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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to all of the people in my home town community who invested in my life as a child and repainted a vision of hope for my future. First to, Randy and Shawna Rogers, for making sure my basic and emotional needs were always met. Next, to Dr. Pat Sullivan & Dr. Logan Coffee, who always provided me with medical care without insurance or financial compensation. Then, to the local businesses that allowed me to work several jobs around my school schedule. Finally, to my teachers and local church community that always challenged and encouraged me through my journey.

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Abstract

A plethora of research on Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) exists. However, there is a limited amount of research examining this construct within schools. This study examined the OCB phenomenon in schools. More specifically, this study examined predictor variables: organizational structure and leadership within schools and their influence on teacher display of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

There is a plethora of research on Organizational Citizenship Behaviors; however, there have been mixed findings with Organizational Citizenship and organizational structure. These findings suggest that there is an inadequate understanding of the relationship between organizational structure and Organizational Citizenship. Additionally, there is limited research pertaining to Organizational Citizenship within schools. Consequently, both of these areas merit further research in order to increase our understanding of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors.

This is especially important because Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCBs), when aggregated and examined as an organizational property, have been associated with organizational success and effectiveness. These behaviors are not enforceable, but they are essential in the day-to-day functioning of organizations. “Because the work in schools is such that all desirable behaviors cannot be comprehensively prescribed in teachers’ job descriptions or contracts, it is important that schools learn more about how these behaviors can be cultivated” (DiPaola, Tshannen-Moran, 2001, p. 425).

In recent years, teacher turnover has noticeably increased in the United States (Ingersoll & Merrill, 2012). New reforms such as teacher evaluation systems, merit pay, high stakes testing, and other legislative initiatives have not helped this problem. This is an even more concerning problem for schools and communities that have “hard to staff schools” (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Carroll, Reichardt, Guarino, & Mejia, 2000; Clotfeller, Ladd, Vigdor & Wheeler, 2007; Hanushek et al., 2004; Ingersoll, 2001; Rivers & Sanders, 1996). These problems have made achieving school goals and

creating an effective school a daunting task. On the other hand, new findings suggest that teacher retention may have more to do with “school leadership, collegial relationships, and elements of school culture” (Johnson & Simon, 2013, p.1). Thus, these findings suggest that leadership and organizational structure within schools may create social conditions that provide a venue to help retain teachers. Additionally, leadership and work environments have been identified as antecedents to Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Because Organizational Citizenship Behaviors have been associated with the efficient and effective organizations, these behaviors might help “hard to staff” schools to achieve their organizational goals.

The purpose of this study was to understand the influence of the structural features within schools and their relationship with organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). This study aimed to understand OCBs within schools, specifically those of teachers, and how leadership and organizational structure of schools influences teacher participation in these behaviors. This study examined schools within a large urban district with varying levels of teacher OCB, strong versus weak. This study investigated the predictability of OCB after controlling for a set of variables: leadership and organizational structure.

The literature pertaining to OCBs identifies work environments and leader behavior as prevalent predictors of OCBs. This study will enhance understanding of OCBs in schools and more specifically, will provide empirical evidence as to which conditions facilitate or suppress these behaviors within school organizations. Furthering our understanding about how these behaviors are encouraged is needed to enhance school effectiveness. Extrapolating from findings in the related literature of other

fields, this study advanced two hypotheses: organizational structure within schools influences teacher Organizational Citizenship Behavior and leadership within schools influences teacher Organizational Citizenship Behavior.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Organizational Structure

The general task of organizational theory is to “analyze the interaction between characteristics of humans and the social and task environments created by organizations” (March & Simon, 1958, p.12). For years, social scientists have studied organizations in an attempt to analyze factors that influence human behavior (March & Simon, 1958). Additionally, organizational theorists have studied organizations to learn what makes them successful and effective; therefore, it is important to review the history of relevant theories and evidence that helped researchers refine their ideas.

“Attention is almost always focused on the short period of time between 1760 and 1810 in order to obtain an adequate understanding of industry and management” (Killough, 2001, p. 67). The Industrial Revolution took place during this time and was characterized by “growth of population, expanded trade, increased wealth, inventions and innovations, the factory system, free enterprise and an individualistic atmosphere” (Killough, 2001, p. 68). As a result of these rapid and significant changes, it became evident that there was a lack of “a formal business management structure” (Killough, 2001, p. 68). Inventions and innovations “began to pave the way for eventual adoption of the factory system, which by this time was called for in order to keep up with a growing demand” (Killough, 2001, p.68-69). As a result, structural systems utilizing time and study methods were utilized. These types of structures are known today as part of the Classical School of organizational theory. The Classical School helped “bring together the factors of production in such a way as to yield a profit,” which was necessary in order for the organization to be successful and effective.

Two major theories make up the Classical School, Scientific Management and Administrative Management theories. Both theories viewed the organization as a closed system, exclusively attending to internal factors of structure and function. Scientific Management theory took a 'machine' model of human behavior. It took the approach of describing the characteristics of the human worker as one might describe a simple machine. Time and motion studies specified a detailed program of behavior that would transform a general-purpose mechanism, in this case an individual, into a more efficient special-purpose mechanism. The goal was to use the rather inefficient human organism in the best way possible (March & Simon, 1958, p. 13).

A second theory of the Classical School was Administrative Management. This theory used departmentalization as a method to accomplish tasks. Departmentalization "grouped tasks into individual jobs, jobs into administrative units, units into larger units, established the top level departments and organized these groupings in such a way as to minimize the total cost of carrying out all the activities" (March & Simon, 1958, p. 22). Both of these theories used control mechanisms to carry out the necessary functions of the organization.

Researchers began to study and analyze the bureaucratic structure of the Classical School and its use of the "machine model". While noting that the use of the "'machine model' resulted in the anticipated consequence of accomplishing goals of the formal hierarchy", they also acknowledge that the use of bureaucratic structures were more efficient than alternative methods of organization (March & Simon, 1958, p.37). However, Merton (1940), Selznick (1949) and Gouldner (1954) were concerned with the dysfunctional organizational learning and consequences of treating individuals as a

machine (1958, p. 37). Their research identified several unanticipated consequences of bureaucratic structure.

Scientific Management, for example, produced: “a reduction in the amount of personalized relationships, internalization of the rules of the organization, and increased use of categorization as a decision-making technique” (March & Simon, 1958, p. 38-39). Administrative Management’s unanticipated consequences on the other hand produced: “increases in the amount of training in specialized competences, decreases the difference between organizational goal achievement and increases in the bifurcation of interests among the subunits in the organization” (March & Simon, 1958, p. 41). Taken together organizational approaches as belonging to the Classical School, with their emphasis on general and impersonal rules as control techniques, “increased the amount of minimal acceptable behavior, increased the difference between organizational goals and achievement, increased the closeness of supervision, and increased the visibility of power relations” (March & Simon, 1958, p. 44-45). But the major unanticipated consequence of treating individuals as machines through a controlled program, delegation, or rules was the encouraged use of the machine model (March & Simon, 1958). These consequences suggest, “that changes in the personality of individual members of the organization stem from factors in the organizational structure” (March & Simon, 1958, p. 38). The research and evidence identify tasks and social environments that treat individuals like machines; result in undesired behavioral responses (March & Simon, 1958).

As a result of weaknesses in management practices associated with the Classical School and the Hawthorne studies, a new perspectives on organization emerged. These

approaches are organized under the title of The Human Relations School of Management. They recognize that rules and control techniques, “do not define the essential nature of a cooperative system” and point to the existence of both a formal and informal organization (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006, p. 44). The formal organization is characterized by, “the systems, policies, rules, and regulations which express what the relations of one person to another are supposed to be in order to achieve effectively the task of technical production” (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006, p.49). The informal organization “arises from customs, habits, and routines that define a willingness to cooperate by individual actors” (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006, p. 46). In the informal organization, “employees are the architects of the organization . . . and they set the rules and values by which they work . . . , form groups . . . , set performance standards, regulate the pace of work . . . and discover the best methods to accommodate the requirements of the formal structures” (Goddard, 2009, p. 7).

Chester Barnard was the first to recognize the importance of the informal organization. According to Barnard, authority is a “bubble up” process (Barnard, 1938, p. 225). “It rises from rather than initiates, the process of organizing, or the adjoining of individual actions in a cooperative endeavor” (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006, p. 46). The willingness to cooperate is characterized by, “a consciousness of the interconnectedness of individuals and their tasks, and an understanding that all the quality of that interconnectedness determines the benefits for all” (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006, p. 45). Banard argues that, the fundamental foundation of organized activity requires the willingness to cooperate (Barnard, 1938). Analyses made by other

researchers such as, Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939), also acknowledged the informal organization as an essential condition for cooperation.

The integration of the formal and informal structures that is formed within organizations initiated the development of management theories that were more humanistic. These approaches used new concepts and measures to analyze human behaviors in relation to their social and task environments, such as: job satisfaction, climate, participation, empowerment or a variety of other related ideas (Goddard, 2009). As a result, organizational theory incorporated the social and task environments created as a product of examining the employee and employee groups as important factors.

The contributions of previous paradigms were integrated into the open systems model which distinguished itself by examining both the internal and external factors influencing the organization. The open systems model attended to external factors emphasized by the human relations school such as individual differences, motivation, mutual interests and human dignity (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). In addition, it attended to external influences including the actions of the existing competitors, potential competitors, suppliers, customers, and government (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). Viewing the organizational structure as an interrelated system enabled researchers to attend to the psychological aspects of humans and the technical demands of the work (Goddard, 2009).

The open systems researchers noted three different behaviors that needed to be evoked from participants in order for the organization to be effective. They must: attract and hold people within the system, ensure that members exhibit dependable role performance, meeting and preferably exceeding certain minimal

qualitative and quantitative criteria and evoke innovative and spontaneous behavior, performance beyond role requirements for accomplishments of organizational functions. (Katz & Kahn, 1966, p. 337)

If the social and commercial demands were reconciled the result would be a “fit” and could explain the organization’s performance (Goddard, 2009). Although this model identified and examined more of the variables that are involved in influencing organizations than previous models, it also suggested a more complex process for achieving organizational success. In an open systems model, “the organization’s survival is dependent upon its relationship with the environment” (Bastedo, 2006, p. 711). As a result, examining the environment and identifying workable solutions that take into consideration a variety of variables and interactions among individuals, markets, cultures, time or organizations are essential to the organization’s equilibrium and survival (Bastedo, 2006).

The open systems model examines the internal and external factors influencing human behavior and the organization as a method of getting necessary information to ensure the organization’s survival. The organization is dependent on the environment and the environment influences the organization; therefore, the external environment and its influence on human behavior becomes the primary focus for organizational success. Thus, the open system model helped broaden researchers thinking about human behavior in organizations by linking the interdependencies of internal and external influences on human behavior and the influential interaction these factors have on social and task environments created by organizations.

Subsequent organizational theories developed of ideas inherent in the open systems approach and recognized that the organization is part of an interrelated system. However, organizations differ and the contexts within which they operate change. As a result, the bureaucratic structures enacted tend to vary in formalization and centralization used effectively to achieve the organizational goals. Formalization is defined as, “the degree to which the organization has written rules, regulations, procedures and policies” (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001, p. 297). Centralization operates on a continuum in which high centralization to “decisions concentrated at the top in the hands of few” in contrast to low centralization, in which “authority for making decisions is diffuse and shared among many” (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001, p. 299). These terms are commonly employed to describe the organizational structure of an organization.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The idea that structures are a part of an interrelated system echoes Barnard’s (1938) ideas about organizations. Barnard described organizations as “cooperative systems” and subsequent research consistent with this idea focused on Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006, p. 44). OCB is defined as, “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly nor explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the effective and efficient functioning of the organization” (Organ, Podsakoff, & Mackenzie, 2006, p. 3). OCBs have been shown to enhance organizational effectiveness, and because employee participation in these behaviors is not contractually bound, understanding the mechanisms within which these behaviors operate is essential. This section reviews the

history of the OCB construct, related constructs, the mechanisms through which it operates, and the consequence these behaviors have for organizations.

Chester Barnard (1938) analyzed organizations through a systems approach, examining the nature of organizations. Barnard was the first to recognize the formal and informal systems in organizations. Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) examined the findings of the famous Hawthorne experiments, and like Barnard, they drew a distinction between the formal and informal organization. The formal system referred to “the system policies, rules, and regulations which expressed what the relations of one person to another are supposed to be in order to achieve effectively the task of technical production” (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006, p. 49). The informal system is made up of the “contributions by individuals that go beyond the content of contractual obligations, obedience to legitimate authority or calculated striving for remuneration as mediated by the formal organization” (Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 2006, p. 48). These early observations of the informal system provided the foundation for the development of the OCB concept.

Researchers had accepted the popular belief that “worker satisfaction affected productivity;” however, “empirical findings offered little evidence to support such a view” (Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2006, p. 15). Confronted with these findings, Organ and his colleagues sought to explain why the expected relationship was not supported. They found that worker satisfaction contributed in part to productivity. These researchers posed the question “What are the things you'd like your employees to do more of, but really can't make them do, and for which you can't guarantee any definite rewards, other than your appreciation?” (Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie,

2006, p. 16). Based on these responses, a scale was created and administered. The results identified two specific types of employee's behavior, altruism and conscientiousness. Altruism, or helping behaviors are directed towards individuals, and conscientiousness or generalized compliant behaviors, are contributed more to the group or organization (Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2006). These two types of behaviors became known as organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). OCB is defined as, "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly nor explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the effective and efficient functioning of the organization" (Organ, Podsakoff, & Mackenzie, 2006, p. 3).

Since the conceptualization of OCB, several studies have investigated this phenomenon. Findings from the research identified additional OCB behaviors, other constructs related but delineated from OCB and antecedents along with consequences of these behaviors. Subsequent paragraphs will provide a review and summary of these findings.

Once researchers termed the phenomenon and developed measures, research began to advance understanding of organizational citizenship behaviors. Currently, there are "40 measures of OCB dimensions that appear in the literature" (Organ, Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 2006, p. 26). On the other hand, "analysis suggests that seven factors capture the distinctions within and among OCB dimensions: helping, compliance, sportsmanship, civic virtue, organizational loyalty, self-development, and individual initiative" (Organ, Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 2006, p. 26). Table 1 outlines these dimensions in greater detail. Additionally, researchers have found that the

majority of OCBs can be categorized as: Organizational Citizenship Behavior directed towards an individual (OCB-I) and Organizational Citizenship Behavior directed towards the organization (OCB-O). Not all researchers conceptualize OCBs in the same manner. However, grouping the behaviors identified in the literature under these categories helps to make sense of the developments and directions of OCB research.

Table 1

Seven Themes of the OCB Construct

OCB Dimensions		
Behavior	Definition	Source
Helping/Altruism	voluntarily helping others with, or preventing the occurrence of, work related problems	(Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000, p. 516)
Sportsmanship	a willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining	(Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000, p. 517)
Organizational Loyalty	promoting the organization to outsiders, protecting and defending it against external threats and remaining committed to it even under adverse conditions	(Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000, p. 517)
Organizational Compliance	internalization and acceptance of the organization's rules, regulations, and procedures, which results in scrupulous adherence to them, even when no one observes or monitors compliance	(Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000, p.517)
Individual Initiative	engaging in task-related behaviors at a level that is so far beyond minimally required or generally expected levels that it takes on a voluntary flavor	(Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000, p.524)
Civic Virtue	a willingness to participate actively in organizational governance; to monitor its environment for threats and opportunities; and to look out for the its best interests, even at great personal cost	(Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000, p.525)
Self-Development	voluntary behaviors employees engage in to improve their knowledge, skills, and abilities	(Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000, p.525)

Despite the rather extensive development and research of the OCB construct, similar ideas continued to be identified. Three of these constructs are contextual performance, pro-social organizational behavior and extra-role behavior. Borman and

Motowildo (1993), along with other psychologists, continued researching ways to explain the finding that worker satisfaction does not affect productivity. Examining personality traits as a predict performance, Borman and Motowildo distinguished contextual performance from task performance. Task performance is thought of as "one's knowledge, skills and abilities" otherwise known as intelligence (Organ et al., 2006, p. 31). Contextual performance (CP) consists of "contributions that sustain an ethos of cooperation and interpersonal supportiveness of the group" (Organ et al., 2006, p. 31). Researchers found that, "CP measures support the idea that established personality measures predict CP better than they predict core task performance or productivity" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Campbell, 1994; Pulakos, Borman & Hough, 1988 as cited in Organ et al., 2006, p.31). The major difference between OCB and contextual performance is that contextual performance does not differentiate between behaviors or rewards that are part of the job.

Another related construct is pro-social organizational behavior (POB), which "describes any behavior in an organizational setting aimed at improving the welfare of someone to whom the behavior is directed" (2006, p. 32). The concepts of OCB and POB differ in that POB does not limit the behaviors to those related to an organization or a job description. Another term often related to the OCB construct is *extra-role behavior* (ERB). ERB is defined as "behavior that attempts to benefit the organization and that goes beyond existing role expectations" (Organ et al., 2006, p. 33). Although several ideas pertaining to OCB and ERB overlap, there are clear distinctions. ERB involves some behaviors such as whistle blowing that might not facilitate a cooperative

endeavor in the short-term, but rather produce controversy. These are just a few examples of constructs related to the OCB framework.

Due to the numerous forms of OCB and the various frameworks related to it, measurement and interpretation of the construct can be difficult. Farh, Zhong, and Organ (2002) explored the idea that varying cultures and economic systems would yield different patterns of OCB. Results supported that hypothesis, but Konovsky, Elliot, and Pugh (1995) "found the same factor structure of OCB in Mexico that had previously been identified in the U.S. locations" (Organ, et al., 2006, p. 30). As a consequence of these findings, some researchers urged the consideration of context prior to operationalizing the OCB construct.

Another measurement concern is that some of the behaviors described as OCB are actually part of the job. However, the key words for defining OCB are *discretion* and *variance*. If there are "some people or groups in the organization that contribute more than others do" then the employees participating are expressing a form of OCB. Although the behaviors may be part of the job, the variance in participation differs; and if the participation contributes to the functioning of the organization, it qualifies as OCB. Despite some problems related to the conceptual and operational measures of OCB, the research suggests, "the construct and its measures have met the norm of pragmatism" (Organ et al., 2006, p. 39).

The numerous forms of OCB found in the literature fall into the seven common themes previously referenced. Although there are several related constructs to the OCB framework, OCB differs from these constructs in subtle but important ways. The conceptualization and measurement of OCB varies because it is influenced by context.

The discretion and variance of employee behaviors that aid in the effective functioning of the organization are criteria that qualify the behaviors as OCB.

Organizational behavior is a complex phenomenon, and the antecedents and conditions that influence it vary. "The extent to which an employee exhibits organizational citizenship behavior is a function of the employee's ability, motivation, and opportunity" (Organ et al., p. 93, 2006). Attitudes and dispositional variables such as personality were thought to be major sources of influence in explaining the reasons why certain employees exhibited OCB. Subsequently, leadership and environmental factors helped explain more about employees' participation in OCBs; consequently, researchers began to focus more on these factors. Aside from the conditions that influence OCBs, researchers identified potential consequences that occur at the individual and organizational level, when individual OCB scores are aggregated. Understanding the antecedents and consequences of this phenomenon is likely to be important in understanding organizational effectiveness. The subsequent paragraphs examine the influential factors and consequences of OCBs.

Social psychologists, argue that attitudes and dispositions are best predicted in patterns or trends that take place over time (Epstein, 1980, p. 804). Defining attitudes in reference to the work place entails assessing "how hard they [employees] work, how much they achieve, whether they vote for a union, how frequently they miss work or whether they look for another job" (Organ et al., 2006, p. 66). The term that incorporates these attitudes and behaviors is *job satisfaction*. Which it is argued causes performance. It was thought that personality traits of an individual might "predispose an individual toward some forms of OCB" (Organ et al., 2006, p. 82). Researchers efforts

examined job satisfaction through related concepts such as morale, fairness, commitment, or other similar concepts. In sum, "each of these measures had significant relationships with citizenship behaviors" (Bateman & Organ, 1983; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Smith et al., 1983; Organ & Ryan, 1995).

On the other hand, the research pertaining to dispositional factors provided weak evidence to support a causal relationship between OCB and personality/dispositional characteristics. Organ and Ryan's meta-analysis concluded that, job related attitudes and satisfaction were strong predictors of OCB; however, "dispositional measures did not correlate nearly as well with OCB" (1995, p. 775). Some researchers have contradictory findings and valid reasoning for the lack of evidence to support the connections between these variables and OCBs (Smith et al., 1983; Comeau & Griffith, 2005; Borman, Penner, Allen & Motowidlo, 2001). However, most of the evidence suggests that "job attitudes mediate any effects of personality, i.e., the effects of personality on OCB are mostly indirect" (Organ et al., 2006, p. 90).

Due to the fact work environments and leaders, "influence the motivation ability, or opportunity for employees to exhibit OCB," researchers examined these factors in determining employee levels of OCB (Organ et al., 2006, p. 93). Initially, task characteristics were used as a substitute for leadership and these variables provided "consistent relationships with OCBs" (Podakoff et al., 1996; Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 531; Farh et al., 1990; Van Dyne et al.; 1994). Subsequently, Organ et al. noted several ways a leader can augment employee participation in OCB. Some examples include, "select employees who have a greater ability to exhibit OCB because of their

dispositional characteristics, by modeling forms of the behaviors, or by shaping the work environment to provide greater opportunities for OCB" (Organ et al., 2006, p. 94). Leadership behavior and styles that have a strong relationship with OCB include instrumental and supportive, leader reward/punishment, transformational, transactional, leader-member exchange, servant and consideration leadership, leadership empowerment behavior, charismatic leadership and ethical leadership (Babmale et al., 2011; Jiao, et al., 2011; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Cho & Dansereau, 2012, Wang et al., 2005; Meierhans et al., 2008; Fisk & Friesen et al., 2011; Walumbwa et al., 2010; Shin, 2012; Ruiz-Palmonio et al., 2011; Boerner et al., 2008; Babcock-Roberson & Stickland, 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Organizational characteristics, that create conditions in the work environment, have mixed consequences for OCB. "Organizational formalization, organizational inflexibility, advisory/staff support or spatial distances have inconsistent relationships with citizenship behaviors" (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 531). These non-convergent findings suggest that there is an inadequate understanding of the relationship between OCB and organizational structure. However, group cohesiveness and perceived organizational support have had positive relationships with OCB (Podsakoff, 1996; Organ et al., 2006). "Thus, leaders can potentially enhance OCB by changing the structure of the tasks employees perform, the conditions under which they do their work, and/or human resource practices that govern their behavior" (Organ et al., 2006, p. 94).

Employee participation in OCB produces important consequences at the individual and organization levels. OCB has implications for performance evaluations,

career advancements and salaries. Organ et al, Shore et al and Allen and Rush summarized the finding, noting that, "OCBs predicted managerial ratings of employees' perceived affective commitment, and these commitments were positively related to both the supervisors' ratings of employees' managerial potential, their ability to be promoted and the supervisors' responsiveness to employee requests for salary increases, training and performance feedback" (Organ, Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 2006, p. 144).

Another consequence of OCB is organizational effectiveness; current empirical research validates this claim. Some of the mechanisms by which OCB influences organizational effectiveness include:

enhanced coworker productivity, managerial productivity, free up resources for more productive purposes, reduce the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions, aids in coordinating activities between team members and across work groups, enhance the organization's ability to attract and retain the best people by making it a more attractive place to work, enhances the stability of organizational performance, enhances the organization's ability to adapt to environmental changes and enhances effectiveness by creating social capital. (Organ et al., 2006, p. 200-202).

In part because some controversy pertaining to the directionality of the relationships as well as measures used to validate consequences of OCB exist, further investigation is warranted. In sum, OCB, consequences are incurred at both the individual and organizational level in terms of performance evaluation, promotions, salary and organizational effectiveness.

It seems clear that OCB is strongly influenced by leadership and the work environment, and that in these behaviors hold positive consequences for the organization and its members. It is important to attend to OCB research related to the specific context within which organizational members operate in order to define, measure, and understand the construct.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Schools

Current evidence suggests that OCB when aggregated to the work group is a property or function of the organizational context (George & Jones 1997). For the purpose of this study, examining OCB in schools requires an examination of influential factors specific to schools. However, there is little research on the study of OCB in the school setting (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005; DiPaola & Tshannen-Moran, 2001; Bogler & Somech, 2005; Khalid et al., 2010). In this section, a summary of OCB school research is summarized.

Organizational citizenship behavior is context specific. Efforts to measure OCB in schools required the development of instruments specific to schools. Studies found that school OCB has either a single factor, or two factors: organizational citizenship behaviors directed at individuals (OCB-I) and organizational citizenship behaviors directed at the organization (OCB-O) (Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2000; Dipaola & Neves, 2009; Dipaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2011; Jimmieson et al., 2010). On the other hand, researchers found discrepancies in defining school OCB. These problems surfaced when examining the source of measurement or method used to define OCB (Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010; Sengupta et al., 2010; Polat, 2009). Researchers investigated other stakeholder's assessments of teacher OCB and found that

stakeholder's differ in how they define OCB and their ability or opportunity to observe OCB (Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010; Sengupta et al., 2010; Polat, 2009). Despite the issues with measurement, researchers have generally accepted, used and validated the use of instruments that measure the construct as one construct having two factors: OCB-I and OCB-O.

Behaviors identified as falling under the OCB construct in schools include: teachers helping students on their own time, teachers rarely being absent, teachers voluntarily helping new teachers, serving on committees, sponsoring extracurricular activities, being on time, making innovative suggestions to improve the quality of school, decorating the school, participating in student celebrations, and continuing to develop expertise (Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2000; Dipaola & Neves, 2009; Dipaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2011; Jimmieson et al., 2010). Although this list is not comprehensive, there are differences in these behaviors and those of employees in other organizations. As a result, using measures developed for the school context, which are both valid and reliable, seems appropriate.

The environment and leadership in schools differ from other organizations. In schools, the supervision and oversight of teachers is limited. Therefore, the practice of particular work methods and procedures is left to the discretion of teachers. Additionally, teachers serve students who can vary vastly and the methods, programs, and processes needed to address individual student needs appropriately are not easily standardized. There is no one best practice that meets each child's unique needs. Working relationships in schools also differ from other organizations because great

dependence on teacher expertise and practice are needed with little oversight and direction.

Consequently, a variety of mechanisms can be found in schools that appear related to high levels of teacher OCB. These mechanisms include: shared-leadership, positive school climate, collective school culture, perceived superior support, participatory decision making, transformational and transactional leadership, trust, clear expectations, procedural justice and job satisfaction (Zeinabadi & Salehi, 2011; Khasawneh, 2011; Elstad & Christophersen, 2011; Oguz, 2010; Bogler & Somech, 2005; Somech & Ron, 2007; DiPaola & Tshannen-Moran, 2001). Based on current findings, OCB in schools is cultivated when the leadership styles, decision-making processes, culture and expectations foster a spirit of value and inclusiveness that enhances the job satisfaction of teachers.

Research examining the consequences of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors within schools has identified consequences that were highlighted in the general body of research, influences in evaluation and organizational effectiveness. Additionally, educational researchers have identified more consequences specific to school organizations. Some of these consequences include increased student achievement, student quality of school life, and job performance (Hannam & Jimmieson; Oplatka, 2009; Khazaei et al., 2011; Jimmieson et al., 2010; DiPaola & Hoy, 2005; Khalid et al., 2010; Burns & Carpenter, 2008). Student achievement scores on standardized tests are commonly used as indicators of school effectiveness. However, the socioeconomic status of students is also a significant moderating variable to consider when examining student achievement (Coleman et al., 1966, p. 22). The significant relationship between

student achievement and faculty OCB remains after controlling for SES (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005, p. 35). Thus, OCB appears crucial for school organizations. Taken together, school OCB has positive consequences for students, teachers and the organization as a whole.

“Organizational charts, employment agreements, and job descriptions fail to address all the contingencies that arise in school” (DiPaola & Tshannen-Moran, 2001, p. 433). Thus, OCB is necessary to achieve school goals. However, these behaviors take on forms suited to the unique work environments in which teachers operate. Because these behaviors are dependent on context, their measurement and consequences also differ. Thus, OCB researchers have, “argued for consideration of context,” because “significant forms of OCB...might take on different forms or emphasis--and therefore require variations in operationalization” (Organ et al., 2006, p. 30). Thus, context specific research relating to the OCB seems to hold true within schools; however, examination of the organizational structures within schools is needed in order to better understand the conditions under which schools can be effective.

Organizational Structures and Schools

The classical and scientific management schools of thought that preceded the human relations approach viewed organizational members as machines (March & Simon, 1958). “This does not mean that the classical theory is totally wrong or needs to be totally displaced, it means that under certain circumstances dealing with an organization as a simple machine produces outcomes unanticipated by the classical theory” (March & Simon, 1958, p. 35). Some of the unanticipated consequences include “a reduction in the amount of personalized relationships, the internalization of the rules

of the organization, and an increased use of categorization as decision-making technique. (March & Simon, 1958, p. 38-39)

Bureaucratic styles of organizing focus on machine-like processes, possibly a reasonable approach for simple tasks; however, the processes of teaching and learning are complex. Machine-like processes and bureaucratic structures fall short when “managing organisms whose motivations and learning behavior are much more complicated than those contemplated in the machine model” (March & Simon, 1958, p. 82). Thus, organizational structures in schools are more likely to be effective if they take into account the work, the people who accomplish the tasks, and the interrelated processes inherent in accomplishing those tasks.

Work within schools involves unanticipated, changing dynamics that often lack a prescriptive solution; therefore, the organizational structures within schools must fit this type of work. Researchers acknowledge that there are tasks within educational organizations that are simple and can be accomplished by following the standard, repeatable methods. Such tasks depend on formalization, i.e., “the degree to which the organization has written rules, regulations, procedures and policies” (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001, p. 297). However, schools also differ in the clientele they serve, the amount and number of resources and locale such as rural, urban, or suburban. As a result, many conditions cannot be anticipated and related decisions are difficult to formalize.

Centralization is characterized by, “the degree to which employees participate in decision making” (How & Sweetland, 2001, p.299). Formalization is characterized by, “the degree to which the organization has written rules, regulations, procedures or policies” (How & Sweetland, 2001, p.297). Researchers created a single factor structure

as result of empirical research identifying that these two constructs were not empirically distinct. Using these two concepts as a single factor—centralization vs. formalization, researchers studied organizational structures within schools. Findings indicated that, “school bureaucracy varied along a single continuum with enabling bureaucracy at one extreme and hindering bureaucracy at the other; enabling bureaucracy was a bipolar construct” (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001, p.304). An enabling bureaucracy is characterized as,

a hierarchy that helps rather than hinders and a system of rules and regulations that guides problem solving rather than punishes failure. In an enabling school structure principals and teachers work cooperatively across recognized authority boundaries while still retaining their distinctive roles. Similarly, rules and regulations are flexible guides for problem solving rather than constraints that create problems. In brief, both hierarchy and rules are mechanisms to support teachers rather than vehicles to enhance principal power (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001, p. 318).

A hindering school bureaucracy is characterized by,

a hierarchy that impedes and a system of rules and regulations that is coercive. The basic objective of the hierarchy is disciplined compliance of teachers. The underlying administrative assumption in hindering structures is that teacher behavior must be closely managed and strictly controlled. To achieve the goal of disciplined compliance, the hierarchy rules are used to gain conformity. Indeed, rules and regulations are used to buttress administrative control, which in turn typically hinders the effectiveness of teachers. In sum, the roles of hierarchy and

rules are to assure that reluctant, incompetent, and irresponsible teachers do what administrators prescribe. The power of the principal is enhanced but the work of the teachers is diminished (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001, p. 318).

Hoy and Sweetland found “the more enabling a school bureaucracy, the greater the degree of faculty trust, the less truth spinning and the less role conflict” (2001, p. 301). High levels of trust have been found in “effective, complex organizations” (Forsyth, Adams & Hoy, 2011, p. 156). Trust and role clarity are “thought to be key determinants of OCB” (Organ et al., 2006, p. 97). Together these findings suggest that OCB within schools might be fostered through the use of an enabling, bureaucratic, organizational structure.

Organizational structures that match the work to be performed facilitate behaviors that aid in accomplishing the goals of the organization. As mentioned earlier, a dysfunction of the bureaucratic structure includes a reduction in personalized relationships and internalization of the rules of the organization. The internalization of the rules of the organization results in a complex situation in which “displacement of goals” occurs (March & Simon, 1958, p. 38). The displacement of goals occurs as a result of the rules of the organization being internalized to the extent that they no longer are a method to achieve the organizational goals but become an instrumental activity (March & Simon, 1958). A reduction in personalized relationships can hinder the facilitation of trust. Additionally, goal displacement negatively influences the accomplishment of organizational goals and effectiveness. To fulfill the organizational goals of schools a different type of structure is needed.

Conversely, an enabling bureaucratic structure builds trust (a determinant of OCB) and involves decision-making processes that are inclusive and less formal, both of which fit the work that occurs in schools. An enabling bureaucracy seems to be a good fit as the structure that facilitates behaviors needed to accomplish the work within schools.

CHAPTER 3: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Literature pertaining to Organizational Citizenship Behavior identified that leadership and work environments are variables that has shown a consistent relationship with this phenomenon. The purpose of this study was to examine the structural features of schools that result in various teacher OCBs. Structural features include conditions created by principals or the organization. Therefore, this study examined the organizational structure within the schools, the leadership style of the principal, and their relationship with Organizational Citizenship Behavior.

Organizational structure is used as a means to control or standardize the behavior of employees. Bureaucratic styles of organizing focus on machine-like processes, possibly a reasonable approach for simple tasks; however, the processes of teaching and learning are complex. Machine-like processes and bureaucratic structures fall short when “managing organisms whose motivations and learning behavior are much more complicated than those contemplated in the machine model” (March & Simon, 1958, p. 82). Thus, organizational structures within schools need to take into account the work, the people who accomplish the tasks, and the interrelated processes inherent in accomplishing those tasks. Work within schools involves unanticipated, changing dynamics that often lack a prescriptive solution; therefore, the organizational structures within schools must fit this type of work.

Hoy & Sweetland characterize organizational structures within schools as operating on a continuum with hindering at one end and enabling at the other (2001). An enabling school structure is defined as, a hierarchy that helps rather than hinders and a system of rules and regulations that guides problem solving rather than punishes

failure” (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001, p.318). A hindering school structure is defined as, “a hierarchy that impedes and a system of rules and regulations that is coercive” (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001, p.318). Research has identified that an enabling bureaucratic structure builds trust (a determinant of OCB) and involves decision-making processes that are inclusive and less formal, both of which fit the work that occurs in schools. Thus, an enabling bureaucracy seems to be a good fit as the structure that facilitates behaviors needed to accomplish the work within schools.

Organizational structure has been identified as an antecedent to Organizational Citizenship Behavior; however, the findings pertaining to this relationship have been mixed. These non-convergent findings suggest that there is an inadequate understanding of the relationship between organizational structure and organizational citizenship behavior. However, researchers still support the proposition that leaders can potentially enhance Organizational Citizenship by, “changing the structure of the tasks employees perform, the conditions under which they do their work, and/or human resource practices that govern their behavior” (Organ et al., 2006, p.94). Additionally researchers note that, “changes in the personality of individual members of the organization stem from factors in the organizational structure” (March & Simon, 1958, p. 38). Based on previous findings and research about behavior and organizational structure this study hypothesized that organizational structure will influence teacher Organizational Citizenship Behavior.

Transformational Leadership is one of several different types of leadership styles a leader can enact. “Transformational leadership involves fundamentally changing the values, goals, and aspirations of employees so that they are intrinsically

motivated to perform their work because it is consistent with their values” (Organ et al., 2006, p.98). There are four components that characterize transformational leadership: charisma/idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration/individualized attention (Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003). The spirit of transformational leadership is to motivate followers to go above and beyond role expectations (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006). Transformational leaders are able to do this by: articulating a vision, providing an appropriate role model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, providing individualized support and intellectual stimulation, and expressing high performance expectations (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Many of these transformational leadership behaviors are thought to influence Organizational Citizenship (Organ et al., 2006).

Many leadership styles have been shown to have a significant positive relationship with Organizational Citizenship Behavior. One of the major types of leadership styles that has shown a positive significant relationship with Organizational Citizenship Behavior is transformational leadership. Organ et al. noted several ways a leader can augment employee participation in OCB. Some examples include, "select employees who have a greater ability to exhibit OCB because of their dispositional characteristics, by modeling forms of the behaviors, or by shaping the work environment to provide greater opportunities for OCB" (Organ et al., 2006, p. 94). Bass, Jung & Avolio note that transformational leaders, “transform followers’ basic values, beliefs, and attitudes for the sake of a higher collective purpose, such that they are willing to perform beyond the minimum levels specified by the organization” (Nahum-

Shani & Somech, 2011, p.353). Because Organizational Citizenship Behaviors are extra-role behaviors, “they are likely to be promoted by transformational leaders who can motivate their followers to perform above and beyond their role description” (Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011, p.353). Theoretical and empirical research suggests that there is reason to believe that transformational leadership positively influences extra-role or organizational citizenship behaviors (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990). Therefore, this study advanced a second hypothesis, that principal’s transformational leadership behavior will influence teacher Organizational Citizenship Behavior.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior is defined as, “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly nor explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the effective and efficient functioning of the organization” (Organ, Podsakoff, & Mackenzie, 2006, p. 3). These behaviors aid in the efficient and effective functioning of the organization because employees contribute in ways that are needed. These behaviors are neither anticipated nor required; therefore, the need for these behaviors in work environments and jobs that cannot easily predict the necessary work, are vital. The literature identified leadership and work environments as predominant antecedents to these behaviors, both of which are intensely related to organizational structure. Therefore, it would be logical to deduce that leadership organizational structure in schools should influence teacher OCB, as illustrated in Figure 1.

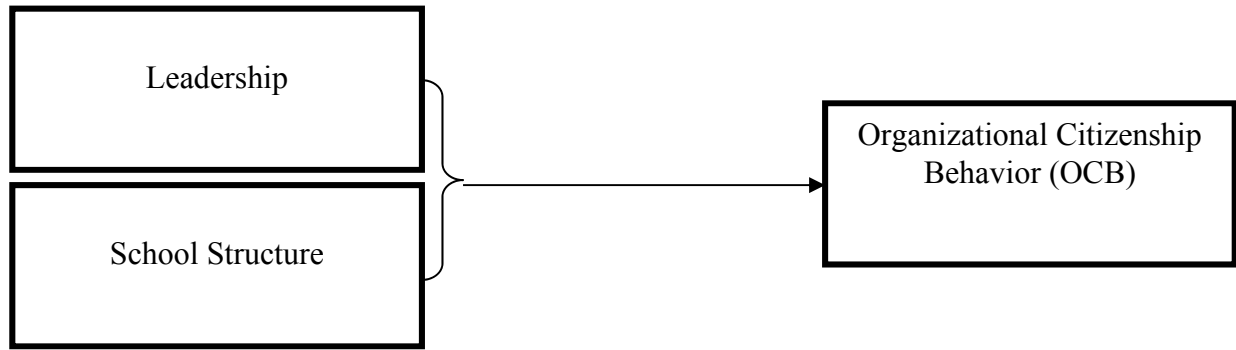


Figure 1. Theoretical Model of proposed factors influencing the level of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) in schools.

CHAPTER 4: METHOD

Design and Procedures

This study will examine OCB within schools. Specifically, it will investigate the relationship between a set of predictor variables: leadership and organizational structure and their influence on teacher OCB. Previous research has identified leadership as a strong predictor of teacher OCB. However, organizational structure's relationship with OCB has been mixed. Additional variables will be examined as controls: Socioeconomic Status, prior achievement, school level, the number of years taught and the number of years a teacher has been in the school. A hierarchical model will be used to assess the relationship between predictor variables and teacher OCB.

Participants

The participants for this study were employees of a large urban school district in Oklahoma. The district consists of 86 schools in this district participated in the study, approximately 42,000 students and 7,000 employees. There are 56 elementary schools, 12 junior high/middle schools, 9 high schools and 9 alternative schools. Elementary schools included grades pre-k-6th, junior high or middle schools included grades 6-8 and high schools included grades 9-12. A total of 71 schools participated in this study.

Measures

The Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Schools Scale (OCBSS), socioeconomic status (SES), the Leadership Behavior Scale (LBS), the Enabling School Structure Scale (ESS) and objective measure of school structure. The data was collected during the 2012-2013 academic school year.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Schools Scale (OCBSS)

Organizational Citizenship Behavior is defined as, “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly nor explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the effective and efficient functioning of the organization” (Organ, Podsakoff, & Mackenzie, 2006, p. 3). Measuring Organizational Citizenship in different contexts requires different measurement tools. Dipaola, Tarter & Hoy developed and tested a scale to measure Organizational Citizenship within the school context. The instrument they developed was the, Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Schools Scale (OCBSS). This scale aggregates the individual teacher scores to the school level. The instrument contains 12 items and some examples include: “teachers help students on their own time, teacher voluntarily help new teachers, teachers serve on new committees, and teachers volunteer to sponsor extracurricular activities” (Dipaola, Tarter & Hoy, 2005, p.247). Reliability of this instrument ranges from .86 to .93. OCBSS uses a Likert-type scale that with a response set ranging from 1-6, with a 1 representing strongly disagree and 6 representing strongly agree. The higher the score, the greater extent of organizational citizenship (Dipaola, Tarter & Hoy, 2005).

Leadership

This study examined the transformational leadership style of the principal. Transformational leadership involves, “fundamentally changing the values, goals, and aspirations of employees so that they are intrinsically motivated to perform their work because it is consistent with their values” (Organ et al., 2006, p.98). There are four components that characterize transformational leadership: charisma/idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual motivation, intellectual stimulation, and

individualized consideration/individualized attention (Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003). A modified version of the transformational/transactional leadership behavior scale (LBS) will be used to assess the principal's transformational leadership behavior. This scale was reduced from 27 items to 7 items ranging on a scale from 1-6. The scale examines seven key behaviors of transformational leaders: articulating a vision, modeling, fostering group cohesion, setting high performance expectations, providing individualized support, challenges assumptions and the status quo, and recognizes outstanding work. The reduced scale retained factor integrity and reliability with an alpha coefficient of .94.

Organizational Structure

“Two salient aspects of bureaucratic organization are formalization (formal rules and procedures) and centralization (hierarchy of authority)” (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001, p.340). Examining these aspects along a continuum with hindering on one end and enabling on the other researchers created the Enabling School Structure Scale (ESS). An enabling school structure is defined as, a hierarchy that helps rather than hinders and a system of rules and regulations that guides problem solving rather than punishes failure” (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001, p.318). A hindering school structure is defined as, “a hierarchy that impedes and a system of rules and regulations that is coercive” (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001, p.318). The ESS scale was developed by Hoy & Sweetland in 2001. It is comprised of 12 items measuring the degree to which formalization and centralization are hindering or enabling. It measures school structure as a teacher perception. The school aggregate operates on a continuum, with higher scores indicating a more enabling bureaucracy and a lower score indicating a more hindering bureaucracy (Hoy

& Sweetland, 2001). These measures have been shown to be valid and reliable with measures ranging from .46 - .64 and alpha coefficients of .90 or higher (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001, p. 201).

Socioeconomic Status

Poverty levels will be operationalized using the percentages of students enrolled in the Free and Reduced Lunch Program at each school site.

Prior Achievement

Prior achievement was measured by using standardized math achievement scores from the 2012- 2013 academic year.

Research Design and Analysis

In order to examine the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable Pearson's Correlations and a Spearman's Ro analysis was conducted. Pearson's Correlations is useful because it "expresses visually and numerically what the relationship may be between the evaluator's study variables" (Abbott, 2010, p.49). Following the Pearson's Correlation, a Spearman's Ro analysis was used because some of the variables included in the Pearson's Correlation violated assumptions of the analysis. Finally, a multiple hierarchal regression was used to assess the relationship between organizational citizenship, leadership and structure. This statistical method is used "when the researcher specifies the order in which variables are entered into a regression equation" (Pierce, 2005, p.18). The use of this analysis will aid in understanding the unique contribution of each of the independent variables as well as help explain the variance of OCBs based on the group of variables. The variables were

assessed in a three-step model with Organizational Citizenship Behavior as the dependent variable. The initial stage assessed the controls: prior achievement, socioeconomic status and school level. Both the controls and structure were entered in stage two. Finally, the controls, structure, and leadership were simultaneously analyzed in stage three. The variables were entered in this order based on the theory presented in the *a priori* hypotheses.

CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS

The data were analyzed to address the research hypotheses: Leadership within schools influences teacher Organizational Citizenship Behavior and organizational structure within schools influences teacher Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Initially, the Pearson's Correlation was used to examine the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. However, after further examination large variability existed within the sample; therefore, Spearman's Rho was also used to re-analyze organizational citizenship, school level and SES. One assumption that must be considered when using Pearson's Correlations is that, "both variables should be normally distributed" (Abbott, 2010, p.81). However, after examining the data, school level and SES were not found to be normally distributed. Subsequently, school level and SES were treated as dummy variables by bisecting the distribution and a Spearman's Rho analysis was performed. These additional steps needed to be made to adjust for the large variability within the sample. The district participating in the study is urban and over half of the sample size had a large percentage of students qualifying for free and reduced lunch. Additionally, over half of the schools were elementary. Table 2 presents descriptive statistics and correlations among the study variables.

Pearson correlations

OCB and Independent Variables

	M	SD	OCB	SES	SL	TLB	ESS	PA	Y/T	Y/S
OCB	4.50	.44	—	-.36**	.17(NS)	.55**	.52**	.38**	.11(NS)	.10(NS)
SES	.56	.56	-.36**	—	.18(NS)	-.15(NS)	-.38**	-.77**	-.32**	-.49**
SL	.70	.46	.17(NS)	.18(NS)	—	-.01(NS)	.06(NS)	-.04(NS)	-.00(NS)	-.03(NS)
TLB	4.54	.70	.55**	-.15(NS)	-.01(NS)	—	.60**	.21(NS)	.24**	.03(NS)
ESS	4.62	.67	.52**	-.37**	.06(NS)	.60**	—	.41**	.30**	.20(NS)
PA	1.83	1.00	.38**	-.77**	-.04(NS)	.21(NS)	.39**	—	.36**	.52**
Y/T	13.93	3.14	.11(NS)	-.32**	-.00(NS)	.24**	.30*	.36**	—	.65**
Y/S	6.37	2.54	.10(NS)	-.48**	-.03(NS)	.03(NS)	.20(NS)	.52**	.65**	—

Note. OCB=Organizational Citizenship Behavior, SES=socioeconomic status, SL=school level, TLB=Transformational Leadership Behavior, ESS=enabling school structure, PA=prior achievement, Y/T=number of years taught, and Y/S=number of years in school.
*Spearman's Rho correlations are in boldface. *p<.05 and **p<.01*

Table 2

The analysis produced significant positive correlations between Organizational Citizenship and enabling school structure ($r=.52, p<.01$), leadership ($r=.55, p<.01$) and previous school achievement ($r=.38, p<.01$). As expected, there was a negative correlation between Organizational Citizenship and free and reduced lunch status ($r=-.36, p<.01$) and no significant correlation between Organizational Citizenship and school level, number of years a teacher had taught, or the number of years a teacher had been working in the same school. The number of years a teacher had taught and the number of years a teacher had been working within the school were excluded from the regression model because they did not have a significant relationship with Organizational Citizenship. School level also did not have a significant relationship with Organizational Citizenship but was still included in the regression model as a control.

Using SPSS a multiple hierarchical regression was performed. In a hierarchical regression, the independent variables are entered in steps using a predetermined order. The order is determined by a theory or hypothesis the researcher wants to test. According to Schawb (2002) control variables are entered first followed by the independent variables under examination (Schawb, 2002). Then, a statistical assessment of the change in R squared from the initial stage is used to evaluate the importance of the variables entered in the subsequent stage (Schawb, 2002).

This research used a three-step model with Organizational Citizenship Behavior as the dependent variable. Results are presented in Table 3. In model one the controls: prior achievement, socioeconomic status and school level were entered. Both the controls and structure were entered in model two. Finally, the controls, structure, and

leadership were simultaneously analyzed in model three. The variables were entered in this order based on the theory presented in the *a priori* hypotheses. The results indicated that altogether these variables accounted for 45.1% of the variance in teacher display of Organizational Citizenship Behavior.

Table 3

OCB and Predictor Variables

Multiple Hierarchical Regression for research variables

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
PA	.21(.00)	.08(.00)	.09(.00)
SES	-.25(-.22)	-.16(.11)	-.23(.11)*
SL	.22(.21)*	.19(.10)	.22(.09)*
ESS		.41(.08)**	.11(.09)
TLB			.44(.07)**
R ²	.198	.329	.451
Change in R ²		.131	.122

Note. SES=socioeconomic status, SL=school level, TLB=Transformational Leadership Behavior, ESS=enabling school structure, PA=prior achievement, and NS=not significant. Values are standardized regression coefficients. Standard errors are in parenthesis. Significance at: *p<0.05 and **p<0.01

Hypothesis 1

Organizational structure within schools influences teacher Organizational Citizenship Behavior. The first hypothesis was tested using a Multiple Hierarchical Regression with organizational structure and leadership entered into the regression as predictor variables and SES, prior achievement and school level were also entered as controls. In model two the controls and enabling school structure were entered. As

predicted, in model two enabling school structure was a significant predictor of Organizational Citizenship ($\beta=.41$, $p<.01$). Enabling school structure increased the variance in Organizational Citizenship by twenty percent when added to the controls.

In model three, the final model, the controls, organizational structure and leadership were entered into the regression. However, enabling school structure dropped below significance level. This could be explained by several factors including the strong bivariate correlation between enabling school structure and transformational leadership behavior ($r=.60$). Some other factors to consider based on the results include: the small sample size, multicollinearity, suppression or the measurement tools. This study examined data from a single school district which provided limited data. There were 71 schools included in the analysis; however, this sample size is relatively small. As a result, any generalization is to the theory rather than the population (Yin, 2009). As mentioned, transformational leadership and enabling school structure were strongly correlated ($r=.60$, $p<.001$). Highly correlated variables can produce analytical problems with multicollinearity. As a result, the actual relationship between enabling school structure and Organizational Citizenship could be masked.

Previous studies examining the relationship between Organizational Citizenship and structure have provided mixed results. These noncongruent findings suggest that there is an inadequate understanding of the relationship between these variables or issues with the tools used to measure these constructs. This does not mean that organizational structure does not play a role in Organizational Citizenship Behavior but it is most likely that much of the variance in OCB is attributable to overlap in either meaning or measurement of ESS and TLB.

Hypothesis 2

Leadership within schools influences teacher Organizational Citizenship. The second hypothesis was tested in the final model of the Multiple Hierarchical Regression. In the final model the controls were entered first, then organizational structure, and finally leadership was entered.

As expected, transformational leadership was a significant and strong predictor of teacher Organizational Citizenship ($\beta=.44$, $p<0.05$). In fact the strongest predictor of teacher Organizational Citizenship Behavior was leadership. Therefore, the higher the levels of transformational leadership behavior exhibited by the principal, the higher the levels of teacher Organizational Citizenship. In the final model, transformational leadership increased the variance explained beyond model two. Forty-five percent of the variance in Organizational Citizenship Behavior is explained by the combined effects of the controls, enabling school structure and transformational leadership behavior. These results support the second hypothesis that leadership within schools influenced teacher Organizational Citizenship.

Additional Variables

As previously mentioned, “changes in the personality of individual members of the organization stem from factors within the organizational structure” (March & Simon, 1958, p.38). Additionally, organizations and their internal and external environments are interdependent. Therefore, “it is important to consider a variety of variables and interactions among individuals, markets, cultures, time or organizations that are essential to the organization’s equilibrium and its survival” (Bastedo, 2006, p.711). Because of the availability of data collected from this school district, other

variables and analyses could be undertaken: school level, prior achievement, number of years taught and number of years in school.

These additional variables served as rival hypotheses. For example, changes in Organizational Citizenship could be due to family conditions such as wealth or the school's previous test performance. Initially Pearson's Correlation was used to examine if any of these variables had a relationship with Organizational Citizenship; three of them did not: number of years taught, number of years in school, and school level. These variables, with the exception of school level, were excluded from the regression model. SES and prior achievement both had a significant relationship with Organizational Citizenship and were retained in the regression model along with school level.

In the first regression model school level was entered into the equation with socioeconomic status and prior achievement, school level did not have significant positive correlation using Organizational Citizenship ($\beta=.22$, $p<.05$). Thus, higher school levels are associated with lower levels of teacher organizational citizenship. Additionally, socioeconomic status had a negative significant relationship with organizational citizenship ($\beta=-.23$, $p<.05$). Thus, the larger the free and reduced lunch population, the lower the teacher Organizational Citizenship. However, prior achievement not have a significant relationship with Organizational Citizenship ($\beta=.00$, NS).

In summary, the results indicate that the theorized model accounted for 45.1% of the variance in teachers Organizational Citizenship. Thus, after controlling for SES,

school level and prior achievement, leadership and structure together are strong predictors of teacher Organizational Citizenship behavior.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the structural features of schools, leadership and organizational structure, and their relationship with the Organizational Citizenship of teachers in an urban district. Additional variables were also examined: socio-economic status, prior achievement, school level, number of years taught and number of years in a school. The results of the study partially supported the hypothesis, the transformational leadership behavior of the principal clearly predicts teacher Organizational Citizenship. Although there were limitations to this study, some of the results are consistent with findings from earlier research. Altogether these findings hold important considerations for school professionals, their future practice, and areas for future research.

The conceptual framework identified leadership as a predictor variable for Organizational Citizenship. The inclusion of leadership as a predictor was based on previous research. Organ et al. identified leadership and work environments as strong predictors because leaders, “influence the motivation, ability, or opportunity for employees to exhibit OCB” (2006, p.93). Several studies have established a strong relationship between leadership behavior and OCB (Babmale et al., 2011; Jiao, et al., 2011; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Cho & Dansereau, 2012, Wang et al., 2005; Meierhans et al., 2008; Fisk & Friesen et al., 2012; Walumbwa et al., 2010; Shin, 2012; Ruiz-Palmonio et al., 2011; Boerner et al., 2008; Babcock-Roberson & Stickland, 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Transformational leadership behavior was identified as one of several leadership types in these studies. Findings from this study are convergent with

previous work. Transformational leadership behavior predicted Organizational Citizenship ($\beta=.44$, $p<.01$).

Organizational characteristics such as organizational structure have provided mixed relationships with Organizational Citizenship (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 531). However, these findings suggest that there is an inadequate understanding of the relationship between Organizational Citizenship and organizational structure. Organizational structure was included as a predictor variable in the conceptual framework and was a primary variable of interest in the *a priori* hypothesis. However, these analyses did not produce a significant relationship between these variables. This finding could be due to several factors including: the small sample size, multicollinearity, suppression, inadequate understanding of the relationship between these variables or the measurement instruments used to assess these variables. Despite the non-significant finding, the preponderance of evidence on Organizational Citizenship and organizational structure supports the proposition that leaders can potentially enhance OCB by changing the structure of the tasks employees perform, the conditions under which they do their work, and/or human resource practices that govern their behavior" (Organ et al., 2006, p. 94).

Organizational Citizenship has positive consequences for organizations. One of the consequences of high levels of teacher Organizational Citizenship within schools is increased student achievement (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005, p. 35). However, when assessing student achievement a significant moderating variable that must be considered is the socioeconomic status of students (Coleman et al., 1966, p. 22). This case examined both, prior achievement and socioeconomic status. The correlation results produced

significant positive correlations between Organizational Citizenship and previous school achievement ($r=.38, p<.01$) and as expected, a significant negative correlation between Organizational Citizenship and free and reduced lunch status ($r=-.36, p<.01$). However, after entering these variables into the multiple hierarchical regression only free and reduced lunch status maintained a significant relationship with Organizational Citizenship. The school's prior academic achievement did not influence teacher display of Organizational Citizenship; however.

The hierarchical regression examined several variables in relation to Organizational Citizenship. The strongest predictor variable of Organizational Citizenship was the principal's transformational leadership, suggesting the possibility that Organizational Citizenship within schools may have more to do with variables that are created by the organization than those variables outside of the school's control.

Limitations

There are some limitations and implications to consider after investigating the variables in this study. Many of the measures used in this study were self-reported measures and there are potential validity issues with using multiple sources of self-reported measures. As a quantitative case study the findings are not generalizable to a population.

One of the most commonly used social sciences methods for collecting data is the use of self-reported measures (Barker, Pistrang & Elliott, 2002). These types of measures ask the person directly for information. Although there are advantages to using self-reported measures, "the disadvantage is that there are potential validity problems" (Barker, Pistrang & Elliott, 2002, p.94). Some of the validity problems arise

because, “there are limits to a person’s conscious self-knowledge, people often do not know what influences their behavior, there are pervasive biases in the way we account for our own and others’ behavior and self-reporting bias” (Barker, Pistrang & Elliott, 2002, p.95). In this study three of the variables included in the regression were self-reported measures, organizational structure, leadership and organizational citizenship. As a result, the limits of self-reported data are important to consider when analyzing interpreting the findings.

The data used in this case study was collected from a single school district, and therefore the findings are limited and not generalizable. Additionally, caution is needed when drawing conclusions from data with a small sample size. There is a need for more research to examine Organizational Citizenship within schools in order to enhance the understanding of both researchers and practitioners.

Organizational Citizenship research in schools is limited. As a result, the relationship that Organizational Citizenship might have with other variables could provide different results or highlight other important relationships.

Implications for Practice

Previous findings and the findings from this study provide important insights for school administrators pertaining to Organizational Citizenship and its relationship with work environments and leadership. The findings suggest a strong relationship between Organizational Citizenship and leadership style. School administrators need to examine their leadership style and its consequences for employees. School leaders should utilize leadership styles that have been shown to enhance Organizational Citizenship, in particular Transformational Leadership.

As noted earlier, “organizational charts, employment agreements, and job descriptions fail to address all the contingencies that arise in school” (DiPaola & Tshannen-Moran, 2001, p. 433). Discretionary behavior such as OCB is needed within schools to achieve school goals. Because work environments and leaders, “influence the motivation, ability, or opportunity of employees to exhibit OCBs”, schools and their leaders need to examine their roles in influencing this necessary teacher behavior (Organ et. al., 2006, p.93).

The relationship between factors outside of the school’s control such as socioeconomic status, school level, and prior achievement and their relationship with Organizational Citizenship also hold important implications for future practices. Past research suggests there is an inverse relationship between socioeconomic status and Organizational Citizenship. It also suggests that there is a positive relationship between student achievement and Organizational Citizenship. However, the findings in this study suggest that prior achievement did not influence the level of Organizational Citizenship. This is fortunate because schools cannot control these variables. However, socioeconomic status and school level do seem to influence the Organizational Citizenship. Therefore, as grade level increases, Organizational Citizenship decreases and decreases in student socioeconomic status are associated with lower teacher Organizational Citizenship. More research is needed to understand these relationships.

Future Research

There are several possibilities for future research on Organizational Citizenship within schools. Better measurement tools, larger scale studies, additional variables, and more longitudinal data are just a few.

Results from the analysis of this study identified that the tools used to measure leadership and structure were highly related. As a consequence of these measures being highly related assessing the unique contribution of each predictor is difficult. Future research could explore alternative ways to measure one or both of these constructs. Additionally several of the measures were self-reported, which has the potential to threaten validity. Researchers should explore alternative methods to measure these constructs, including: quantitative, qualitative, or a combination of both.

The data for this study were drawn from a single school district, making generalization to other populations hazardous. Future research should use more representative samples. Results based on representative samples could enhance researchers understanding about the phenomenon, help guide areas of future research, and improve education practice.

Future studies should also explore studying other variables and long term consequences of Organizational Citizenship. Examining other variables and long term consequences with Organizational Citizenship would add to the body of knowledge and increase our understanding to enhance predictability and school practice.

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APPENDIX A: OCB IN SCHOOL SCALE

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

1-6 scale, strongly disagree (score 1) to strongly agree (score 6)

1. Teachers help students on their own time.
2. Teachers waste a lot of class time.
3. Teachers voluntarily help new teachers.
4. Teachers volunteer to serve on new committees.
5. Teachers volunteer to sponsor extracurricular activities.
6. Teachers arrive to work and meetings on time.
7. Teachers take the initiative to introduce themselves to substitutes and assist them.
8. Teachers begin class promptly and use class time effectively.
9. Teachers give colleagues advance notice of changes in schedule or routine.
10. Teachers give an excessive amount of busywork.
11. Teacher committees in this school work productively.
12. Teachers make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of our school.

APPENDIX B: LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR SCALE

Transformational Leadership Behavior

1-6 scale, strongly disagree (score 1) to strongly agree (score 6)

The principal at this school...

1. Inspires others with his/her plans for the future.
2. Provides a good model for me to follow.
3. Develops a team attitude and spirit among employees.
4. Insists on only the best performance.
5. Behaves in a manner thoughtful of my personal needs.
6. Asks questions that prompt me to think.
7. Commends me when I do a better than average job.

APPENDIX C: ENABLING SCHOOL STRUCTURE SCALE

Enabling School Structure

12 items, 1-5 scale, never (score 1) to very often (score 5)

1. Administrative rules in this school enable authentic communication between teachers and administrators.
2. In this school, red tape is a problem.
3. The administrative hierarchy of this school enables teachers to do their job.
4. The administrative hierarchy obstructs student achievement.
5. Administrative rules help rather than hinder.
6. The administrative hierarchy of this school facilitates the mission of this school.
7. Administrative rules in this school are guideline to solutions rather than rigid procedures.
8. The administrative hierarchy of this school obstructs innovation.
9. Administrative rules in this school are substitutes for professional judgment.
10. Administrative rules in this school are guides to solutions rather than rigid procedures.
11. In this school, the authority of the principal is used to undermine teachers.
12. Administrators in this school use their authority to enable teachers to do their job.

APPENDIX D: IRB APPROVAL



Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects
Human Research Determination Review Outcome

Date: April 30, 2014

Principal Investigator: Valerie Kay Willis

Study Title: Structure and OCB

Review Date: 4/30/14

I have reviewed your submission of the Human Research Determination worksheet for the above-referenced study. I have determined this research does not meet the criteria for human subject's research. The proposed activity is de-identified data that will be analyzed at the school level in aggregate. Therefore, IRB approval is not necessary so you may proceed with your project.

If you have questions about this notification or using iRIS, contact the HRPP office at (405) 325-8110 or irb@ou.edu. Thank you.

Cordially,

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads 'E. Laurette Taylor'.

E. Laurette Taylor, Ph.D.
Chair, Institutional Review Board