as the success of the educational process, the quality of schools, the job satisfaction of teachers, and the satisfaction of students and parents. There are many approaches to defining, measuring, and improving school quality; however, these efforts are largely shaped under the influence of the neoliberal understanding of education, which is becoming increasingly dominant. This has very negative consequences for the nature and human dimensions of education. This process ultimately leads to the transformation of the meaning of schools, which are regarded as businesses, into something that can be determined by quantified performance criteria. Administrators, teachers, and students become passive agents who are required to meet certain performance targets. At the same time, this performance-oriented approach based on a business perspective leads to a neglect of the sociopolitical characteristics of schools. One of the academic consequences of this tendency is that the sociopolitical structure and functioning of educational organizations, and the power and politics in schools, have been relatively neglected in the literature. This is easily identified when looking at the topics of educational research in general. Moreover, as stressed by Graham and Van Dyne (2006), political behaviors in the workplace are often underestimated as activities that hinder the effective pursuit of organizational goals. Against this backdrop, it can be argued that the organizational citizenship system has the potential to be a healthy approach that is compatible with the nature and human dimensions of education and that takes into account the sociopolitical characteristics of the school.

The organizational citizenship system (Yaylacı, 2004, 2011, 2015, 2016b) has been tried to be developed based on Organ's (1988) conceptualization of organizational citizenship behaviors and Graham's approach based on political philosophy. According to Organ's (1988) classical definition, organizational citizenship behaviors refer to behaviors that are not rewarded under the formal reward system of the organization, are voluntary, are not included in the role definitions of employees, but contribute to the effectiveness of the organization (Graham & Van Dyne, 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Later on, Graham's (1986, 1991, as cited in Yaylacı, 2016b) approach in the context of political philosophy added the dimension of civic virtue, which expresses responsible participation in organizational life, to organizational citizenship behaviors that mostly reflect compliance and sacrifice for the organization (Graham, 1995; Graham & Van Dyne, 2006). Podsakoff et al. (2000) found that seven organizational citizenship behaviors are generally defined in the relevant literature; helping behavior, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue, and personal growth. In the development process of organizational citizenship behaviors, Graham's addition of the political dimension to these behaviors, his suggestion that the views in philosophy and political sciences should be associated with organizational citizenship behaviors, and his advocacy that they can be used to define citizenship rights and responsibilities in the organizational context (Graham, 1986, 1991, as cited in Yaylacı, 2016b) are the starting points of the organizational citizenship system. In the organizational citizenship system, educational organizations are defined as "quasi-states" in the nature of "political community-police," and this quality also shapes the political functions of the members of the organization (Yaylacı, 2015).

The research on organizational citizenship behavior has mostly focused on the altruistic behaviors of individuals and their beneficial organizational outcomes. Although civic virtue and participation have been taken into consideration, the idea of contributing to organizational goals through citizen altruism has been more effective than a citizenship understanding arising from the philosophical heritage of civil citizenship. In this context, organizational citizenship tends to develop an understanding that considers the sociopolitical characteristics of the school as an educational organization and is as far as possible from business-oriented perspectives (Yaylacı, 2015, 2016b).

Although the organizational citizenship approach originates from the understanding of organizational citizenship behaviors, it aims to create a unique framework by including the intellectual heritage in the field of civic citizenship. Although a considerable amount of research has been conducted on organizational citizenship behaviors, studies on the philosophical background of these behaviors and the understanding of organizational citizenship are significantly lacking. A limited number of theoretical studies and a few applied studies have been conducted on the organizational citizenship system or organizational citizenship understanding (Yaylacı, 2004, 2011, 2015, 2016b). Within this context, this paper first of all attempts to draw the general framework of school citizenship on the basis of organizational citizenship understanding, defining school citizenship, explaining school citizenship types in terms of status and quality, and discussing the general characteristics and stages of the school citizenship contract. Although the organizational citizenship system and the school citizenship based upon it envisage a framework that can be adapted to all types of educational organization, this paper mainly discusses the case of primary and secondary schools.

2. Theoretical Background and Conceptualization

2.1. School Citizenship

Educational organizations today increasingly reflect the influence of neoliberalism. As Biesta (2015) quite rightly argued, this shifts the quest for education into a technical and competitive context rather than normative questions about what constitutes good education. Turning the student into a customer and working on the assumption that education should do what the customer wants serves as a distortion of what education is really about. This distortion of the authentic functions of teachers and schools leads to the transformation of educational organizations into shops (Biesta, 2015). The school citizenship approach aims to offer a meaningful alternative in order to overcome the drawbacks caused by the positioning of individuals within schools as public servants providing services and customers receiving services under the influence of neoliberal understandings dominant in education systems and school administrations.

Citizenship is related to behaviors between social groups that make up a political structure and is a relationship rather than a membership (Isin, 2009). In this framework, school citizenship refers to the legal and educational interaction between an educational organization and its members in the context of a general understanding of organizational citizenship. Just as states have citizens, schools have teachers, students, parents, and administrators, and just as states have candidate citizens, schools have candidate teachers. As members of the school community, these citizens have certain rights and responsibilities (Yaylacı, 2016b). School citizenship refers to the contractual social and political relationship between students, teachers, administrators, support staff, and families and the school, which regulates rights and responsibilities. The term “school citizen” refers to individuals who have a formal, relational bond with the school based on a set of mutual rights and responsibilities. Accordingly, school administrators, teachers, students, parents, and support staff constitute the citizens of the school. While school citizenship represents a common framework for these individuals, the nature of citizenship differs according to their positions and roles in the structure and functioning of the school or according to criteria such as being both a service receiver and a service provider. As Turner (2021) emphasized, citizenship provides individuals with a public identity that provides security against the inevitable troubles of life. School citizenship, in turn, provides individuals with an identity that ensures good educational service and a meaningful school experience. In this context, school citizenship refers to the contractual relationship between the members of the school, which is a political unit on the basis of the organizational citizenship system, and the school, which determines mutual rights and responsibilities, and the structure of the school is built based upon this relationship. According to the findings of a study by Yaylacı

(2016b) that examined the opinions of teachers and parents regarding their rights and responsibilities, rights at school are classified into civic, social, and political dimensions. The rights in the civic dimension were expressed in the themes of justice, ownership of the organization, and human relations. In the social dimension, rights were included in the themes of effective education, an appropriate working environment, organizational processes, and self-improvement opportunities. In the political dimension, rights were included in the themes of participation, compliance, autonomy, and accountability. These rights should also be seen as the responsibilities of the school (Yaylacı, 2016b).

The nature of school citizenship is shaped by certain factors. First of all, the bureaucratic structure of the school and the legal legislation draw the general framework of school citizenship. In addition, the prevailing paradigms and understandings about political citizenship, education and school in society shape school citizenship. At the same time, the expectations of individuals who are citizens from the school also affect citizenship. The ideal characteristics of education and school in a universal sense also provide a principled framework for school citizenship. In this context, the main elements shaping school citizenship (see Figure 1) can be expressed as the dominant educational paradigm in society, the dominant administrative paradigm, the dominant citizenship paradigm in the country, the expectations of the parties from education and school, the qualities of education in the ideal sense, and the legal legislation related to education.

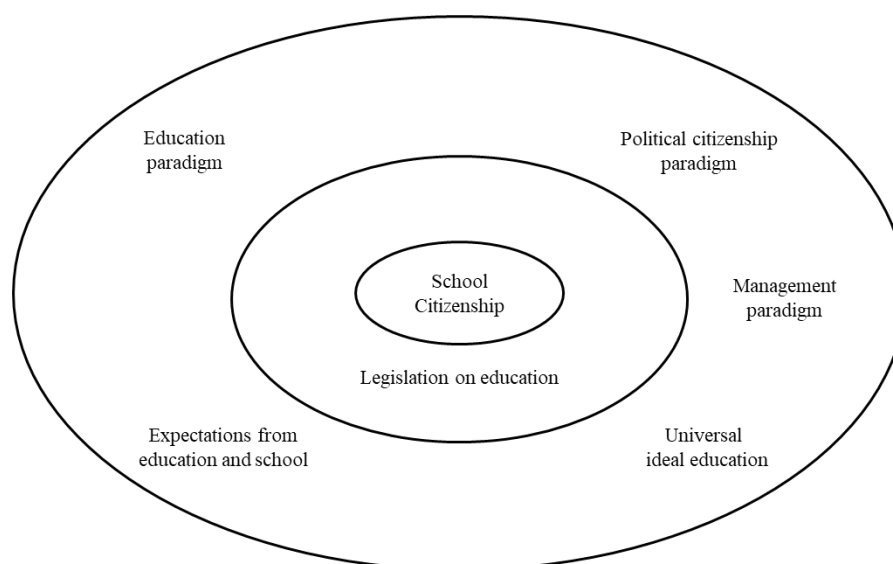


Figure 1. Key elements shaping school citizenship

The dominant political citizenship paradigm as an essential element of school citizenship

The structure, functioning, and disciplinary practices in schools reflect dominant social structures and norms and transmit them to students (Ağın, 2006). At the same time, in order to better understand the norms and practices of citizenship, it is important to examine the role attributed to citizens in the political environment (Çakmaklı, 2023). Under this framework, in order to arrive at a definition of school citizenship, it is first necessary to look at the qualities of citizenship within a political context. As Hooghe et al. (2016) pointed out, the understanding of citizenship and the relationship between citizens and the political system have transformed dramatically in recent years. At the same time, the meaning of being a citizen varies according to different contexts (Davila, 2021), and the meaning of citizenship in modern societies is still far from being clear (Iija, 2011). Societies and countries each have their own paradigms of citizenship that are shaped by their specific historical and cultural conditions. In this context, the understanding of citizenship is shaped by cultural elements, political transformations, legal regulations, regime and governance changes, and international influences. The characteristics of “good citizens” are also shaped by

different dimensions such as views on rights and responsibilities, national and cosmopolitan values, and the possibilities and desires for active and passive participation (Çakmaklı, 2023).

Citizenship can basically be defined as a social status that confers membership in a political community (Turner, 2021). Citizenship is closely related to social conditions, human rights, social and cultural identities, beliefs, and belonging (Davila, 2021). It can be said that the common point between the meanings attributed to citizenship and the definitions of citizenship is the set of legal, social, and political rights and freedoms that the individual has as a member of a political authority (Çevik & Erçetin, 2023). The concept of norms of citizenship is rooted in normative expectations about how one relates to the political system (Hooghe et al., 2016). The origins of citizenship in relation to membership in a political unit can be traced back to Ancient Roman citizenship, which was based on the idea of absolute belonging as a full member of the Roman political community (Blanch Nougues, 2020) and Ancient Greece (Kartal, 2010). Membership to the political unit or community that provides citizenship takes different forms. In many countries, citizenship status is generally based on two basic forms derived from Greek and Roman law: blood (“jus sanguinis”) and land (“jus soli”), or residence and property (“jus domicile”) (Ho, 2016; Isin, 2009; Özkan, 2019). However, the understanding of citizenship has undergone radical transformation since the 18th century. With the emergence of new rights such as ecological and sexual rights and the development of new acts of citizenship, the understanding and practice of citizenship have undergone changes throughout the 20th century (Isin, 2009). In this context, norms of duty-based citizenship (with the emphasis being voting rights and obeying the law) have been replaced by norms of participatory citizenship (with an emphasis on self-expression and non-institutionalized forms of participation) (Hooghe et al., 2016). On the other hand, the profound changes in the understanding of citizenship, especially in the United States and the United Kingdom, that took place in the late 1970s with the neoliberal revolution (Turner, 2021) are important in this context. In this process, with the development of economic globalization and neoliberal strategies, a new model of passive citizenship has come into question in a structure where the state has withdrawn from its commitment to provide full employment and social security (Turner, 2021). In this direction, so to speak, educational organizations have also been in search of employees-citizens who embrace their organization under the threat of competition and changes in the market, and who sacrificially strive for efficiency and high performance, and understand that it is their duty to go beyond this (Yaylacı, 2021).

Indeed, citizenship concerns not only legal status, rights, and duties, since participation and recognition are also essential elements (Ilija, 2011). However, various societies have been influenced by understandings in which participation has been relatively neglected. The understanding of citizenship in Türkiye has certain characteristic features that are related to the social, political, and cultural background of the country. In a study that compared the concept of active citizenship based on political participation, participation in civil society, participation in protest, and participation in social institutions, Steenkamp and Louser (2016, as cited in Çakmaklı, 2023) reported that Türkiye ranked last among seven democratic countries. Research on the understanding of citizenship in Türkiye indicates that while the hierarchical and passive characteristics of duty-oriented citizenship remain dominant, since the 1990s, a more liberal, active practice-oriented, participation-oriented understanding has also developed (Çakmaklı, 2023). In general terms, it can be said that citizenship in Türkiye has ebbed and flowed along the axes of obedient, republican, liberal, and cosmopolitan citizenship (Çakmaklı, 2023). Due to citizenship in Türkiye being an example of social engineering constructed by the ruling elite from the top down, and at the same time, responsibilities rather than rights are emphasized within educational processes in Türkiye, it may be said that duty-oriented citizenship has developed rather than a focus on rights (Duman & Doğdu, 2010; Şahbudak & Ayan, 2011). According to the findings of a

study by Yaylacı (2016b) on the organizational citizenship system, participants who are members of the school community believe that being a member of that community brings with it certain rights and responsibilities that apply to all parties. Almost all of the participants in the study referred to citizenship and community rights, which generally focus on responsibilities and are shaped by position in the school, while ignoring political rights and participation (Yaylacı, 2016b). Similarly, it can be said that research on organizational citizenship behaviors reflects a very limited, conservative, and one-sided understanding of citizenship. Looking at the bigger picture reflected in the research, it can be seen that the most typical characteristic of “acceptable citizens” of educational organizations is that they exhibit organizational citizenship behaviors for the sake of organizational effectiveness. However, the literature has failed to emphasize rights and especially participation in the understanding of citizenship, and in the relationship between the organization and the citizen that enables the establishment of citizenship (Yaylacı, 2021).

The dominant management paradigm as an essential element of school citizenship

An important factor that is affective in shaping school citizenship is the paradigm of governance that prevails in a country and within its society. Here, both the political understanding of management and the understanding of management in education are influential. Educational administration in general, and school administration in particular, have been shaped under the influence of management theories developed for business since the early 20th century, although more recently the new public administration approach has been effective. Today, an economy-oriented, neoliberal management mentality is also decisive in the context of schools.

The traditional management paradigm, which evolved with the emergence of management science, was characterized by an inward-focused approach with special emphasis on cost cutting, following established rules, respecting hierarchy, and dividing labor into simple, specialized tasks (Jamali, 2005). The hundred-year journey of management thinking can be seen as a movement from science in management to culture and spirituality in management (Sharma, 2013). The new management paradigm revolves around teamwork, participation, and learning. It also revolves around improved communication, integration, collaboration, and closer interaction and partnership with customers, suppliers, and a wider range of stakeholders. Value creation, quality, responsiveness, innovation, integration, and team building are increasingly recognized as useful guiding principles in this evolving new environment (Jamali, 2005). The new public management approach, which started to become widespread in the 1980s as a substitute for traditional public management, was subjected to serious criticism in the 2000s. With the paradigms that can be called post-new public management, an understanding has started to develop in that citizens are more than customers, that citizens should be taken into account and that they should be active stakeholders who are actively involved in the production and management of public services (Molobela & Uwizeyimana, 2023). Today, the search for new and different paradigms in governance continues. For example, the ubuntu paradigm, with its origins in South African culture, has been considered as an alternative. Ubuntu, like traditional belief systems such as Confucianism, has the potential to transform the current market-oriented approach to education into a more moral, emancipatory, cultured, and culturally relevant approach that aligns with people’s needs and aspirations (Oviawe, 2016). In the dominant management approach in education systems, those who make up the school community are often unable to participate meaningfully in management and decision-making processes. As explained by Benton (2023), in terms of schools, decisions are mostly made at the school management and other levels of educational administration, where a strict top-down function exists.

The universal ideal educational paradigm as a fundamental element of school citizenship

What constitutes ideal education in societies affects the quality of school citizenship. In order for school citizenship to be framed and constructed in accordance with the nature of education, the meaning of ideal education should first be well understood. After all, as Tomozii and Topola (2014) emphasized, each society has its ideal of education, and throughout history, scholars, thinkers, and politicians from different disciplines have put forward different ideas about what education means (Baker et al., 2021).

School education that emerged in the modern period was essentially designed to produce obedient good citizens through institutional control (Çakır, 2006). Within this process, education became increasingly inclusive, and state-run compulsory education became the widespread norm (Tomozii & Topola, 2014). Education is basically the process of acquiring knowledge and skills that will contribute to transforming the world while at the same time maximizing individual autonomy (Çakır, 2006). Strauss (2006) stated that the goal of education in the context of liberal education is to realize the value and greatness of human beings and to raise cultured people. On the other hand, in the Freirean perspective, education is seen as an opportunity for social evolution. According to Freire, the only real purpose of education is freedom (Byrne, 2011).

The dominant educational paradigm as a fundamental element of school citizenship

This dimension includes educational paradigms that are embedded within societal culture and that shape socially shared understandings of education, schools, teachers, students, and parents. Since the emergence of the modern school, there have been significant paradigm shifts in the field of education. Along with social, economic, and political transformations, educational understanding and practices have also changed considerably. In today's world, essentially Eurocentric educational paradigms are globally determinant.

Faced with the challenges of globalization and information technology, how education should be reformed and what paradigm shifts should be undertaken has become a major concern in policymaking (Cheng & Mok, 2007). It has been argued that educators need to adapt to these changes and that the educational paradigm needs to be renewed in order to adapt appropriately to these changes (Checkosky Maher, 2011). The need for new paradigms in education that are suited to the 21st century has often been expressed, with today's educational institutions facing considerable challenges in terms of technological developments (Tomozii & Topola, 2014).

The conditions that shape today's understanding of education are essentially the product of modernization that originated in Europe several centuries ago. On the threshold of the 18th century, the ideas of educators such as Rousseau and Pestalozzi led to radical social and mental transformations in the understanding of education, students, and teachers (Lindgren, 2013). In 18th-century Europe, a new world of society and mentality was being built based upon reason, experimentation, and observation, while the industrial revolution, urbanization, and capitalist economy created the need for the nationalization of education. Accordingly, state-controlled, secular and ideological public education became widespread (Gündüz, 2013). In European societies, philosophies based on idealism, realism, pragmatism, and positivism have, over time, come into effect within educational processes (Sağbaş & Özdemir, 2021). However, in a world shaped by the industrial revolution of the modern period, the dominant educational paradigm has developed as being more economy-oriented. The aim of mass school education was to prepare citizens for the modern industrial state (Çakır, 2006). In the modern period, education was about being literate and gaining knowledge of basic arithmetic operations that were sufficient for the individual. However, in the postmodern period, that was replaced by knowledge and understanding of computer and communication technologies (Kilicoglu & Kilicoglu, 2020). In the process of modernism, Eurocentric and individualist paradigms in education became globally widespread (Oviawe, 2016). As modern

education spread across the world, this new education was radically criticized by thinkers such as Schopenhauer and Nietzsche. Especially after World War II, thinkers such as Illich, Freire, Krishnamurti, and Suhomlinski proposed radical alternatives (Gündüz, 2013). In this process, some basic paradigms have been influential on education systems. As stressed by Baker et al. (2021), in the behaviorism-citizenship paradigm, the overall goal of education is to prepare students to behave as valued members of society, while the cognitivism-expertise paradigm aims to train experts who can respond more flexibly, as opposed to just being “good citizens.” The humanism-self-actualization paradigm aims for students to develop to their full potential and realize their autonomy (Baker et al., 2021). The transformation-mediating change paradigm aims to enable students to continually view the social world through a more ethical lens, enabling them to challenge and change the status quo as agents of change towards a more just society (Baker et al., 2021). It can be said that each paradigm that is effective in education develops its own unique form of school citizenship. In this context, it is of significant importance to understand the educational paradigm since it has an impact on schools.

The late 20th century was marked by an unprecedented wave of change. With the end of mass production or standardized products, the key words of the future became diversity, flexibility, and personalization. Techno-economic logic became the driving agenda, whilst globalization has also created a global market (Jamali, 2005). New revolutions in science are reshaping our understanding of the human mind and how we learn. The classical Newtonian view of how the brain works has been radically altered as a result of research into quantum mechanics (Turner, 2021). Since the beginning of the new century, fierce international competition, economic globalization, advances in information technology, and rapidly increasing local social and political demands have significantly impacted almost every country (Cheng & Mok, 2007). The 21st century has brought about a serious shift in the information paradigm. Today, individuals are expected not only to memorize information but to be able access it quickly, share it, and use it effectively in every field. In order to achieve this, certain so-called 21st-century skills should be emphasized and developed (Hamarat, 2019). Citizens in the future will connect and interact both digitally and universally, influencing the world with one-line texts or a short video; however, this demands that they be effectively educated today in order that they are able to responsibly manage their influence tomorrow. (Rodney, 2020). On the other hand, changes in the field of information technologies, and the Internet in particular, threaten traditional education as we know it. Many authorities see developments related to the Internet of Things as something that completely destroys school education (Rodney, 2020). “Tyrannical technocratic regimes” are emerging in which the student is objectified as a means to an end and the time and space of education are replaced by timetables and production values (Rüsselbæk Hansen & Phelan, 2019).

The process of modernism has also been effective in shaping the paradigms that shape the national education system in modern-day Türkiye. At this point, it can be said that the Turkish education paradigm started taking shape with France as its example since the Tanzimat period of the Ottoman Empire (Aydoğan, 2005). Westernization movements that started within the last periods of the Ottoman Empire became more effective in the process of building the new Turkish state after the 1923 proclamation of the Republic (Sağbaş & Özdemir, 2021). While the educational paradigms imported from Europe during the modernization and Westernization process shaped the Turkish education system, the new educational paradigms emerging in the United States and the new public administration approach became more effective with the globalization process. In this context, it can be said that today, an educational mentality has become widespread in which education is completely reduced to its economic functions and quantitative performance indicators are accepted as the sole source of success in education. Therefore, the effects of dominant educational paradigms on school citizenship can sometimes be positive and sometimes negative. In

order to establish healthy school citizenship, it is important to critically analyze the dominant educational paradigms.

Expectations from education and the school as a fundamental element of school citizenship

Today's schools have to strive to meet different expectations of different stakeholders, and these expectations have also been expressed in discussions on school quality (Eger et al., 2018). The expectations of administrators, teachers, students, parents, and other school staff, who are each positioned as citizens of the school, from education and the school differ in line with their respective needs and understanding of education. The interaction between schools and their citizens are shaped through effective management of the processes in play in meeting these expectations.

The right to education is among the basic human rights (Çakır, 2006) and parents have certain natural expectations related to the provision of this right in a qualified manner. The expectations of the members of the school community also play an important role in the customer-oriented quality approach (Eger et al., 2018). Today's schools are expected to educate highly qualified individuals with professional skills of digital literacy and the effective use of emerging technologies (Pugacheva et al., 2020). As part of this process, it is also expected that schools inform parents about the education process in a healthy way and ensure that they are sufficiently involved in the functioning and management of the school. As Helling (1996) pointed out, parents' expectations are related to the information received from the school in different ways.

As citizens of the school, teachers expect to be provided with appropriate working conditions, as well as to have a say in the functioning and processes of the school as a requirement of their civic position and expertise.

Educational legislation as an essential element of school citizenship

This dimension includes the legal texts regulating a country's education system and the general trends that emerge in their implementation. As Bulut (2019) stated, the changing world and new perceptions of education require a transformation in legal resources. There is a need for legislation that expands the initiative areas of decision-makers and practitioners. In line with 21st century skills, legislative arrangements have come to the agenda. Initially, teacher and student profiles of the new century were determined, curriculum updates applied, and an important framework was drawn with Türkiye's "2023 Education Vision Document" (Hamarat, 2019). In this context, it is important to examine the legislation that regulates education and schools in Türkiye on the basis of school citizenship and to make an analysis based on a set of rights and responsibilities. In this direction, the question of how healthy school citizenship can be formed can be answered more clearly and distinctly in the dimension of legal legislation. At the same time, the necessary framework for the preparation of a legislative basis that will support school citizenship needs to be drawn up.

The needs of society and expectations from students are primarily expressed in the Turkish Constitution of 1982 and other laws and regulations (Bektaş et al., 2022). In fact, the relatively more decisive source of school citizenship comes in the form of legal regulations that define the principles that schools and their citizens are obliged to follow. As Bektaş et al. (2022) identified, according to educational legislation, schools in Türkiye exist mainly for students to become good citizens and good human beings, to adopt national and moral values, and to exhibit exemplary behavior in their future life. In fact, this framework also outlines a certain understanding of school citizenship. At the same time, basic legal texts and education-related legislation have determined the nature of the administrative functioning of the Turkish education system and its schools. According to Bulut (2019), the subordinate-superior relations that develop within the Turkish

National Education System due to legislation are of a nature that pushes administrators and employees to mechanically copy, take place within a role-modeling system, that relatively objectifies people and directs communication through hierarchical restriction.

Legislation, as a fundamental element of school citizenship, has both international and national dimensions. The education-related provisions of international documents signed by countries and the agreements to which they are parties impact upon national legislation at different levels. Under this framework, the right to education and learning in Türkiye is guaranteed by national legislation that align with numerous international agreements (Eren, 2020). Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights states that every person has the right to education, that primary education is compulsory, that education, at least in the initial stages, is free of charge, and that parents have the right to choose the type of education to be given to their children. At the same time, the Republic of Türkiye's Council of Judges and Prosecutors stated that;

Education shall aim at the full development of the human personality and the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. Teaching should promote understanding, tolerance, and friendship among all nations, racial and religious groups and should enhance the work of the United Nations in the maintenance of peace. (Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Hâkimler Ve Savcılar Kurulu [Republic of Türkiye's Council of Judges and Prosecutors], 2024)

It can be said that the Universal Declaration of Human Rights provides a binding and general framework for the education systems of countries that have accepted the Declaration. This situation represents a general framework that will be effective in terms of school citizenship and the rights of school citizens. Education with the qualities that have been expressed here is shaped by the rights of a country's citizens.

2.2. Types of School Citizenship

Not everyone living under the sovereignty of a state can be a citizen at the same level (Kartal, 2010). Similarly, there are different types of school citizens; hence, classifications in the field of citizenship present a starting point for the typology of school citizenship. As stated by Geboers et al. (2014), various attempts have been made in the citizenship literature to present citizenship in categories, classifications, or types (Geboers et al., 2014). One of the first such typologies was proposed by Marshall (1950), who focused on rights (Cohen, 2020).

In his famous classification, Marshall defined the evolution of citizenship in three dimensions. Starting in the 17th century, legal rights emerged first, followed by political rights in the 19th century, and social rights which developed in the 20th century. Whilst much debated and criticized, Marshall's approach has continued to make a seminal contribution (Turner, 2021), yet citizenship continues to transform with the social, political, and economic developments. Citizenship types such as citizen of the world, "transnational" and "supranational" citizenship, global citizenship, cosmopolitan citizenship, and customer citizenship (Akbaş et al., 2023; Börklüoğlu, 2016; Kartal, 2010; Özkan, 2019) have been mentioned, but, as Turner (2021) noted, with the erosion of traditional forms of citizenship, especially nationalist and welfarist forms, a new form of market-driven consumer citizenship has emerged.

Looking at the different dimensions of school citizenship, it can be said that the contractual relationship creates different types of citizenship within the legal framework based on the identities, responsibilities, rights, and expectations of the parties involved. These types and forms of citizenship can be explained in line with civic citizenship types. It can be said that school citizenship types are shaped differently for administrators, teachers, students, parents, and support staff in terms of their duties, positions, and legal status. As stated by Isin (2009), citizenship is a structure

that determines who are the insiders, that is, the subjects who are citizens, and who are the outsiders, the “abjects.” For example, in the Athenian polis, women, children, slaves, and many “metics” were not considered citizens. Metics, who were legally free and had certain rights or obligations such as military service and taxes, were immigrants living in Athens for short or long periods (Kartal, 2010).

Within educational organizations, parents, teachers, and students, like metics, have certain rights and obligations but seem to be largely excluded from the functioning and decision-making processes of the school. At the same time, contracted or salaried teachers, migrant or asylum-seeker students, and parents can be classified as outsiders and “abjects” (Isin, 2009), similar to metics (Yaylacı, 2015). Accordingly, the call as to who is included and who is excluded from the categories of citizenship that emerge in school citizenship based on their differing duties and positions are determined based on the citizenship contract, as well as on legal legislation.

Administrators as Citizens of the School

The findings of a study by Cebiroğlu et al. (2023) revealed that school administrators mostly see themselves as employers. Although school principals and vice principals are representatives on the school side of the citizenship equation due to the legal bond they have established with other citizens of the school, they are also school citizens themselves according to the bond they have established with the institution itself. As representatives of the school, they are responsible for ensuring the rights and assessing the obligations of other citizens, but they also have rights and responsibilities specific to their own positions as citizens of the school. When school administrators are selected and appointed from among teachers according to certain criteria, they also become citizens of the school they manage. The rights and responsibilities of school administrators as citizens of the school are shaped by legal legislation based on the principles and duties of educational administration, as well as the expectations of themselves and other citizens of the school from an administrator.

As stated by Karakütük and Özdoğan Özbal (2019), what is basically expected from educational administrators is to ensure that the educational service is maintained and that the system achieves its goals. In this context, educational administrators are expected to be effective in solving problems in order to maintain healthy teaching and to achieve the school’s goals (Karakütük & Özdoğan Özbal, 2019). The problems that administrators observe in the education system also shape their areas of responsibility. According to the findings of Karakütük and Özdoğan Özbal (2019), administrators think that there are problems in the Turkish National Education System such as legal regulations, frequent changes in the curriculum and nationalized, high-stakes exam system, instability, lack of planning, and lack of emphasis on competence in the training and appointment of educational administrators and teachers. The responsibilities of school administrators require them to possess/achieve certain competencies. According to the findings of Göksoy and Sarioğlu (2020), school administrators believe that they have competencies such as leadership, self-efficacy, motivation, ownership, communication, and vision, and that their technical competencies, knowledge of legislation, and managerial competencies can be said to significantly meet expectations. According to Aslanargun’s (2015) research findings, while teachers expect principals to value them in general, they also expect to see the attitudes and behaviors of appreciation, support, consultation, respect, fairness, democracy, and trust in school principals.

Teachers as Citizens of the School

Teachers’ civic relationship with the school begins with their appointment based on their specialized training. In Türkiye, this process is initiated on a legal basis through a selection, trial, and appointment process according to standards set by the central government and the Turkish Ministry of National Education. When a teacher starts working at a school, the relationship

established directly with the school on this legal basis shapes the teacher's school citizenship, of which there are several levels. In order for the school citizenship of teachers who are officially appointed as permanent salaried teachers to be fully formed, an internship process must also be successfully completed. It can be said that a temporary or candidate citizenship is formed during this initial internship process. In order for the set of rights and responsibilities that school citizenship will provide to be manifested in a holistic manner, the teacher's citizenship must then be approved after the internship period has completed. However, it should be noted that in Türkiye, the process of teacher internship is largely understood as a formality, so the school citizenship of new teachers appointed by the ministry can be considered to have begun *de facto* even during their internship.

While today's dominant education and management paradigms have transformed the place and function of teachers in schools, this situation has also negatively affected the rights and responsibilities that teachers should would otherwise have as citizens of the school. Neoliberal understandings have transformed today's schools into business-focused enterprises, turning teachers into passive practitioners instead of active citizens who are participatory in the management processes of the organization (school). As Biesta (2015) explained, schools see teachers as simply one "factor" in their production, often forgetting that this factor is a human being and, more importantly, an educational expert who should be afforded a certain level of judgment and discretion.

There may also be different subcategories of teachers in terms of their citizenship status. Contracted or paid teachers do not share the same legal status as tenured/salaried teachers, but as citizens of the school, they should be afforded an equivalent set of rights and responsibilities as for all teachers. On the other hand, their citizenship cannot be fully manifested as their legal status prescribes quite different working conditions as contracted or paid teachers. While they are similar to permanent/salaried teachers in terms of their professional responsibilities, they work within a very limited framework in terms of their rights. At this point, it would not be an exaggeration to say that non-tenured teachers (whether contracted or paid teachers) have a status similar to the metics in the Athenian polis (Kartal, 2010).

Paid teachers, who have been part of the Turkish education system since the late 1990s, are at a considerable disadvantage compared to permanent teachers in terms of the wages they receive, and their personal and social rights. Paid teachers have insufficient professional and social security. Unlike permanent teachers, paid teachers only receive remuneration for the classes they actually teach, and their social security premiums are only partially met (Ayna & Deniz, 2022; Kavaklı & Gül, 2021; Öğülmüş et al., 2013). Due to these considerable issues, paid teachers often reflect concerns about their professional future and feel inadequately compensated for their labor. The conditions of paid teachers negatively affect their motivation and they may lack professional contentment (Cebiroğlu et al., 2023; Yılmaz, 2018). In previous studies, paid teachers have described their situation using metaphors such as slave, seasonal worker, subcontracted worker, laborer, and stepchild (Ayna & Deniz, 2022; Doğan & Aydın, 2023). At the same time, administrators have also mentioned that the performance of paid teachers and their competencies in terms of the teaching profession are under par (Öğülmüş et al., 2013). On the other hand, paid teachers generally consider that school administrators treat them differently and assign them a higher workload (Cebiroğlu et al., 2023). Teachers' citizenship status, which is shaped according to their employment status, also therefore affects their performance and level of professional satisfaction. According to the findings of Kavaklı and Gül (2021), paid teachers have lower levels of performance and job satisfaction than permanent or contracted teachers.

In this context, salaried or contract teachers can be seen as quasi-citizens of the school. Moreover, since they are obliged to fulfill civic responsibilities but lack certain rights, they can be

regarded as individuals who lack civic status yet reside within the school. This situation is reminiscent of the debates on civic citizenship. As stated by Özkan (2019), citizenship can vary in terms of having different rights and obligations. For example, people born in the colonies of a country may not enjoy full citizenship rights in the state where they are considered citizens and may have some form of “limited citizenship.” Those who are not considered citizens under current citizenship legislation, but who share the same society and economy, acquire a status other than political full membership. This is a citizenship in which real ties to a political community have already been formed and this is what Shachar termed “jus nexi” or acquired citizenship (Özkan, 2019). In this case, it can be said that paid or contracted teachers are jus nexi citizens of the school with a limited form of citizenship.

Another category that can be mentioned in the context of teachers is that of unassigned teachers. Teacher candidates who graduate from teacher training departments of education faculties in order to become teachers may wait for a considerably long time to be actually appointed by the Turkish Ministry of National Education, which may be due to a number of reasons. In this case, it can be said that unassigned teachers are kept waiting in a kind of candidate citizen status because they have yet to be officially appointed, even though in principle they deserve to be citizen teachers in the same education system due to their professional formation. According to the findings of Çinkır and Kurum (2017), the problem of unassigned teachers is seen by educators as that of a hopeless generation, and due to a lack of planning, political consequence, and the exploitation of human resources. On the other hand, unassigned teachers face serious problems such as unemployment, employment in fields other than teaching, precarious jobs, burnout, alienation, inability to settle down with a life partner, or experience financial difficulties or environmental pressures (Çinkır & Kurum, 2017).

Students as Citizens of the School

Students are an essentially and vital element of the school’s *raison d’être*. As citizens of the school, they too have specific responsibilities and rights. However, from the perspective of dominant management and educational paradigms, it can be said that only certain compliance behaviors are expected from students and that they are actually seen based only on their academic achievement. This situation prevents students from taking part in the school structure as active citizens. School citizenship can be said to emerge in different ways for students as well as teachers. Students’ school citizenship begins when they are enrolled in a school through the address-designated system of registration, which can vary depending on the type and level of the school. In some cases, school citizenship is established as a result of the student passing an exam, while in other cases, citizenship is established in private schools upon payment of a certain fee. It should be noted, however, that citizenship in private schools is differentiated due to the commercial focus of these establishments. In fact, citizenship in private schools develops as a commercial exchange relationship, as far as possible from being a contractual relationship based on a set of rights and responsibilities.

One of the main purposes of schools is to provide students with the opportunity to develop the knowledge and skills necessary for future participation in democratic decision-making processes in social life (Psunder, 2005). In this context, the positioning of students as citizens of the school based on a set of rights and responsibilities will serve an important function. As stated by Psunder (2005), participation and involvement in decision-making processes play an important role not only in developing student autonomy and responsibility, but also in providing students with practical experience of living within a democratic society. Participation and civic practices experienced at school thus contribute to young people developing a picture of themselves as citizens through their involvement in everyday situations and activities (Geboers et al., 2014).

As stressed by Geboers et al. (2014), comprehending students' understanding and practice of citizenship provides the framework upon which schools are built. In this context, students' knowledge and understanding of citizenship in general are influential in determining their position as citizens of the school. According to Çevik and Erçetin's (2023) research findings, students' understanding of active citizenship is at a positive level. Accordingly, students believe that people have the right to determine their own destiny, that they should defend their homeland in the face of danger, that they should undertake any duty for their country, that they will protest democratically when necessary, that they will show sensitivity to social problems, and that they may make friends with people from different ethnic backgrounds without issue. Geboers et al. (2014) identified four types of citizenship that can be clearly interpreted according to different citizenship orientations and models of citizenship knowledge related to students' individual characteristics, their civic engagement in society, and their perceptions of the school climate: committed citizenship; indifferent citizenship; ordinary citizenship; and, confident citizenship (Geboers et al., 2014). Students' civic understandings and attitudes constitute the framework and quality of their school citizenship. The findings that students from different school types have different conceptions of citizenship (Geboers et al., 2014) indicates that school citizenship may also differ according to school type. Based on the findings of Geboers et al. (2014), indifferent citizenship is more common in vocational secondary education, while confident citizenship is more common in general secondary education.

In addition to students' ideas about how students should be, the expectations of administrators, teachers, and parents from students shape their rights and responsibilities as citizens of the school. As İğde (2021) pointed out, teachers primarily expect a high level of academic effort and success from students. In relation to this, high teacher expectations may also have certain negative consequences, so this process needs to be managed well. According to the findings of another study, teachers expect students to come to class well-prepared and to actively participate, complete their assigned tasks, and become responsible and virtuous individuals (Erçetin et al., 2020). Similarly, school administrators expect students to be successful, to be obedient of school rules, and be moral and virtuous individuals (Erçetin et al., 2020). Parents' expectations from students are also important in terms of both the success of their child's education and the framing of their school citizenship. Research has shown that a strong relationship exists between parents' expectations about their children's abilities and children's self-perceptions and performance (Helling, 1996).

Students' expectations from the school can also be effective in drawing out the framework of their rights as citizens of the school. According to the findings of Kaya and Kaya (2016), students' expectations are as follows: positive teacher behaviors; that the educational environment is sufficiently well equipped and adequate; that educational activities are made enjoyable in a way that prevents negative student behaviors; different parts of the school such as the canteen meet the students' expectations and schools strive to improve conditions; and the school administration communicates more closely with its students, taking into account students' opinions in some school-related practices. According to the findings of another study, it was determined that secondary school students had expectations such as easing discipline, being treated fairly, teachers communicating better, classes not starting early in the morning, and more extracurricular social activities (Osmanoğlu & Yaşa, 2018).

As previously mentioned, students' school citizenship can differ according to the type and level of the school, as well as the status of the student within their respective country, which can lead to a different set of rights and responsibilities. In this context, it may be said that the most important differentiation relates to students of foreign origin. As such, foreign students, who are therefore

not citizens of the country in which they are studying, experience a different status within their school's community.

Citizenship is a different legal status from that of being a foreigner, and states generally grant their citizens more rights but also impose more obligations on them compared to non-citizens (foreigners) (Özkan, 2019). In this context, another example of citizenship in terms of students is those who are migrants, asylum-seekers, foreigners, and those from groups that fall outside of the political citizenship sphere. Migrant, refugee, or foreign students are non-citizen members of schools; the "others" who are not yet deemed fit to be citizens. They have a different status than citizens, and therefore have different rights and responsibilities. Considering that in ancient Greek society, only the children of noble citizens had the right to receive an appropriate education because they were considered to be small citizens (Yolsal Murteza, 2023), it is conceivable that today it is foreigners and "others" who are subjected to a different standard or kind of education because they are not considered to be citizens in the real sense. As stated by Turner (2001), the exclusionary power of citizenship applies to immigrants, especially those who entered the country illegally, and those from ethnic minorities. However, stigmatized social groups in society can also experience exclusion and alienation (Turner, 2021). For example, in the United States, despite significant ethnic and racial diversity, the impact of structural racism can be observed in the management of schools, and different groups are openly excluded from decision-making processes in schools (Benton, 2023). Holistic, ecological interventions are therefore needed in order to overcome the problems experienced by refugee and migrant students in schools with these others (Kankaanpää et al., 2022). In addition to different types of interventions, school citizenship can make important and meaningful contributions in this context.

Migrant, asylum-seeker, or refugee children from many origin countries have social, emotional, academic, and physical health problems that are evident in schools and are often linked to their citizenship status (Charbonneau et al., 2022). As stated by Davila (2021), migrant, asylum-seeker, or refugee students experience different problems depending on their migration experience, their legal status, and the social, political, or economic conditions of the local community, but it can also be said that all of them are subjected to exclusion due to their status as foreigners or others. Education and schools have a vital role in helping to solve some of the problems experienced by migrant or asylum-seeker students. As numerous studies have pointed out, public institutions such as schools play an important role in the integration of newly arrived migrant or asylum-seeker youth into linguistic, social, cultural, and political environments (Davila, 2021). Schools can therefore be tasked with responding to the varied physical and mental health issues, as well as academic challenges specific to migrant children (Charbonneau et al., 2022). Education is vital for the mental health of students who have experienced traumatic experiences, and migrant children especially (Özel & Erdur-Baker, 2023).

For resettled migrant students, the education system can form an essential bridge to their integration into a new society (Ager & Strang, 2008, as cited in Bennouna et al., 2023). In order for schools to fulfill such a function, it is important that foreigners and others are also seen as members with certain rights and responsibilities. In this context, the understanding of integration stands out as one such element that shapes school citizenship. As stressed by Ngai (2004, as cited in Scribner and Fernández, 2017), migrant communities have long been criminalized in the media and in politics, with marginalized foreigners often portrayed as either surpluses who should leave the country or misfits who need to assimilate. As stated by Bennouna et al. (2023), while academic literature acknowledges that integration is theoretically a two-way process, many policies and programs continue to operate as if migrants and refugees are the only ones who either should be integrated or that they are not able to be integrated. Newly arrived migrant and refugee students often feel pressure to assimilate into the dominant social culture of their schools (Davila, 2021).

Türkiye, which has long been exposed to large influxes of refugees and migrants, is also undergoing significant transformations in this context. As noted in a 2016 UNHCR report (as cited in Özel & Erdur-Baker, 2023), despite many national efforts and programs focusing on the integration and needs of refugee students, Turkish schools currently face a number of challenges. School citizenship can provide a meaningful basis to the overcoming of such problems. Recognizing new members of the school, whether foreigners or nationals, as citizens with the same rights and responsibilities as other members of the school can help make it possible to develop an understanding of mutual harmony. In the process of developing school citizenship, a dynamic negotiation process in which the parties share their understanding of citizenship and their views on their own and each other's rights and responsibilities can provide a healthy basis for mutual harmony.

Parents as Citizens of the School

Parents' school citizenship manifests within a looser framework compared to other categories of citizenship. Although they have their own set of rights and responsibilities, they are not considered to be as active as other citizens in terms of the structure and functioning of the school. Parents are expected to fulfill certain civic responsibilities, which primarily relate to supporting their children's education and the school's activities in various ways. Therefore, the citizenship of families also represents a limited framework in terms of rights. At this point, it should be noted that the position of migrant, asylum-seeking, or foreign families is placed within this more limited framework.

Schools and families play an important role in shaping the lives of school-age children. A better understanding of the interaction between school and home is therefore crucial in order to facilitate parents' continued and increased involvement in their children's school lives (Helling, 1996). Although the importance of the family's contribution to education is recognized by educators, families are generally ill-informed about what may be happening at the school and are not fully involved in its functioning. It may be said that the understanding of teacher professionalism and the existence of different goals and expectations are effective in this (Gordon & Seashore Louis, 2009; Scribner & Fernández, 2017). On the other hand, when parents organize to defend their own interests that differ from or are in conflict with the priorities of the school leadership, they may be perceived as highly problematic (Scribner & Fernández, 2017). The parents' relationship with the school is more centered around the idea of supporting the student's academic success. As Özel (2014) pointed out, the majority of teachers expect parents to be actively involved in their children's education and believe that the main responsibilities of parents are therefore encouragement and support of their children as students.

Parental involvement is also closely related to the democratic principles of school functioning. The existence of these principles in schools requires that parents have the right and responsibility to participate in school improvement efforts (Gordon & Seashore Louis, 2009). However, as stated by Riley and Louis (2004, as cited in Gordon & Seashore Louis, 2009), the business and accountability approach that has recently become dominant in schools under the influence of the new public management ideology has led families to be seen as customers for whom the school is responsible rather than outsiders. This can be seen as a positive development compared to the view of families as outsiders or strangers. However, it is difficult to say that families, as customers, are able to participate meaningfully in the school as citizens of the school.

Parents' expectations from the school, and its administrators and teachers, and their understanding and expectations regarding their function as parents within the educational process, shape their sets of rights and responsibilities as citizens of the school. According to the findings of Ağa Yıldız and Kılıç (2020), parents have expectations on many issues, such as about academic courses and social activities, as well the structural and systemic features of teachers and the school.

However, parents' expectations are mostly confined to the context of improved learning by students. According to Bağcı (2019), parents primarily expect schools to support the development of their children's academic achievements and social personalities.

Support Staff as Citizens of the School

Auxiliary staff types differ and numbers vary depending on the type, structure, and size of the school. This includes secretarial staff, cleaners, technicians, transportation officers, etc. Those in this category of citizenship are involved in a civic relationship defined by their having relatively more responsibilities than other stakeholders due to their duties and position.

The vast majority of studies in the field of education relate to administrators and teachers (Ünver, 2019), hence it may be said that auxiliary staff in schools have been neglected in research terms. According to the service classes defined in the Republic of Türkiye's Civil Servants Law (1965), four groups of personnel are employed in schools based on their method of appointment. Teachers and administrators naturally form the educational services class, whilst technicians are in the technical services class, civil servants form the general administrative services class, and all other personnel are categorized within the auxiliary service class (Demir, 2013; Ünver, 2019). According to the Regulation on Primary Education Institutions, schools in Türkiye may have administrative and clerical staff including account clerks, warehouse clerks, movable property and registration clerks, revolving fund clerks, librarians, health personnel, drivers, cooks, assistant cooks, boiler technicians, gardeners, out-of-hours security personnel, technicians, and other auxiliary staff (Demir, 2013). Although all school personnel other than administrators and teachers are not educators by profession, they still have certain indirect educational duties. Based just on their appearance and behavior, these personnel can have positive or negative effect on the students, both inside and outside of the school (Bursaloğlu, 2013, as cited in Ünver, 2019). Research findings indicate that, for example, cleaning staff are effective on students' affective development due to their regular interaction with students and their ability to be a model for students (Demir, 2013). Defined as "other auxiliary personnel" in the Regulation on Primary Education Institutions, cleaning staff are responsible for maintaining a healthy, clean, and safe environment for students in schools, and often ensure adequate lighting and heating for the functioning of the school's education and training to ensue. As such, they form an indispensable part of the functioning of the school in terms of their duties (Yavuz, 2011). As research findings have shown, a poorly prepared educational environment can negatively affect students' interest and motivation towards learning (Demir, 2013).

According to their type of appointment, cleaning staff can have a varied status, such as that of a permanent, temporary, or contracted worker. In general, they are temporarily assigned to the school either by a school's parent-teacher association or by the Turkish Employment Agency (Demir, 2013; Ünver, 2019; Yavuz, 2011). According to Ünver (2019), working conditions can differ according to staff status, resulting in a reduced level of efficiency realized from non-permanent cleaning staff. These personnel are expected to embrace working for the school organization, have a sense of civic duty, exhibit high levels of human relational interaction, perform their cleaning duties responsibly and diligently, and undertake their assigned work tasks in a timely manner (Ünver, 2019). However, school principals often consider that janitorial staff do not perform their duties fully nor on time, and that such personnel frequently change, leading to adaptation issues (Yavuz, 2011). However, according to the findings of a study by Yavuz (2011), the number and quality of janitorial staff in Turkish schools is generally insufficient and leading to working conditions that are often unfavorable. As a side note, most janitors think that they are required to perform tasks that should not form part of their duties (Yavuz, 2011).

2.3. Types of School Citizenship in Terms of attitudes

Different classifications have also been made in terms of the nature of school citizenship. It can be said that the understanding of citizenship and the attitude of the citizen in relation to citizenship are the key topics here. Scholars have proposed the emergence of a new kind of citizenship norm in recent years, described in somewhat different terms as engaged (Dalton, 2008, as cited in Hooghe et al., 2016), critical (Norris, 1999, as cited in Hooghe et al., 2016), monitorial (Schudson, 1998, as cited in Hooghe et al., 2016), and self-actualizing (Bennett, 2012, as cited in Hooghe et al., 2016). Westheimer and Kahn (2004, as cited in Geboers et al., 2014) defined three categories of citizens: responsible; participatory; and, justice citizens. Leenderse et al. (2008, as cited in Geboers et al., 2014) defined the categories of compliant, individualistic, and critical democratic citizens in their study of teachers' perceptions of the pedagogical goals of citizenship education. Turner (2021) emphasized four types of citizenship: 1) national citizenship, typically associated with ethno-nationalism; 2) social citizenship, or "welfare citizenship," refers to the creation of social rights and is closely linked to civil society institutions rather than the state or the market; 3) citizen participation in the labor force, with an emphasis on self-reliance and autonomy; 4) consumer society citizenship, in which passive citizens become consumers of privatized goods and services, leading to a weaker state and the decline of civic institutions. Almond and Verba (1963, as cited in Cohen, 2020) identified three types of citizenship by defining the components and characteristics of participatory culture: 1) parochial; citizens with no knowledge of the public sphere and no will to participate; 2) subject; passive citizens with knowledge of institutions but no will to participate; and, 3) participatory; citizens with strong knowledge of political institutions and the will to influence the public sphere.

Rubin (2007, as cited in Cohen, 2020) proposed a typology of civic identity based on interviews and discussions with students, with four types of civic identity: aware; strong; indifferent; and, discouraged. Sim and Print (2009, as cited in Cohen, 2020) proposed three ideal civic identity types that encompass teachers' conceptions of citizenship and classroom practices; 1) character-driven, 2) social participatory, and 3) critical reflexive approaches.

Sears and Hughes (1996, as cited in Cohen, 2020) identified four types of citizenship: 1) state-based understanding that focuses on issues of national importance, such as the institutions of the state and its shared values and norms; 2) liberal understanding that emphasizes personal skills, such as the ability to examine public issues and articulate personal value positions; 3) cosmopolitan understanding that emphasizes the need to understand world issues, such as environmental responsibility; and, 4) social justice understanding that centers on issues of equality, oppression, and discrimination. In light of these classifications based on the quality of citizenship and the attitude of citizens, functional and meaningful inferences can be made in terms of school citizenship. Accordingly, different classifications can be made in terms of the citizenship practices and understandings of school citizens and the quality of citizenship they possess.

2.4. School Citizenship Contract

The literature points to the need to develop intervention programs that involve all parties and components, including teachers, administrators, local and refugee students and families, and the whole school in cases where foreign students are increasingly involved, where differences are increasing, and where various educational and operational problems are in question (Özel & Erdur-Baker, 2023). It is frequently emphasized in the literature that school-based management programs ensure success in the functioning of the school and in the academic dimension (Mejia & Filus, 2018). In this context, a school citizenship model based on a school citizenship contract can provide a more comprehensive and effective understanding that takes into account the sociopolitical qualities of the school in its entirety. Although certain challenges arise from citizens of educational

organizations having different goals and demands, it is undeniable that there are certain educational ideals that bring them together. In this context, an approach that aims to recognize these differences in a contractual citizenship system can be used to help overcome this challenge (Yaylacı, 2015).

Democracy and citizenship require dialogue first and foremost, and this can be made possible through civic education. Qualities that every citizen should acquire, such as living in partnership with others and respecting the views and reasons put forward, can be taught to children at an early age (Yolsal Murteza, 2023). In this context, establishing school citizenship alongside civic education will strengthen the impact of the school on raising active citizens. Establishing school citizenship in a healthy way can effectively contribute to the school's organizational structure, functioning, the success of the education and training given, and meaningful and rewarding activities undertaken by administrators, teachers, students, families, and other staff employed in the school environment. It can be said that the process of establishing school citizenship in a healthy way basically has four stages;

- 1) Analyzing the existing structure: Analysis of the current structure and functioning of the school based on school citizenship.
- 2) Developing awareness of school citizenship: Administrators, teachers, students, parents, and other staff, who are all considered citizens of the school, share a common understanding of school citizenship by engaging in collaborative and joint activities.
- 3) Drafting a school citizenship contract: Preparation of the school citizenship contract with the fair and active participation of the parties.
- 4) Operationalization of school citizenship: Ensuring the school functions based on a school citizenship contract.
- 5) Continuous improvement of the school's organizational citizenship capability: Continuously reviewing the school's functioning and implementation with the participation of citizens based on the understanding of school citizenship and the school citizenship contract, as well as planning and implementing the activities necessary to achieve improvement.

The first two stages of the process of drafting a school citizenship contract are important in terms of better understanding the citizenship understandings of the various parties and the development of school citizenship awareness. According to the findings of a study by Yaylacı (2016b) that examined the views of school citizens in the context of organizational citizenship, the participants' views generally reflected a passive understanding of citizenship that emphasizes responsibilities rather than rights. This situation points to the importance of an awareness process regarding school citizenship. A dynamic and interactive negotiation process between schools and their citizens will affect all parties, administrators, teachers, parents, and candidate teachers, and thereby strengthen citizenship awareness (Yaylacı, 2016b). As Mitchell (2017) stated, consultation or decision-making forums with the participation of all necessary parties in the school can contribute to their participation in the decision-making process and the management of the school by sharing views on the functioning and accountability of the school. In this direction, it can be said that negotiations, meetings, and interviews undertaken in the process of analyzing civic understandings and developing civic awareness can lead to meaningful results in terms of school ownership, accountability, and participation.

The results reached through the sharing process in the first two stages also determine the nature of the drafting of the school citizenship contract. The school citizenship contract develops within a framework determined by the aforementioned factors regarding the basic elements of school citizenship. In this context, in particular, the legal legislation related to education and

educational administration provides an effective framework. The school citizenship contract should be realized as a dynamic process with the participation of all parties. The contract, which will establish the framework of the relationship between the school and its citizens, will determine the rights and responsibilities of the parties and ensure that the functioning of the school develops based on this set of rights and responsibilities. In this respect, the understanding of school citizenship will serve as a guiding framework for the effective management, functioning, and holistic quality of the school. The phase of continuous improvement of the school's civic capability refers to the implementation and development of this understanding on a continuous basis. In this improvement process, which will be realized with the full and meaningful participation of the school's citizens, the implementation of the school citizenship contract will be monitored and all necessary improvements made. At the same time, the functioning and management of the school will be possible with the active participation of the school's citizens.

3. Conclusion

This paper aimed to provide an outline of school citizenship based on the organizational citizenship system. In this regard, the types of school citizenship were described together with the school citizenship contract. School citizenship provides a fruitful basis for the establishment of a school structure based on the organizational citizenship system. The process of establishing school citizenship within a school and, accordingly, preparing school citizenship also means, as a dynamic process, developing the awareness of school community members about their various rights and responsibilities regarding education and the functioning of the school. Organizational citizenship and school citizenship can also help schools to overcome the negative effects of neoliberal conceptions of education and management that distort the nature of education and schooling.

Necessary steps should be taken to ensure that school citizens are made fully aware of the rights and responsibilities they have at school. In this context, in addition to informative and awareness-raising activities, it is also important to create suitable conditions for the experience of citizenship. One significant difficulty experienced in the process of preparing the school citizenship agreement and structuring the school according to the organizational citizenship system is the danger of the work turning into a bureaucratic chore and activities that then simply exist on paper. In order to prevent this from happening, necessary precautions should be taken in the structure and operation of the school.

In light of the discussion in this text, certain suggestions for future research can be put forward. Organizational citizenship systems and school citizenship will naturally develop in different ways in different social and cultural conditions. Therefore, it would be useful to conduct studies and discussions on school citizenship in different cultural contexts. School citizenship is a multidimensional structure, therefore, significant in-depth discussions about each dimension are needed. In this regard, studies should be conducted that examine civil citizenship debates in the context of school citizenship. More research should then be conducted in different contexts so as to reveal the citizenship understandings and practices of administrators, teachers, families, students, and support staff who are citizens of the school. Research should be conducted that directly focuses on the factors affecting school citizenship. Practical studies should be carried out on the preparation of school citizenship agreements, and the experiences of different school types and schools in different social and cultural environments in preparing citizenship agreements should be examined comparatively.

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About the Contributor

Ali Faruk Yaylacı, Ph.D., is an associate professor of educational administration at Kutahya Dumlupınar University, Türkiye. His main research interests include educational administration, philosophy of educational management, school administration, and education and migration.

Email: alfay06@yahoo.com

ORCID ID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4459-3410>

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