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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP  
BEHAVIOR AND PRINCIPAL SELF-EFFICACY

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP  
BEHAVIOR AND PRINCIPAL SELF-EFFICACY

A DISSERTATION APPROVED FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL  
LEADERSHIP AND POLICY STUDIES

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determination, and strength to overcome all obstacles put in their path on the road to success.” – Author Unknown

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## Abstract

### THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR AND PRINCIPAL SELF-EFFICACY

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) and Principal Self-Efficacy (PSE). With a nationwide quest to improve teaching and learning in schools, every school needs an efficacious principal. Tschannen-Moran and Garies (2007) suggest a focus on the antecedents and outcomes of a robust sense of efficacy could prove beneficial. Organizational citizenship behavior represents a feature of schools that has potential consequences for principal self-efficacy. Results suggest tentative and modest support for the relationship between OCB and principal self-efficacy. The addition of OCB in each of the regression models resulted in a significant change in the explained variance, suggesting that faculty behaviors and performance can contribute to the mindsets and beliefs of principals.

## **CHAPTER I**

### **Introduction**

Successful organizations depend on employees' willingness to exceed the expectations of the standard job description (Barnard, 1938; Katz, 1964; Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1966). Organizational leaders desire to have a workforce of individuals willing to go the extra mile to make a difference. Barnard (1938) reflected more than 70 years ago on an individual's willingness to contribute collaborative efforts to the organization as being crucial to its success. Schools are one example of organizations that depend on individuals' willingness to perform beyond expectations. Often, teachers and staff go beyond formal responsibilities of their positions and perform duties without the expectation of recognition or monetary compensation (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). For example, teachers may serve on interview committees to assist the principal in selecting new teachers and support staff. In doing so, input from the teacher team may cause the principal to feel more confident in hiring employees to advance the organization's mission.

The success of any organization is also dependent on leaders who develop a vision, establish goals and strategic objectives, and ensure accountability for achieving goals (Fuller & Green, 2005; Louis, Leathwood, Wohlstrom, Anderson, 2010). In education, the principal serves as the primary school leader responsible for establishing goals, communicating the vision, and nurturing a culture focused on continuous improvement (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2003). Principals are

expected to empower teachers and students, establish environments in which teaching and learning are maximized, advocate for student and staff resources, and interact with members of the community (Zepeda, Bengtson, Parylo, Teitelbaum, & Shorner-Johnson, 2008). Principals also depend on teachers to empower each other through their relationships, knowledge, and willingness to share instructional strategies (Adams & Forsyth, 2006). Effective principals know how to develop teacher capacity to improve teaching and learning, motivate school members to improve the organization, and provide support for general operational procedures (Bell & Menguc, 2002; Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Hui, Lee, & Rousseau, 2004; Lam, Hui, & Law, 1999; Louis et al. 2010).

The success of a school is similar to other organizations in that the principal serves as the cornerstone for establishing the direction and maintaining a high performing school (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, 2005; Hoy & Smith, 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004, 2007). While all schools experience a unique set of challenges, the urban school setting presents specific challenges for principals due in large part to social, economic, and political conditions (Cistone & Stevenson, 2000). In fact, Bloom and Erlandson (2008) argue, “The urban school principalship continues to evolve around the school as a social service agency, as well as an educational institution” (p. 345). Urban schools generally serve children in poverty, experience high mobility, have attendance and behavioral issues, see higher rates of illiteracy and criminal activity in the community, and lack adequate social services (Riehl, 2000; Ylimaki, Jacobson, & Drysdale, 2007). These environmental

factors can undermine the efficacy principals need to maintain the beliefs and behaviors under which they can transform learning opportunities and experiences of students.

### **Problem Statement**

The growing demand for more effective schools has placed increased attention on the pivotal role of school principals (Davis, et al., 2005; Hart, 1992). The historically unsatisfactory record of American public schools in meeting the educational needs of diverse student populations in the urban school setting raises questions about the ability of principals to make schools more conducive to the learning and developmental needs of under-resourced students (Riehl, 2000). The urban context, in particular, is one setting where strong and resourceful principal leadership is essential. And, in fact, good principals do raise the overall quality of teaching and learning in urban schools (Davis et al., 2005; Leithwood & Mascall, 2008). With this claim in mind, Davis et al. (2005) argue for research that takes a closer look at how principals develop their capacity to bring learning to life in schools plagued with many challenges.

The current educational climate establishes an expectation for educators to prepare all students for college, careers, and citizenship when they graduate high school. Urban educators embrace this call, but, they do so under mounting pressures and challenges associated with educating youth who experience problems associated with poverty, limited English proficiency, family instability, and poor health (Lippman, Burns, & McArthur, 1996). Preparing all students to be college, career,

and citizenship ready may seem like a daunting task; there is a belief that energetic and compassionate adults can create a motivating environment for students to overcome the residues of poverty (Forsyth & Tallerico, 1993). The school principal has a significant role in creating a productive environment that fosters opportunities for students to learn and successfully prepare for the future.

Principals, among their many responsibilities, are expected to set a direction, align resources with strategies, and foster commitment of school members; their work is critical to the overall performance of urban schools, and as such it is unwise to neglect the social and psychological side of their job (Cistone & Stevenson, 2000; Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, 2005). Efficacy is one psychological factor that has profound effects on performance but is not often discussed in leadership conversations. Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2007) suggest principal self-efficacy may determine a principal's ability to lead others, as well as the effectiveness of others in the school. With this in mind, a principal's sense of self-efficacy (e.g., the belief in one's ability to succeed) is a key component in organizing, leading, and influencing others to perform beyond expectations in order to achieve common goals and desired outcomes (Hoy & Smith, 2007; McCollum & Kajs, Paglis & Green, 2002; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004, 2007). To maximize a principal's success in leading a school, district leaders need to understand the antecedents of a principal's self-efficacy beliefs (Louis, Leathwood, Wahlstrom, & Anderson, 2010; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004).

The interest in principal self-efficacy as the objective of this study grew out of a problem of practice and a research problem. At a practical level, this study addresses the problem of attracting, developing, and retaining quality leaders in urban schools. Although the study does not deal directly with principal personnel decisions and strategies, it does establish evidence that social factors are related to principal self-efficacy beliefs. Such evidence has implications for how district leaders build principal capacity within their school systems. Understanding efficacy formation has consequences for hiring decisions, placement decisions, and professional development decisions to name a few.

The research problem derives from limited knowledge on principal self-efficacy formation. Hidden within effective leadership are cognitive beliefs that supply the motivation and energy that principals use to sustain continuous improvement. The formation of these generative beliefs is important to understand, especially for district leaders who are responsible for the growth and performance of school principals.

Existing evidence, however, has not specifically identified and explained the role that school social conditions have on principal beliefs that underlie effective leadership. Principal Self-Efficacy is one such belief neglected by current research. Thus, this study was a modest attempt to promote an understanding of how the collective actions of teachers may shape principal self-efficacy beliefs. The study specifically focused on the relationship between teacher Organizational Citizenship Behavior and principal self-efficacy.

## **Purpose of Study**

The urban school principalship is an increasingly complex and demanding position due to many challenging conditions and competing expectations of society (Cistone & Stevenson, 2011). Consequently, a closer examination of principal self-efficacy may lead to a greater understanding of how social features of schools enable or hinder the formation of energizing and motivating beliefs. Such evidence has consequences for policies and practices aimed at supporting principals in developing a more robust sense of self-efficacy. With a nationwide quest to improve teaching and learning in schools, every school needs an efficacious principal. Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom, and Anderson (2010) have suggested assigning highly effective principals to especially challenging schools to improve results. In an attempt to improve schools as organizations and support principals as leaders, this study explores organizational citizenship behavior and principal self-efficacy in schools throughout an urban school district in a Midwestern state.

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between teacher Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) and Principal Self-Efficacy (PSE). Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2007) assert that principals with a lower sense of self-efficacy are less likely to identify appropriate strategies to improve teaching and learning. Additionally, higher levels of burnout are more likely in leaders with low self-efficacy (Friedman, 1997). Knowing if school conditions like OCB can nurture principal self-efficacy has implications for the decisions district leaders make about the placement, development, and support of school principals.



The following question guided the review of literature and examination of social cognitive theory: Is there a relationship between OCB and PSE? Theoretical evidence on social cognitive theory and empirical evidence from studies on the sources of efficacy formation led to three hypotheses. Rationale for the hypotheses is provided in the literature review.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is a relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and general principal self-efficacy.

H<sub>2</sub>: There is a relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and principal efficacy for instructional leadership.

H<sub>3</sub>: There is a relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and principal efficacy for management.

### **Definition of Terms**

1. Principal Self-Efficacy (PSE) – a principal’s perception of his or her ability to accomplish a task to effect change (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004).
2. Principal Self-Efficacy for Instructional Leadership (PSE IL) – a principal’s perception of his or her ability to motivate teachers, generate enthusiasm, facilitate learning, and raise student achievement (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004).
3. Principal Self-Efficacy for Management (PSE MGMT) – a principal’s perception of his or her ability to handle the demands of the job including

time, paperwork, stress, as well as implement policies and procedures (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004).

4. Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) – individual discretionary behaviors such as altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue, peacekeeping, and cheerleading that support and help the school or principal (Bateman & Organ, 1983; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Organ, 1988).

### **Limitations**

This study was conducted with an urban school district sample and does not include a cross-section of rural, urban, and suburban school districts. Data were collected one time in the spring of 2011. The findings from this study were drawn from data collected solely in Tulsa Public Schools. Therefore, readers should generalize the findings to other school districts around the nation only with great caution. A more heterogeneous sample may contribute to evidence of stronger relationships. Data collected from the surveys relied on the teacher and principal's abilities to respond accurately and honestly. While the policy insights derived from this study may be applicable to Tulsa Public Schools, the researcher intends for the results to cause other school districts to give careful consideration to the findings.

There were several limitations of the methods used to test the hypotheses. First, the cross-sectional and correlational approach cannot be used to infer that OCB would cause PSE. At best, the design permits the establishment of a relationship but does not reveal the specific direction of the relationship. For example, it is plausible

to think that principal self-efficacy could also influence OCB in a school. Second, the sampled schools are from a single urban district with many of the schools having similar demographic characteristics. Results may be different with a more demographically representative sample of schools. Finally, there are likely to be other predictors of principal self-efficacy that were not included in this study.

### **Outline of the Dissertation**

This study is comprised of four remaining chapters that depict the role of organizational citizenship behavior and principal self-efficacy in schools. Chapter II provides a review of the existing literature related to PSE and OCB, as well as a theoretical explanation for the predicted relationship between these constructs. Chapter III describes the methods used to collect and analyze data. Chapter IV presents the results from the study. Chapter V discusses the evidence and advances implications for practice and further research.

## CHAPTER II

### Review of Literature

Concern is mounting over the shortage of highly qualified educational leaders across the nation, especially for principals with a desire to work in challenging, high poverty schools (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Educational Research Services, 2000; Jacobson, 2005). The increased demands of accountability and higher expectations for student performance have led to a greater focus on the role of the principal as a change agent in the urban setting (Jacobson, 2008). Research regarding effects of school leadership on student outcomes suggests that leaders matter for student learning, particularly in schools with historically low performance (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Leithwood, Seashore-Louis, Anderson & Wahlstrom, 2004; Waters, Marzano & McNulty, 2003). With the role of the principal shifting from manager to effective instructional leader, further research is needed to understand how principals can develop the capacity to lead schools of excellence and equity (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom, & Anderson, 2010). This study argues that efficacy is an element of leadership capacity.

The fact that an effective principal is second only to classroom teaching as a significant influence on improving student achievement suggests a need for a closer look at variables that may influence school leadership (Fullan, 2001; Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2008; Jacobson, 2008; Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005; Sergiovanni, 2001). Principal self-efficacy has received minimal attention in K-12

schools (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Likewise, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is one factor that is critical to the success of organizations, yet little research has been conducted on the topic in schools (Jimmieson, Hannam, Yeo, 2010). It seems reasonable that OCB is a school characteristic that might have a relationship with principal self-efficacy.

This chapter provides a review of existing literature related to self-efficacy, principal self-efficacy, and principal self-efficacy in schools. Next, literature on OCB, as well as the role of OCB in a variety of contexts including education is examined. Finally, the relationship between principal self-efficacy and OCB is considered through the theoretical lens of Albert Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory, which serves as the theoretical framework for the study.

### **Self-Efficacy**

Self-efficacy emerged from Albert Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory. Self-efficacy is described as one's capacity to organize and execute action necessary to achieve desired outcomes (Bandura, 1986; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Pajares (1996) explains, "efficacy beliefs help determine how much effort people will expend on an activity, how long they will persevere when confronting obstacles, and how resilient they will prove in the face of adverse situations" (p. 544). It is these self-beliefs that enable people to exercise control over thoughts, feelings, actions, motivation, and performance (Bandura, 1986). Efficacy beliefs do not occur by chance. They form through experiences that shape and define how a person comes to perceive his or her

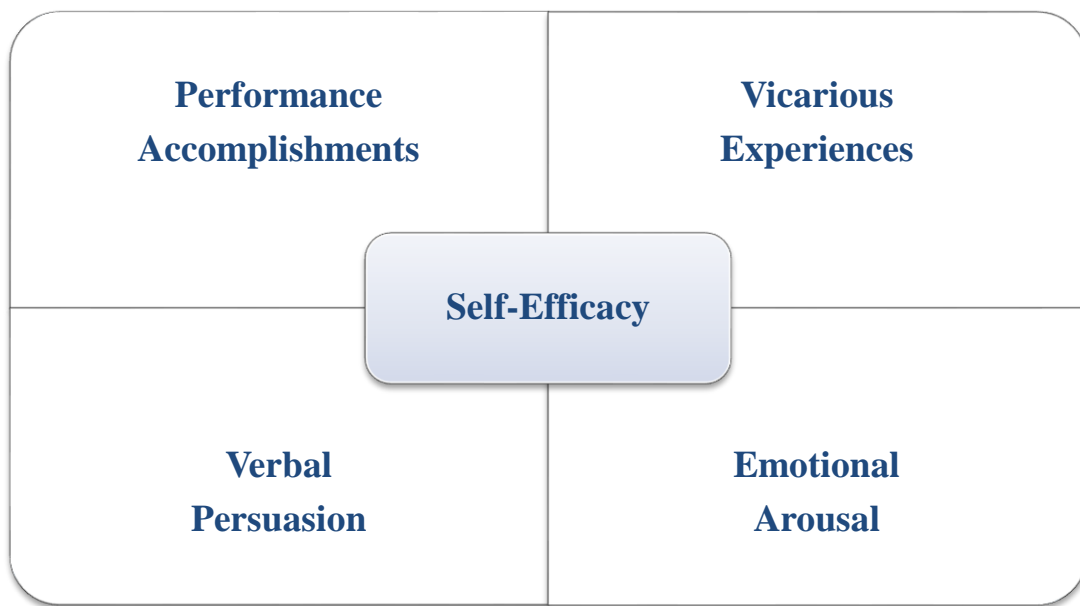
abilities to perform a specific task in a manner that results in a desired outcome.

These experiences are referred to as the sources of efficacy.

### Sources of Self-Efficacy

Bandura (1977) identified four primary sources of self-efficacy that interact in a dynamic way to inform judgments of one's competencies. These sources are: performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal (Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1 Efficacy Sources.



Performance accomplishments are past mastery experiences. Bandura (1997) indicates that past success with a task or activity is the most potent influence on self-efficacy. Past experiences provide authentic data about whether a person can assemble what it takes to reach a desired level of performance and outcomes. With

mastery experiences, successes raise perceived self-efficacy, whereas repeated failures create self-doubt and naturally call into the question one's ability to accomplish a goal (Bandura, 1982; Hoy & Miskel, 2008). In short, successful performance begets the positive beliefs needed to promote similar behaviors and outcomes in the future.

Vicarious experiences form the second source of efficacy producing information. These experiences happen as people watch others perform a task and feel confident that they can complete the same task successfully if they persist with their efforts (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2007). Hoy and Miskel (2008) note an individual's sense of self-efficacy can be affected negatively by observing someone else failing at a task. While vicarious experiences are not as strong a resource as mastery experience, these observations can serve as a positive influence for increasing levels of self-efficacy beliefs.

Verbal persuasion is the third efficacy source. Zulkosky (2009) defines verbal persuasion as peer and social support. Encouragement by others can evoke the confidence needed to execute actions that result in positive outcomes. For verbal persuasion to be meaningful, feedback from one person to another must be authentic (Bandura, 1997). General and vague comments that are interpreted as superficial can actually undermine efficacy. A person is even more likely to influence and strengthen the recipient's self-efficacy by providing support in addition to words of encouragement.

Emotional (physiological) arousal is the fourth source of self-efficacy.

Bandura (1977) suggests people rely on information from their physiological state to guide their judgment of personal capabilities. The level and type of arousal, either excitement or fear, influences an individual's perception of his/her own ability or ineffectiveness (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2004). Unfortunately, fear and anxiety produce emotional barriers that can prevent or distract an individual's attempt in performing a task and perhaps lead to avoidance behavior (Bandura, 1997).

Conversely, Parjares (1996) argues that excitement and personal confidence about the task at hand serve as sources of motivation for task performance.

The sources of efficacy define the kinds of experiences that evoke confidence in one's agency to perform a task at a high level of performance. Past accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal contribute uniquely and collectively to efficacy beliefs. Of these sources, mastery experience has the strongest effect on confidence in future actions and outcomes (Bandura, 1997; Pagalis & Green, 2002). This should not be mistaken to mean the other sources do not matter in the face of past success; each experience can make a difference, especially in the process of producing behaviors that result in desired outcomes.

### **Performance Effects of Efficacy Beliefs**

Self-efficacy is the well-spring of human agency (Bandura, 1997). Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, and Pastorelli (1996) argue that nothing is more important than people's beliefs in their capabilities to control and conquer the demands they face.



Pajares (1996) points to how efficacy beliefs determine the level of effort people will exert on an activity, the length of time they will persevere when facing obstacles, and how resilient they will be when encountering hardships and set-backs. Efficacy beliefs influence the course of action people pursue for a specific task. For instance, principals who want to transform reading and writing in a school can simply adopt one of hundreds of programs claimed to be research based, or they can work with faculty and reading specialists to develop and continuously improve a framework that develops the mindsets, behaviors, and abilities that foster student interest and engagement in reading. The more efficacious principal will seek to transform the school environment, while the less confident one may settle for a program that she knows very little about and simply implement it.

People must believe they are capable of producing desired effects through personal actions otherwise they lack incentive to perform or persevere in the face of adversity (Bandura, 1999). The level of self-efficacy contributes significantly to an individual's ultimate motivation and performance (Bandura & Locke, 2003). Bandura (1999) explains that individuals with a high sense of self-efficacy often visualize being successful with a task. Positive visualization serves as a positive guide in completing the task at hand. Conversely, individuals with low self-efficacy cast doubt and essentially visualize themselves experiencing failure. A sense of self-efficacy provides the necessary staying power in arduous pursuit of innovation and excellence, whereas the less efficacious dwell on the risks to be avoided (Bandura & Locke, 2003; Krueger & Dickson, 1993, 1994). Teachers and students need a principal who

is confident and willing to visualize solutions and set direction for addressing students' academic and social needs. Hoy and Smith (2007) suggest individuals confident in their own abilities typically succeed.

Behavioral and performance effects of efficacy beliefs have been studied in students, teachers, and more recently principals (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996; Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2004; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004). Evidence suggests that students can maximize educational achievement and opportunities with strong efficacy beliefs. Educators can empower students to become more independent learners through the use of self-efficacy strategies such as goal-setting, feedback from peers and adults, modeling, and positive affirmation for learning directed behavior (Schulze & Schulze, 2003). For example, a student who establishes a goal to read 25 books in one month, receives feedback from a teacher when the goal is met, and is encouraged to set a new goal is likely to experience a feeling of success which propels the student to pursue more reading goals.

Self-efficacy strategies have been shown to be especially effective with minority students (Dopke, 2001; Duran, 2000; Fan & Mak, 1998; Salas, 2001; Torres & Solberg, 2001) and female students (McCormick, 2000; Jackson, Ervin, Gardner, & Schmitt, 2001), who often struggle with issues of self-efficacy and self-esteem (Hargrow, 2001). Student self-efficacy is particularly important when facing new and challenging tasks (Bandura, 1995; Bandura & Schunk, 1981; Schunk & Hanson, 1985) and for developing greater self-regulatory skills (Bouffard-Bouchard, Parent,

and Larivee, 1991). Embracing challenges and self-regulating behavior are critical for learning. Students learn as they work through difficult work and as they take more control and ownership over their learning. It seems unlikely that students can develop the knowledge and skills needed for academic success without a degree of efficacy.

Initial studies to conceptualize and measure teacher self-efficacy evolved from Rotter's (1966) theory on locus of control and focused on the extent to which teachers believe they could control student outcomes despite environmental factors (Armor et al., 1976; Ashton & Webb, 1986; Guskey, 1981; Rose & Medway, 1981). Subsequent efforts to improve the measurement and understanding of teacher self-efficacy have focused more on a social-cognitive framework (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998).

Teacher efficacy beliefs are relevant to specific teacher instructional tasks. Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk (2001) define three facets of effective instruction as they relate to teacher sense of efficacy: efficacy for instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1 Teacher sense of efficacy and effective instruction.

Teachers' sense of efficacy for instructional strategies	A persons' confidence for designing and implementing activities, tasks, and assessments to facilitate learning
Teachers' sense of efficacy for classroom management	A persons' belief they can maintain an orderly, organized, nondistractive classroom environment
Teachers' sense of efficacy for student engagement	A persons' confidence they can help students become and remain involved, invested, or motivated for learning

These facets help explain teacher self-efficacy as including planning appropriate activities, exhibiting persistence in achieving goals, and demonstrating superior classroom management skills. Additionally, an efficacious teacher is likely to overcome challenging situations, assume personal responsibility for successes and failures, demonstrate positive job performance, and ultimately remain committed to the profession (Ware & Kitsantas, 2007). Conversely, teachers with a lower sense of efficacy are more likely to attribute their successes or failures to outside factors beyond their control. Low efficacy teachers have difficulty controlling their stress and tend to be less satisfied in the education profession (Klassen, 2010). In summary, a teachers' sense of efficacy is more similar to individuals' self-efficacy for learning and can be defined as teachers' judgments or beliefs of their perceived ability to accomplish significant instructional tasks even among students who are difficult and unmotivated (Wolters & Daugherty, 2007).

Related to teacher efficacy, collective efficacy depicts an individual's belief in a group's capabilities (Bandura, 1997). A sense of cohesiveness or group judgment, effort, and persistence to stay together is critical for collective efficacy (Bandura, 1986). A group's collective efficacy is typically influenced by past success, observation of other groups' successes, and encouragement from others (Goddard & Goddard, 2001). Moreover, Klassen (2010) stresses the importance of the school faculty assuming responsibility for improving student learning and behavior. When a team of teachers achieves success with students their sense of accomplishment pushes them to achieve similar, if not greater, results in the future. Whereas successful teachers are likely to possess a strong sense of their own capabilities, successful schools are characterized by stakeholders who possess a collective sense in their efficacy to assist students in learning (Klassen, Usher, & Bong, 2010). In addition to influence on student outcomes, studies have indicated collective efficacy has a positive effect on job satisfaction for teachers (Caprara, Barbaranelli, Borgogni, & Steca, 2003). Fostering a healthy sense of efficacy among individuals adds to the strength of a group's collective efficacy.

Student efficacy, teacher efficacy, and collective efficacy have been studied in schools. However, the literature suggests a gap still exists with the concept of principal self-efficacy (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Lovell, 2009; Santamaria, 2008; Tschannen-Moran, 2004). Every principal has a sense of efficacy, yet the degree of efficacy varies from one school leader to another. Principals fill a critical role in leading some of the most important organizations in

our society (Hart, 1992). Therefore, it is important to understand the role a principals' sense of efficacy plays in school effectiveness.

### **Principal Self-Efficacy**

A principal's sense of efficacy is defined as judgment of his or her own capabilities to organize a plan of action to facilitate desired school outcomes (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004). A healthy sense of efficacy is critical to sustain the focus necessary to achieve goals (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Despite the limited research on principal self-efficacy, results from the few empirical studies indicate that a strong sense of self-efficacy results in principal goal achievement and greater capacity to navigate challenging situations compared to leaders with lower efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004). In fact, low-efficacy principals are more likely to exhibit stress, frustration, negativity, and even a desire to exit the profession. Judge and Bono (2001) propose that greater principal self-efficacy is linked to greater job satisfaction, better performance, and reduced turnover.

At least three studies were actually conducted that led to researchers developing a measure of principal sense of efficacy. In 2004, Tschannen-Moran and Gareis began by adapting and testing the principal sense of efficacy scale created by Dimmock and Hattie (1996). Next, a measure of collective teacher efficacy developed by Goddard, Hoy, and Woolfolk Hoy (2000) was adapted as a principal sense of efficacy measure. However, disappointing results from the use of these measures called into question their validity and reliability (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004). A third measure based on teacher sense of efficacy scale (TSES) developed by

Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) was created. The Principal Sense of Efficacy Scale (PSES) for principals at all school levels, the survey was tested with a sample of 554 Virginia principals. In reviewing the results, three factors emerged, which Tshannen-Moran and Gareis (2004) categorized as Principals' Sense of Efficacy for Instruction, Principals' Sense of Efficacy for Management, and Principals' Sense of Efficacy for Moral Leadership. Preliminary findings suggest that a principals' sense of efficacy is critical for successfully meeting the demands and expectations of school leadership.

Three years later, Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2007) conducted another Principal Sense of Efficacy Scale (PSES) study in Virginia, with 558 principals responding. The goal was to explore personal and contextual factors, as well as principal assessment of key resources contributing to their leadership self-efficacy judgment. Results suggested how “beliefs inform experiences, and experiences, in turn, inform beliefs about efficacy” (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, p. 103). Put simply, success breeds confidence. Interestingly, school context was unrelated to principal sense of efficacy, as were socioeconomic status, school level, and years of experience. On the other hand, gender, district-level and building-level support were related. Principals who perceived they had resources or support from people at the district or building level had stronger efficacy beliefs. Principal self-efficacy beliefs are directly related to principal motivation and ability to produce results. Thus it is important to understand how to develop and nurture a greater level of self-efficacy in principals (Tschannen-Moran & Garies, 2007).

There is evidence that principal self-efficacy is directly related to principal motivation, performance, ability to meet the growing demands of the principalship, and to produce desired results. Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2004) suggest that further exploration of the antecedents and outcomes of a robust sense of efficacy could prove beneficial. Organizational citizenship behavior represents a feature of schools that has potential consequences for principal efficacy.

### **Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

More than 30 years ago, Organ and his colleagues (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983) conceptualized Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB). Using Chester Barnard's (1938) concept of the willingness to cooperate, and Daniel Katz's (Katz, 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1966, 1978) distinction between dependable role performance and innovative and spontaneous behaviors, Organ and colleagues advanced a set of behaviors illustrative of individuals committed to the success of their organization (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Their seminal definition described OCB as, "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p. 4).

In an attempt to add further clarity to the concept, Organ (1990) argued that OCB consists of informal contributions by individuals who choose to offer or withhold discretionary actions depending on individual choices. For example, an individual may choose to offer assistance to colleagues in the workplace, but not offering assistance is unlikely to result in punitive consequences. Organ (1997)



contends that discretionary behavior is a matter of personal choice and not generally punishable or rewarded. Organ (1997) expanded the definition of OCB to include a functional feature. He notes that OCB has positive effects. Organ (1997) argues “contributions to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological environment support task performance” (p. 91). Employees who consistently demonstrate OCB do so for the benefit of the organization as a whole, not for any potential external reward.

In an attempt to identify specific behaviors associated with OCB, Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) developed a list of subordinate actions that supervisors appreciated and regarded as helpful, but had no authority to demand. In schools, for example, a teacher may choose to offer assistance to new teachers. A principal can recognize the value of teachers supporting each other and working together, yet the principal cannot demand a teacher extend support to a colleague. A measure of these 16 behaviors was ultimately created and grouped into two dimensions: altruism and general compliance (Smith et al., 1983).

The 16 behaviors were an outcome of interviews with managers who identified examples of helpful, but not required, job behaviors for employees (see Table 2.2). Under the altruism dimension, behaviors reflect face-to-face interactions between employees including assisting others following absences, volunteering, supporting new employees, assisting others with heavy workloads, assisting supervisors, suggesting ideas to improve the work place, and attending work related activities. Behaviors considered indirectly helpful to others in the organization or

system fall into the generalized compliance dimension. These behaviors include being punctual, refraining from taking undeserved breaks, maintaining above normal attendance, refraining from coasting through the day, giving advance notice for absences, abstaining from excessive personal telephone conversations, limiting time off, avoiding extra breaks, and evading idle conversations.

Table 2.2 Citizenship behaviors that directly or indirectly support people and/or the organization.

1. Helps others who have been absent	9. Gives advance notice if unable to come to work
2. Punctuality	10. Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations*
3. Volunteers for things that are not required	11. Does not take unnecessary time off work
4. Takes undeserved breaks	12. Assists supervisor with his or her work
5. Orients new people even though it is not required	13. Makes innovative suggestions to improve department
6. Attendance at work is above the norm	14. Does not take extra breaks
7. Helps others who have heavy work loads	15. Attends functions not required but that help company image
8. Coasts towards the end of the day	16. Does not spend time in idle conversations

### **Dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

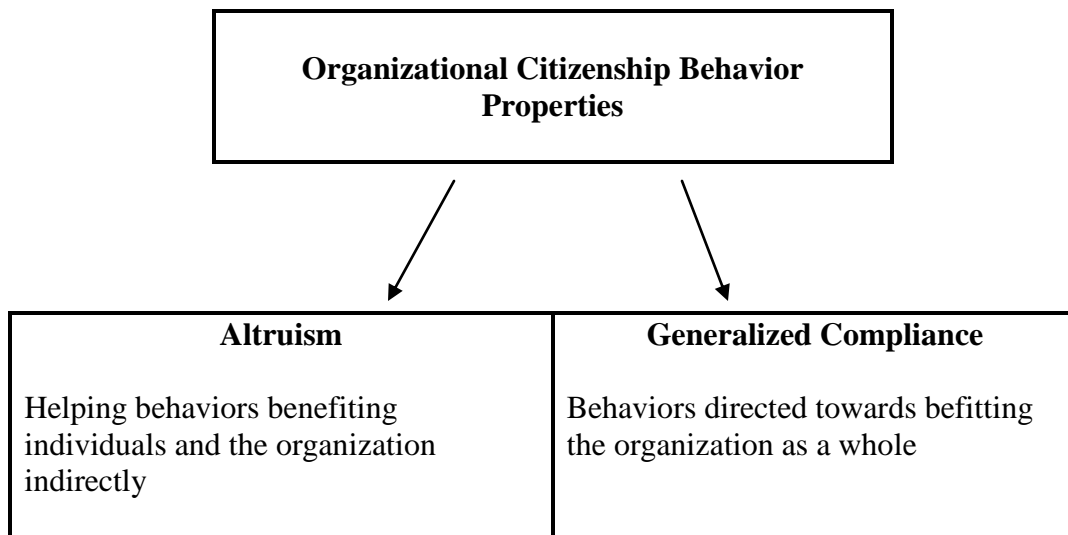
Altruism and generalized compliance (Figure 2.2) are important dimensions of successful individual and group functioning within organizations (Smith et al., 1983).

Altruism is described as helping behavior directed towards specific individuals.

Teachers often demonstrate altruism by assisting colleagues with developing curriculum or sharing student supervision duties. Generalized compliance is defined

as more impersonal and doing things “correctly and properly” to benefit the organization, rather than benefitting an individual. For example, the teaching profession can be stressful at times, yet when employees elect not to complain this behavior is viewed as beneficial to the organization.

Figure 2.2 Properties of organizational citizenship behavior.



Williams (1988) differentiated the benefits of OCB by actions that have positive effects for individuals and for entire organizations. Williams and Anderson (1991) identified individual benefits as OCBI and organizational benefits as OCBO. Over the last 20 years, researchers have addressed the dimensions of OCBs and differentiated the benefits to an individual from the organization.

Subsequently, researchers have supported broadening the categories of organizational citizenship behavior to include altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Two additional categories, peacekeeping and

cheerleading, were eventually introduced by Organ (1990) along with his explanations of how each improves efficiency.

The seven categories of helping or discretionary behaviors displayed by employees that are thought to support the success of individuals and organizations are altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue, peacekeeping, and cheerleading (see Table 2.3). Employees who help others and donate time to benefit others in the organization demonstrate altruism. Conscientious employees accept and adhere to policies and procedures while those who avoid complaining and making issues bigger than necessary display sportsmanship. Courtesy is demonstrated when employees provide helpful information to expedite understanding and maximize time. Volunteering to serve on committees and take an active interest in the life of the organization characterizes civic virtue. Employees exhibit peacekeeping behaviors in an attempt to maintain positive working relationships with colleagues and cheerleading behavior to communicate support to and for each other.

Table 2.3 Seven categories of discretionary behavior.

<b>Discretionary Behaviors</b>	<b>Behaviors displayed by employees defined as:</b>
Altruism	Employees help others and donating time to benefit others in the organization
Conscientiousness	Employees accept and adhere to policies and procedures
Sportsmanship	Employees willing to avoid complaining and making issues appear bigger than necessary
Courtesy	Employees provide helpful information to expedite understanding and maximize time
Civic virtue	Employees volunteer to serve on committees and take an active interest in the life of the organization
Peacekeeping	Employees attempt to maintain positive working relationships with colleagues
Cheerleading	Employees communicate support to and for each other

More recent works by Moon, Van Dyne, and Wrobel (2004), suggests that all forms of OCB can be sorted into two major dimensions. First, is interpersonal/organizational as originally presented by Williams and Anderson (1991) and second, protective/promotive as originally presented by Van Dyne, Cummings, and McLean-Parks (1995). In suggesting this approach, Moon et al. (2004) support interpersonal or individual OCB (OCBI) as behaviors exhibited to support individuals and protective or promotive behaviors (OCBO) directed to help the whole organization (Jimmieson, Hannam, & Yeo, 2010). In the school setting, a teacher

assistant who elects to read with a small group of students at recess would be exhibiting individual OCBI, whereas a teacher volunteering to serve on a committee charged with reviewing the student handbook would be viewed as helping the entire organization and demonstrating OCBO. In summary, Moon et al. argue for narrowing OCB to two major dimensions or categories and indicated it would be premature to conclude that OCB is one dimensional despite not including research on OCB in the school setting as part of the analysis.

Not surprisingly, the conceptualization of OCB in schools differs from other types of organizations. DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) identified only one dimension of organizational citizenship behavior in the K-12 school setting, in contrast with business, healthcare, and university settings that have two (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Schools are known as service organizations therefore, instead of distinguishing between behaviors directed towards helping individuals or helping the organization, all organizational citizenship behavior is directed at helping individuals which ultimately helps the organization (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Consider for a moment that when a teacher takes time to share teaching strategies with colleagues, the teacher is ultimately affecting other teachers, students in other classrooms, and the entire school.

For the purpose of this study, organizational citizenship behavior is defined as individual discretionary behavior that supports the school. By developing an understanding of OCB in schools and how these behaviors influence the social workings of the organization, educators can use OCB to support school effectiveness

(Bateman & Organ, 1983, p. 588; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). DiPaola and Hoy (2005) argue that schools with a high degree of teacher organizational citizenship behavior enable principals to focus on supporting teaching and learning. Conversely, schools with a low degree of organizational citizenship behavior are likely to experience lower degrees of collegial leadership, teacher professionalism, and academic press (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Recognizing the effect OCB has on schools, an effective principal can be the key to creating a successful school and increasing student achievement (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2003).

### **Studies on Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Schools**

OCB is well known and studied in business, healthcare, military, and leadership (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). One reason for interest in OCB is the positive link to organizational effectiveness (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). Evidence on OCB exists in schools but the body of knowledge is not as robust.

DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) extended research on OCB to school organizations. They developed the Organizational Citizenship Behavior in School Scale (OCBSS) specifically for the K-12 school environment by adapting the 16-item measure utilized in private sector organizations by Smith, Organ, and Near (1983). Faculty members were surveyed in elementary, middle, and high schools, as well as across urban, suburban, and rural districts in Virginia and Ohio. The results of the study assist in explaining the social processes found in effective schools. More

specifically, DiPaola and Tshannen-Moran discovered a strong link between OCB and collegial leadership, teacher professionalism, and academic press at all school levels. However, there were inconsistencies across school levels with respect to OCB and community pressure. A relationship was found when studying K-12 schools, however the relationship between OCB and community pressure was not significant when studying only high schools. The difference may be attributed to the types of relationships that schools have with their communities at each school level. History suggests parents tend to be more actively involved and present in schools at the elementary level with involvement decreasing as students grow older. Consequently, community pressure applied at the elementary and middle levels may be more concentrated than at the high school level.

In contrast with previous findings, DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) found organizational citizenship in schools to be grounded in one dimension. They speculated the reason for the different factor structure was due to the service orientation of schools. Their value propositions are defined by cooperative and trustworthy relationships among individual school members. Therefore, organizational citizenship behavior that ultimately benefits individual people supports the entire school organization, as well (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran).

In a study of 97 high schools in Ohio, DiPaola and Hoy (2005) found a strong relationship between teacher OCB and achievement in reading and math. They concluded that when teachers willingly dedicate personal time to helping students before or after school, students benefit academically. In turn, teachers are often more



personally invested in the success of their students and assume responsibility for student learning (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005). Additional school evidence links OCB to faculty trust in students and parents (Goddard, Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 2001; Byrk & Schneider, 2002), collective efficacy (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk, 2000), and academic emphasis (Goddard, Sweetland, & Hoy, 2000). When combined, school evidence identifies teacher OCB as behaviors that are capable of maximizing individual and organizational performance.

Bogler and Somech (2005) studied how to enhance this OCB behavior among teachers. They were interested in examining the direct effect of teacher participation in decision making (PDM) on their OCB with teacher empowerment as a mediating variable. Participants included 983 teachers in a variety of junior and senior high schools located within urban, suburban, and rural school systems in Israel. The findings were consistent with previous studies that found teacher participation in decision making to be a key element to the effectiveness and efficiency of the school. Additionally, teacher empowerment played a critical role in mediating the relationship between PDM and OCB. Bogler and Somech (2005) argued that when a teacher is empowered the teacher feels effective and experiences a higher sense of self-efficacy. Similar to DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001), Bogler and Somech (2005) did not identify a two-factor structure in OCB. They found that teachers viewed their OCB in assisting students was also helping the organization resulting in a one factor or dimension OCB structure.

Oplatka (2006) explored the personal and contextual determinants of OCB in schools through interviews with 50 teachers, 10 principals, and 10 supervisors from elementary and secondary schools in Israel. Respondents expressed beliefs about the major dimensions of employee OCB found in the existing literature, such as helping behavior, civic virtue, and individual initiative. Interestingly though, participants did not express OCB in terms of compliance, organizational loyalty, or sportsmanship. OCB had already been associated with leadership in prior research, however the results of this study emphasize the importance of “emotional leadership or the principal’s innovative attitude in enhancing the degree of teacher OCB in schools” (Oplatka, p. 415).

Somech and Ron (2007) studied whether perceived superior support was positively related to teacher OCB demonstrated by teachers. A survey of teachers and their principals at eight elementary schools in Israel reflect sportsmanship, civic virtue, altruism, and courtesy received the highest scores respectively. Conscientiousness reflected the lowest average score. In this study of Israeli schools, the more supportive the teachers perceived their principal to be, the more likely they were to engage in organizational citizenship behavior. Somech and Ron indicate OCB is increasingly recognized for two reasons: first, OCB directly contributes to a school’s effectiveness (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997); second, schools have the ability to encourage such behavior (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; George & Jones, 1997).”

Jimmieson, Hannam, and Yeo (2010) investigated the effect of teacher OCB on student quality of school life (SQSL), as well as the indirect effect on job efficacy. The study was conducted in 55 primary or elementary schools in Australia. Civic virtue and professional development were OCBs most strongly related to job efficacy. They explained that when elementary teachers were participating in professional development or volunteering and given the opportunity to share ideas with colleagues, the interaction promoted greater self-efficacy, which then linked to job efficacy.

In summary, research in school organizations suggest OCB is a one dimensional construct composed of behaviors ultimately beneficial to the achievement of the entire school (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). When employees help each other there is a reduced need for supervision and the leader is able to use resources efficiently and focus on issues that benefit the success of the organization as a whole (Nielse, Hrivnak, Shaw, 2009). Organizational citizenship behaviors are evidenced when teachers assist outside the normal school day; teachers feel empowered through participation in decision making; teachers participate in professional development and share with colleagues; and when teachers perceive their principal to be supportive and innovative. The existence of these behaviors leads to strong, positive relationships between job satisfaction and citizenship behavior (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

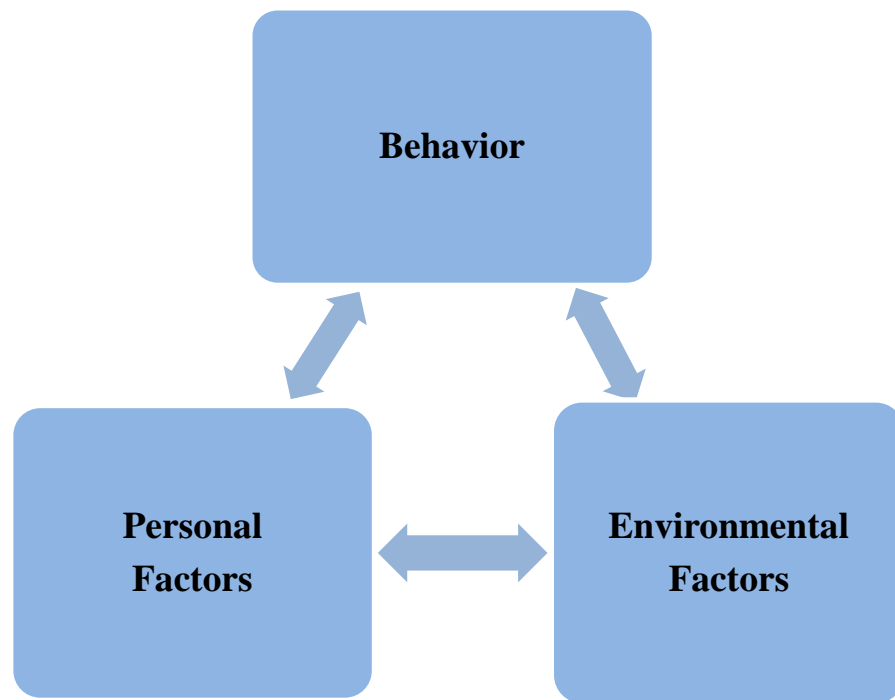
OCB and principal self-efficacy each have positive effects in schools. Exploring the relationship between OCB and PSE may provide direction for

improving student achievement, teacher and principal performance, as well as the overall quality of schools across the nation. Given the importance of these constructs to schools, it is critical to explore theoretical explanations that make the case for their relationship.

### **Social Cognitive Theory**

It can be argued that the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and principal self-efficacy is grounded in social cognitive theory, which subscribes to a model of emergent interactive agency (Bandura, 1986, 1997). Social cognitive theory (SCT) depicts psychosocial functioning in terms of triadic reciprocal causation (Bandura, 1986). Bandura (1999) outlines social cognitive theory as comprised of three types of environmental structures influencing one another bi-directionally. The bi-directional interaction does not equate to each factor representing the same influence on an individual's behavior. Instead, the interaction between all three environmental structures shapes human agency (Bandura, 1999). As a result of the bi-directionality, social cognitive theory suggests individuals are both products and producers of their own environment (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Applied within the context of this study, the three determinants are represented by behavior, personal factors, and environmental factors (see Figure 2.3).

Figure 2.3 Bandura's (1986) triadic reciprocal causation model.



The first factor of Bandura's (1986) triadic reciprocal causation model focuses on behaviors that lead to goal directed outcomes. The second factor focuses on individual characteristics including cognitive and affective traits. Principal self-efficacy is a type of personal factor that together with environment affects behavior. The third factor consists of environmental factors or the social structure of a particular situation. Teacher OCB and principal self-efficacy can influence and be influenced by environmental factors. From the perspective of social cognitive theory, human functioning is viewed as the result of the interplay between behavioral, personal, and environmental influences (Koberg, Boss, Goodman, Boss, & Monsen, 2005; Pajares, 2002).

Social cognitive theorists suggest individuals have the ability to select their environment, participate in their own development, as well as exercise control over their thoughts, actions, and what they become (Bandura, 1999, 2001). Pajares (2002) argues that social cognitive theory is “rooted in a view of human agency in which individuals are agents proactively engaged in their own development and can make things happen by their actions” (p. 3). Bandura (1986) asserts “what people think, believe, and feel affects how they behave” (p. 25). If principals are optimistic and believes they can achieve a particular task, then they are more likely to be successful. Leaders avoid activities they believe exceed their personal abilities, yet assume responsibility and perform confidently tasks they consider capable of managing (Bandura, 1977). Clearly, the decisions and choices individuals make are influenced by the strength of their efficacy beliefs (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2004).

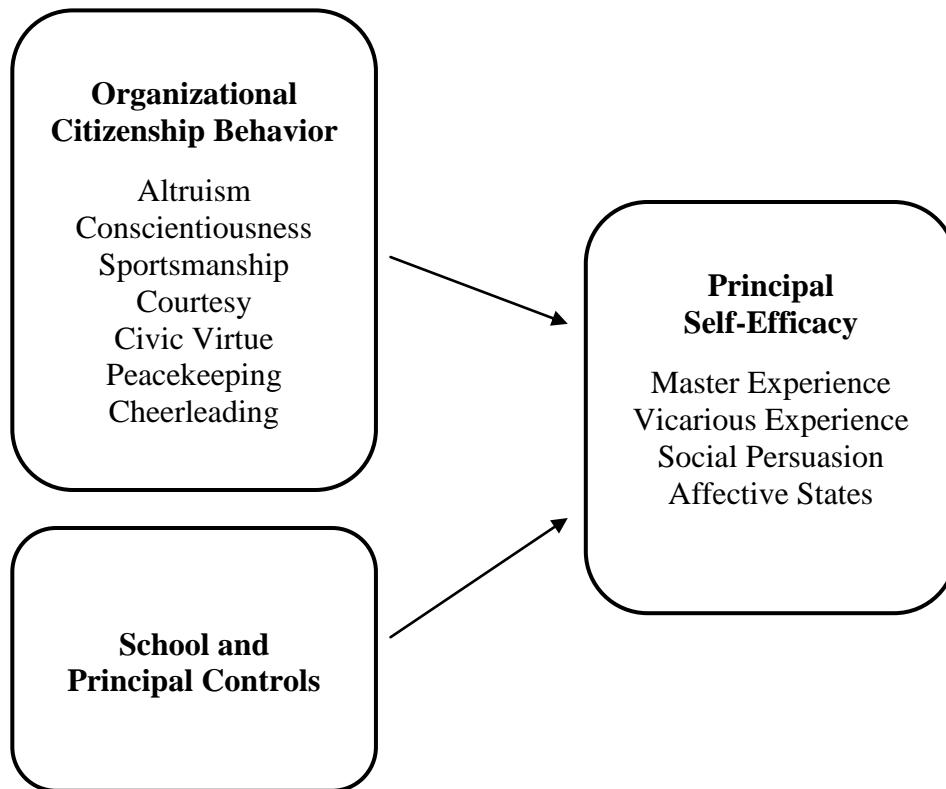
Social cognitive theory claims that learning occurs in a social context and a great deal of what individuals learn is actually gained through observation (Pajares, 1996; Schunk & Zimmerman 1994, 1998). Modeling is critical to learning which is why demonstrating tasks is so important for educating young children and adults. In summary, modeling focuses on developing individual’s cognitive, social, and behavioral capacities by observing others (Koberg, Boss, Goodman, Boss, & Monsen, 2005).

From social cognitive theory, beliefs and behavior are not shaped by inner forces or external factors in isolation. Instead, individual beliefs and actions are the result of interactions among personal, environmental, and behavioral conditions. For

example, the way in which a principal perceives the influence of his or her decisions on staff (i.e. feedback from subordinates) has consequences for his or her beliefs and future actions. Social cognitive theory lends itself readily to social contexts which enable people to enhance their well-being and individual and collective accomplishments (Bandura, 1999).

The studies examined within this review of literature highlight empirical data related to the importance of organizational citizenship behaviors, as well as principal self-efficacy. Yet to be examined is the relationship between organizational citizenship and principal self-efficacy, especially in urban schools. This literature review links organizational citizenship behavior and principal self-efficacy using Bandura's social cognitive theory. Figure 2.4 reflects a conceptual model that links demographic variables, which may influence organizational citizenship behaviors and ultimately, the four sources of principal self-efficacy.

Figure 2.4 Conceptual model.



Applied to this study, social cognitive theory indicates principal efficacy is a function of personal factors, principal behaviors, and environment conditions. OCB falls within the environmental context. Collective actions of teachers represent social conditions that vary by their favorability for quality school performance. OCB is likely to be a favorable norm that has the potential to shape efficacy beliefs. OCB does not, however, occur in isolation of other contextual school conditions in which principals make decisions. Such conditions include the past achievement of the school, school size, and student composition. These conditions may indeed influence principal efficacy, but their effects are not likely to be as strong as that of a teaching



faculty with high OCB. OCB reflects behavior and experiences that are consistent with the sources of efficacy formation. For this reason, the following hypotheses advanced:

- H<sub>1</sub>: There is a relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and general principal self-efficacy.
- H<sub>2</sub>: There is a relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and principal efficacy for instructional leadership.
- H<sub>3</sub>: There is a relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and principal efficacy for management.

## **CHAPTER III**

### **Methods**

This study used an urban school district located in the mid-western United States to test the hypothesized relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and principal self-efficacy. It was important to investigate principal self-efficacy and organizational citizenship behavior with the unique set of challenges that exist for principals, particularly in the urban school setting (Cistone & Stevenson, 2000). Because principals' sense of efficacy and organizational citizenship behavior each demonstrate positive effects in schools, exploring the relationship between the two constructs has implications to policy for practices to support principals in their work. Studying urban elementary, middle, and high schools in the same district has the added benefit of controlling for differences in how school districts approach principal recruitment, development, and retention.

### **Research Design**

The study used a cross-sectional research design to test the hypotheses. A cross-sectional design was appropriate because the purpose was to measure existing beliefs of principals and current conditions in schools. Conditions were not manipulated to determine any effects on principal self-efficacy beliefs. A cross-sectional design limits causal inferences from the data, but the evidence can be used to establish a relationship between OCB and principal self-efficacy. Efforts were taken in the analysis to rule out the influence of contextual school factors on efficacy beliefs by including principal tenure, school free and reduced rate, student

demographic variables, and prior school performance as control variables. Social cognitive theory guided the selection of these control variables. Descriptive statistics were collected and analyzed. Each hypothesis was tested utilizing an appropriate statistical test. Principal self-reported data was used in measuring principals' self-efficacy in the area of instructional leadership, principals' self-efficacy in the area of management, and principals' total sense of efficacy. In addition to these variables, organizational citizenship behavior data, principal tenure, socioeconomic status (SES) as defined by free and reduced lunch participation, school academic performance index (API) scores, and selected demographic data contributed to the research design.

### **District Context**

The site for this study was Tulsa Public Schools (TPS), an urban school district located in Oklahoma. TPS is located in a city with a metropolitan population of approximately 950,000 people. In 2011, the district served approximately 42,000 students across 88 school sites consisting of elementary, middle, and high school sites. Of the 42,000 students, approximately 31% were African American, 29% were Caucasian, 25% were Hispanic, eight percent were Native American, and two percent were Asian. More than 83% of the students qualified for the National Free and Reduced Lunch subsidy program, which also included breakfast. Nearly 2,400 teachers were employed in the district. Teachers averaged 10 years of teaching experience and 25% of teachers held advanced degrees. Principals averaged four years of experience and 100% held an advanced degree, as this was one of the requirements for serving as a school principal in this state.

## **Data Source**

Data came from the Capacity Project between the Oklahoma Center for Education Policy (OCEP) and Tulsa Public Schools (TPS). Data were collected during the spring of 2011 from site principals and faculty from 83 schools in TPS. All faculty members within schools were randomly assigned to one of two online surveys. Each principal received an electronic survey to complete via email. Principals were the unit of analysis for this study. Usable responses were received from 75 principals, a 90% return rate. Participants were advised responses would not be identifiable when results were compiled and shared with others. School achievement and demographic data were obtained from the school district and state department of education.

## **Quantitative Measures**

Principal self-efficacy was measured with Tschannen-Moran (2004) Principals' Sense of Efficacy Scale. The scale was developed based on two dimensions of efficacy beliefs: analysis of the task and personal capability. Task analysis was further divided into tasks related to instructional leadership and those related to managerial work. Sample items for instructional leadership include: In your current role as principal, to what extent can you...

- facilitate student learning,
- motivate teachers, and
- generate enthusiasm for a shared vision.

Sample items for management include: In your role as principal, to what extent can you...

- handle the time demands of the job,
- maintain controls of your daily schedule, and
- prioritize among competing demands of the job.

The response set ranges from 1 (*not at all*) to 6 (*a great deal*). Evidence from scale development reports strong factor loadings for both the instructional leadership and managerial dimensions (Tschannen-Moran, 2004).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior was measured with the DiPaola, Tarter, and Hoy (2005) OCB Scale. The scale consists of 12 items that capture the degree to which teachers perceive that the collective group of teachers goes out of their way to help students, teachers, and the school to be successful. Sample items include:

- Teachers help students on their own time.
- Teachers voluntarily help new teachers.
- Teacher committees work productively.

Responses range from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*).

Development of the scale found strong factor loadings (.60 - .93) and good reliability as evidenced by Cronbachs alphas ranging from .86 - .93.

For contextual school conditions, prior school achievement was operationalized with the Academic Performance Index (API). API is a scale score ranging from 0 – 1500. Scores are based on the percentage of students in a school scoring above the proficiency threshold for required state curricular exams. The

percent of students qualifying for the Federal free and reduced rate was used as a proxy for school poverty. The percent of Caucasian students was used to indicate student demographics in the school.

### **Analytical Techniques**

Descriptive statistics were used to describe the sample of principals and schools. Bivariate correlations were estimated for the set of independent variables and dependent variable. Correlation coefficients were used to look for possible multicollinearity among the independent variables and to determine which of the control variables should be used in the primary test of the hypotheses.

The hypotheses were tested using a hierarchical multiple regression. Multiple regression estimates the relationship between a set of predictor variables and a dependent variable (Vogt, 2008). For multiple regressions, it is assumed that data are normally distributed, observations are independent, and variance is homogenous. Appendix A and B show these assumptions were met.

The hierarchical approach was to first center the contextual controls that were found to have a statistically significant correlation with principal self-efficacy. These controls were entered in model one. Next, OCB was entered in model two. This order of the variables provided evidence as to the explained variance in PSE with the addition of OCB. Additionally, results show the change in the unique effects of the contextual control variables when OCB was included in the model.

Three different regressions were performed, one for the composite PSE variable, one for efficacy for instructional leadership, and one for efficacy for

management. The reason for the three regressions was to closely examine the effects of OCB on principal self-efficacy as a generalized belief and for the specific tasks.

Results from the multiple regression led to a post hoc analysis. The shared variance between contextual controls and OCB found in the models suggested a potential mediating effect of OCB. For this reason a path analysis using AMOS 19.0 was used to see if OCB can mitigate the effects of the contextual controls.

### **Limitations**

This study is centered in an urban school district and does not include a cross-section of rural, urban, and suburban school districts. Data were collected one time in the spring of 2011. The findings from this study were drawn from data collected solely in Tulsa Public Schools. Therefore, it will be challenging to generalize the findings to other school districts around the nation. A more heterogeneous sample may contribute to evidence of stronger relationships. Data collected from the surveys relied on the teacher and principal's abilities to respond accurately and honestly. While the policy suggestions derived from this study will be applicable to Tulsa Public Schools, the researcher intends for the results to cause other school districts to give careful consideration to the findings.

There were several limitations of the methods used to test the hypotheses. First, the cross-sectional and correlational approach cannot be used to infer that OCB would cause PSE. At best, the design permits the establishment of a relationship but does not reveal the specific direction of the relationship. For example, it is plausible to think that principal self-efficacy could also influence OCB in a school. Second,

data were limited to schools in a single urban district. Many of these schools have similar demographic characteristics, resulting in a sample of schools that are very similar. Results may be different with a more representative sample of schools. Finally, there are likely to be other predictors of principal self-efficacy that were not included in this study. Future research can take up studies that address each limitation.

### **Ethical Safeguards**

This study used data from surveys administered to teachers and principals by the Oklahoma Center for Education Policy. Participants were advised their involvement in the survey was voluntary and the survey data would remain anonymous. The Oklahoma Center for Educational Policy made every effort to protect the security and confidentiality of the data collected. A proposal for this study was presented and approved by the University of Oklahoma's Office of Human Research Participant Protection – IRB (see Appendix C).



## **CHAPTER IV**

### **Results**

This chapter presents results from the data analyses. Evidence from the descriptive, correlational, regression, and path analysis is included in order to describe characteristics of schools in the study and to determine the strength and nature of the OCB-principal self-efficacy relationship. Descriptive statistics on the sample are presented first followed by bivariate correlations, regression estimates, and the path analysis.

#### **Descriptive statistics**

Descriptive statistics on principals and schools describe characteristics of the schools and school leaders in this study (see Table 4.1). Notice in table 4.1 that sample sizes for different variables range from 75 to 83. This difference is attributed to non-responses from some principals and teachers. Schools in the sample had an average principal tenure of 4 years with a range from less than one year to 10 years. Schools had an average FRL rate of 86 % with a range from 16 % to 100%. API scores ranged from a minimum of 293 to a maximum of 1460 with an average of 895.

Descriptive data show that schools had an average Caucasian student population of 32%, average African American population of 36%, and average Hispanic population of 19%. Average OCB was 53 with a minimum of 41 and a high of 64. General PSE ranged from a minimum of 45 to a high of 108 with a mean of 88. PSE for instructional leadership ranged from a minimum of 32 to a high of 54 with a mean of 46. Lastly, the PSE management ranged from a minimum of 13 to a high of

54 with a mean of 42. Also, notice that the skewness statistics for all variables except FRL rate and percent African American were below 1.0, suggesting that distributions for the primary variables fell within the acceptable range for the correlational and regression analysis.

Table 4.1 Descriptive statistics.

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Tenure	83	0.50	10.00	4.2048	3.34686	0.802
FRL	82	16.00	100.00	85.8293	22.37492	-1.768
API	82	293.00	1460.00	895.0854	296.73670	-0.117
Cauc	82	1.00	75.00	31.878	18.55016	0.386
AA	82	1.00	93.00	36.0366	25.62909	1.061
Hisp	82	0.00	59.00	19.3902	15.74234	0.846
OCB	82	41.00	64.13	53.1004	5.40519	-0.214
PSE	75	45.00	108.00	87.5333	12.34015	-0.645
PSE IL	75	32.00	54.00	45.8667	5.50020	-0.351
PSE MGMT	75	13.00	54.00	41.6667	8.12626	-0.994

Note. Seventy-five cases were used in the correlation and regression analysis. FRL = percent of students in a school who qualify for the Federal free and reduced lunch program; API = academic performance index scores; Cauc = percent of students in a

school who identify as Caucasian; AA = percent of students who identify as African American; Hisp = percent of students in a school who identify as Hispanic; OCB = total score for organizational citizenship behavior; PSE = total score for principal self-efficacy; PSE IL = total score for principal self-efficacy related to instructional leadership; PSE MGMT = total score for principal self-efficacy related to management.

## **Bivariate correlations**

A series of bivariate correlations were run to determine if relationships existed between FRL rate, ethnicity, prior academic performance index scores, principal tenure, organizational citizenship behavior, principal self-efficacy, principal self-efficacy associated with instructional leadership, principal self-efficacy associated with management and, elementary schools (see Table 4.2). The correlation coefficients present evidence to assess any multicollinearity among the predictor variables and to determine if any contextual control variables should be included in the regression analysis.

Several statistically significant relationships were found. FRL rate had a strong and statistically significant relationship with percentage of Caucasian students ( $r = -.71, p < .01$ ), and prior academic performance ( $r = -.55, p < .01$ ). Both of these relationships were negative, indicating that higher FRL rate was associated with lower API. Moderate relationships were found between FRL rate and percent of African American students ( $r = .35, p < .01$ ), and percent of Hispanic students ( $r = .34, p < .01$ ). A smaller relationship existed between FRL rate and principal self-efficacy for management ( $r = -.11, p < .10$ ). There was not a statistically significant relationship between FRL rate and principal self-efficacy or principal self-efficacy for instructional leadership.

There were several statistically significant relationships with ethnic composition of the school. Strong relationships existed between the percent of Caucasian students and African American students ( $r = -.76, p < .01$ ) and the percent

of Caucasian students and prior academic performance ( $r = .65, p < .01$ ). The percent of Caucasian students had small relationships with principal tenure ( $r = .21, p < .10$ ), and OCB total ( $r = .28, p < .01$ ). No statistically significant relationship existed between percent of Caucasian students and principal self-efficacy.

A strong relationship existed between the percent of African American students and academic performance index scores ( $r = -.49, p < .01$ ). Smaller relationships existed between the percent of African American students and principal tenure ( $r = -.28, p < .10$ ), principal self-efficacy ( $r = .26, p < .05$ ), principal self-efficacy for instructional leadership ( $r = .22, p < .05$ ), and principal self-efficacy for management ( $r = .25, p < .05$ ). Moderate relationships existed between the percent of Hispanic students and principal self-efficacy ( $r = -.45, p < .01$ ), principal self-efficacy for instructional leadership ( $r = -.41, p < .01$ ), and principal self-efficacy for management ( $r = -.41, p < .10$ ).

Prior school performance had small to moderate relationships with principal tenure ( $r = .33, p < .01$ ), OCB ( $r = .32, p < .01$ ), principal self-efficacy ( $r = .20, p < .10$ ), principal self-efficacy for instructional leadership ( $r = .23, p < .10$ ), and elementary level ( $r = .30, p < .01$ ).

As for the primary variables of interest, OCB and principal self-efficacy, small to moderate relationships were found. OCB and principal self-efficacy ( $r = .28, p < .05$ ), principal self-efficacy for instructional leadership ( $r = .25, p < .05$ ), and principal self-efficacy for management ( $r = .26, p < .05$ ). It is also important to point out the strong relationships between the dimensions of principal self-efficacy and the

overall construct. As expected, principal self-efficacy for instructional leadership ( $r = .86, p < .01$ ) and for management ( $r = .94, p < .01$ ) were strongly related to the general principal efficacy belief. A correlation coefficient below .70 between efficacy for instructional leadership and management ( $r = .63, p < .01$ ) support the decision to treat principal self-efficacy as a general belief and beliefs related to the specific tasks.

Table 4.2 Bivariate correlation results.

	FRL	Cauc	AA	Hisp	API	Tenure	OCB	PSE	PSE IL	PSE MGMT	Elem
FRL	1.0	-.71**	.35**	.34**	-.55**	-.05	-.16	-.19	-.25*	-.11	.09
Cauc		1.0	-.76**	-.17	.65**	.21+	.28**	.03	.05	.01	.10
AA			1.0	-.48**	-.49**	-.28+	-.18	.26*	.22*	.25*	-.12
Hisp				1.0	-.07	.16	-.13	-.45**	-.41**	-.41**	.06
API					1.0	.33**	.32**	.20+	.23+	.15	.30**
Tenure						1.0	.19+	.12	.08	.13	.33**
OCB							1.0	.28*	.25*	.26*	.03
PSE								1.0	.86**	.94**	-.01
PSE IL									1.0	.63**	-.11
PSE MGMT										1.0	.06
Elem											1.0

Note. \*\*p<.01; \*p<.05; +p<.10; FRL = percent of students in a school who qualify for the Federal free and reduced lunch program; Cauc = percent of students in a school who identify as Caucasian; AA = percent of students in a school who identify as African American; Hisp = percent of students in a school who identify as Hispanic;

API = academic performance index scores; Tenure = tenure or number of years participants served as school principal; OCB = total score for organizational citizenship behavior; PSE = total score for principal self-efficacy; PSE IL = total score for principal self-efficacy related to instructional leadership; PSE MGMT = total score for principal self-efficacy related to management; Elem = participants who indicated working at the elementary level.



## Regression Results

The regression analysis was performed to test the hypotheses. A hierarchical approach was used to examine the contribution that OCB makes to principal self-efficacy over and above the effects of contextual school controls. Control variables were selected based on theory and empirical support from the correlation results. Prior achievement, percent of Hispanic students, and percent of African American students were treated as contextual variables because these three conditions had a statistically significant relationship with principal self-efficacy. Regressions were performed for the general principal self-efficacy belief, efficacy for instructional leadership, and efficacy for management. Results begin with general efficacy.

Results for the general principal self-efficacy belief appear in table 4.3. In model one, prior school performance ( $\beta=.29$ ;  $p<.05$ ), percent of Hispanic students ( $\beta=-.28$ ;  $p<.05$ ), and percent of African American students ( $\beta=.28$ ;  $p<.10$ ) explained approximately 25% of the variance in principal self-efficacy. Each of these predictors had a small to moderate unique effect as evidenced by the standardized regression coefficients. Prior school performance, percent Hispanic, and percent African American each accounted for around 8% of the unique variance in principal self-efficacy. Results in model two indicate a statistically significant change in the explained variance ( $R^2 = .31$ ) with the addition of OCB. Explained variance increased from 25% to 31%. OCB also had a small unique effect on principal self-efficacy ( $\beta = .26$ ,  $p<.05$ ), explaining about 7% of the variance. It is important to point out that the

addition of OCB in model two resulted in a sizable drop in the unique effect of prior school performance (from  $\beta = .29$  to  $.19$ ).

Table 4.3 Regression results for Principal Self-Efficacy (PSE) total.

	Model 1	Model 2
	Standardized Regression	Standardized Regression
	Coefficients	Coefficients
API	.29 * (.01)	.19 (.01)
Hispanic	-.28 * (.11)	-.26 * (.11)
African American	.28 + (.07)	.30 * (.07)
OCB	-	.26 * (.25)
R <sup>2</sup>	.25	.31
$\Delta R^2$	-	.06 *

Note. \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*  $p < .05$ ; +  $p < .10$

Table 4.4 presents results for principal self-efficacy related to instructional leadership. Model one results indicate that the contextual variables combined to explain about 23% of the variance. Uniquely, prior school performance had the strongest relationship with principal self-efficacy for instructional leadership ( $\beta = .32$ ,  $p < .01$ ), explaining around 10% of the variance. Percent Hispanic ( $\beta = -.24$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and percent African American ( $\beta = .28$ ,  $p < .01$ ) had small relationships with efficacy

for instructional leadership. The addition of OCB in model two increased the explained variance by 4% from 23 to 27%. OCB had a small relationship with principal self-efficacy for instructional leadership ( $\beta = .22, p < .10$ ), but it was not statistically significant at an alpha level of .05.

Table 4.4 Regression results for Principal Self-Efficacy for Instructional Leadership (PSE IL) total.

	Model 1	Model 2
	Standardized Regression	Standardized Regression
	Coefficients	Coefficients
API	.32 * (.00)	.24 + (.00)
Hispanic	-.24 + (.05)	-.22 (.05)
African American	.28 + (.03)	.30 + (.03)
OCB	-	.22 + (.11)
R <sup>2</sup>	.23	.27
$\Delta R^2$	-	.04

Note. \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*  $p < .05$ ; +  $p < .10$

Table 4.5 presents results of the analysis of principal self-efficacy for management. In model one, the context controls combined to explain about 20% of the variance in efficacy for management. Percent Hispanic had the strongest unique

effect ( $\beta = -.26, p < .10$ ), explaining about 7% of the variance. Prior school achievement and percent African American were not statistically significant below an alpha level of .10. The addition of OCB in model two increased the explained variance from 20% to 25%, a statistically significant amount. OCB had a small relationship with principal self-efficacy for management ( $\beta = .25, p < .05$ ), explaining about 6% of the variance. In reviewing the results for principal self-efficacy related to management, there was a statistically significant relationship between Hispanic students and PSE MGMT ( $\beta = -.26; p < .10$ ) in model one. In model two, there was a relationship between Hispanic students and PSE MGMT ( $\beta = -.25; p < .10$ ). A relationship also existed in model two between African American students and PSE MGMT ( $\beta = .26, p < .10$ ). A relationship between OCB and PSE MGMT ( $\beta = .25; p < .10$ ) was also evident. An estimate of .25 is considered a small effect (Cohen, 1988). The variance differential between the two models was 5% (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.5 Regression results for Principal Self-Efficacy for Management (PSE MGMT) total.

	Model 1	Model 2
	Standardized Regression	Standardized Regression
	Coefficients	Coefficients
API	.23 (.00)	.14 (.00)
Hispanic	-.26 + (.07)	-.25 + (.07)
African American	.24 (.05)	.26 + (.05)
OCB	-	.25 * (.17)
R <sup>2</sup>	.20	.25
$\Delta R^2$	-	.05

Note. \*\* p< .01; \* p<.05; + p<.10

In summary, the regression results point to three primary findings related to the relationship between OCB to principal self-efficacy over and above the effects of contextual school controls. For each form of efficacy, the percent Hispanic had a negative relationship and percent African American had a positive relationship. In each case, OCB had a small relationship with principal self-efficacy. For efficacy for instructional leadership the probability level was slightly above the standard alpha of .05 (.06), but below a level of .10 used by some researchers to indicate moderate

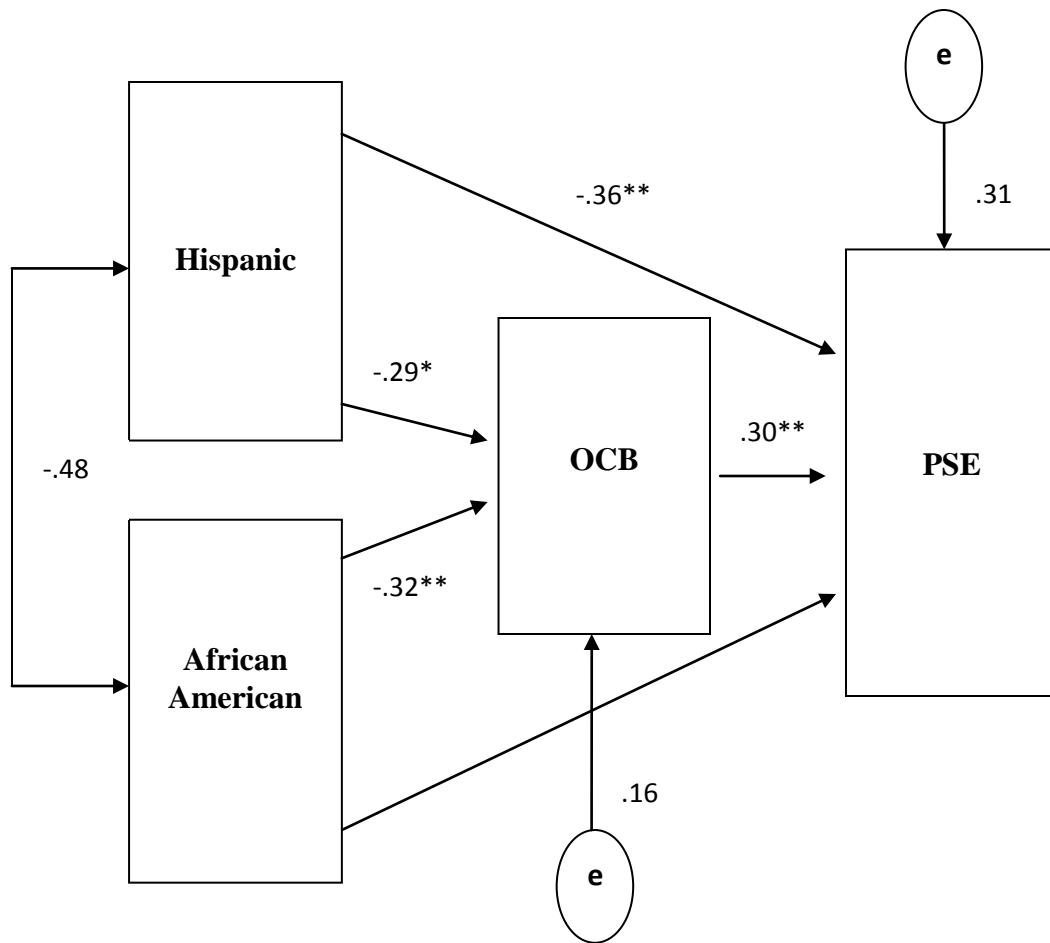
significance (Goddard, Salloum, & Berebitsky, 2009). The addition of OCB in each model resulted in a decrease for the unique effect of prior school performance suggesting some shared variance between these two conditions.

### **Post hoc results**

The hierarchical regression results hinted at a more complex relationship among the contextual conditions, OCB, and principal self-efficacy than a simple multiple regression analysis can detect. Intriguing was the negative relationship between percent Hispanic and principal self-efficacy and the positive relationship between percent African American and efficacy. There was interest in examining how OCB may interact with ethnic composition to influence efficacy. For this reason, a path model was specified and tested in AMOS 19.0. Percent Hispanic and African American were treated as exogenous factors with OCB as an endogenous mediating condition.

Results in Figure 4.1 show that there was a relationship between Hispanic and African American students ( $r=.48$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Also, the percent Hispanic students ( $\beta= -.29$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and percent of African American students ( $\beta= -.32$ ,  $p<.01$ ) had direct negative effects on OCB. OCB ( $\beta= .30$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and percent Hispanic students ( $\beta= .36$ ,  $p<.01$ ) had direct effects on principal self-efficacy. The effect of African American on principal self-efficacy was not statistically significant. It is intriguing to note that the indirect effect of percent Hispanic students operating through OCB is nearly 0, suggesting that OCB in a school can offset the lower efficacy beliefs that may accompany principals working in schools with a higher Hispanic population.

Figure 4.1 Post hoc model.



Note. The path model was tested in AMOS 19. All variables were treated as observed.

### Conclusion

In summary, this chapter presented descriptive data for strategic variables and correlational and regression evidence to test the hypotheses. Utilizing bivariate correlations, regression analyses, and a post hoc analysis, the results of the study indicate organizational citizenship behavior does have a small effect on general principal self-efficacy, efficacy for instructional leadership, and efficacy for

managerial operations. A discussion of these findings including implications and ideas for future research are discussed in the following chapter.



## **CHAPTER V**

### **Discussion and Conclusions**

Chapter five discusses the research findings within the context of social cognitive theory, advances implications for policy and practice, and suggests ideas for future research. Recall that the purpose of this study was to test the relationship between OCB and principal self-efficacy. Public demand that schools do more to advance learning and meet the growing needs of children has placed increased attention on the importance of individual school principals in carrying out this work (Education.com, 2013; Davis, et al., 2005; Hart, 1992). Given the importance of effective principals in every school, Davis et al. (2005) argue that research and practice need to take a closer look at how to assist principals in developing the capacity to make a difference in the way schools operate and students learn. Principal self-efficacy is an important ingredient of capacity. Efficacy provides the cognitive and motivational energy to sustain a high level of individual performance. Therefore, understanding how social conditions in schools are related to principal self-efficacy establishes important knowledge that can be used to better support principals in their work.

The research was guided by one primary question: Is there a relationship between organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and principal self-efficacy (PSE)? This question led to a review of the efficacy and OCB literature, as well as the assumptions of social cognitive theory. Based on social cognitive theory, the following hypotheses were advanced:

H<sub>1</sub>: There is a relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and general principal self-efficacy.

H<sub>2</sub>: There is a relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and principal efficacy for instructional leadership.

H<sub>3</sub>: There is a relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and principal efficacy for management.

### **School Social Conditions and Principal Efficacy**

With social cognitive theory as a frame of reference, the empirical part of this study tested the relationship between social conditions and principal self-efficacy.

The primary focus was on the influence of OCB in efficacy formation. Existing theory and evidence support an argument that the OCB of a teaching faculty would have implications for the perceived confidence principals place in their capabilities to lead schools. Empirical results provide some tentative and modest support for this relationship.

In reviewing the history of self-efficacy research, it was Albert Bandura (1977) who identified this cognitive belief as a key component of human and group behavior. Self-efficacy beliefs can determine how much effort people will exert in an activity or work task, how long people will persevere when confronted with obstacles, and the level of resilience they will exhibit in the face of adversity (Pajares, 1996). Derived from social cognitive theory, Bandura advanced four primary sources of self-efficacy. These sources consist of past performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal. OCB of a teaching faculty, at

least in theory, would seem to provide experiences related to the above sources of efficacy. Faculty members who are willing to work above and beyond contractual obligations create a performance culture that lubricates effective principal and teacher working relationships (Organ, 1990). OCB is directed towards helping individuals, which ultimately assists the organization or school in getting better at its core task, in the case of schools this is teaching and learning (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). In light of what we know about the importance of working together to accomplish performance goals, teachers who work cooperatively with colleagues, students, and parents for the good of the school can potentially make a difference in the beliefs and behaviors of principals. To illustrate, tension and infighting among teachers distracts from the important work of providing instructional support. If such distractions compound, you can easily see how a principal may believe she is not capable of managing the school, or even being an instructional leader.

Intuitively, as well as theoretically, it makes sense that social conditions in schools would shape principal self-efficacy. Results from the empirical part of the study support the argument that social conditions can indeed shape principal confidence in their ability to lead schools. The contextual controls and OCB combined to explain 31% of the variance in general principal self-efficacy, 27% of the variance in efficacy for instructional leadership and 25% of the variance in efficacy for management. Specifically for the contextual conditions, it was not surprising to find that past achievement had a positive relationship with general efficacy and efficacy for instructional leadership. Past mastery experiences hold

considerable weight and influence in the formation of efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Pagalis & Green, 2002; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004). Higher school achievement is a sign of past success whereas lower performance calls into question one's ability to accomplish desired objectives.

There were surprising results when considering the unique relationship between specific contextual characteristics and principal self-efficacy. The weak relationship between FRL rate and efficacy was unexpected. As research continues to demonstrate, concentrated poverty places many operational constraints on schools that affect the work carried out by principals. It seemed reasonable to think that a higher percentage of low-income students would have a negative relationship with a sense of efficacy. Such a belief was not supported in this sample of schools. It should be noted, however, that the lack of significance in the correlational results should not be used to infer that there is indeed no relationship. The specific sample of urban schools does not rule out the possibility that a relationship would exist in a more heterogeneous sample.

The relationship between ethnic compositions in schools and efficacy revealed two interesting insights into the beliefs of principals in this study. First, principals in schools with a higher percentage of African American students had stronger general efficacy beliefs, as well as efficacy for instructional leadership and management. The positive relationships suggest that principals perceive more confidence in their abilities to lead schools with larger percentage of African American students. Some of this relationship may be explained by challenges associated with a more diverse

student body. Diversity can be a strength and asset, but it also presents challenges that some principals may struggle to address. The second insight relates to the negative relationship between the percent of Hispanic students and principal self-efficacy. On average, principals in schools with a larger Hispanic representation expressed less confidence in their ability to perform their responsibilities at a high level. Reasons for this negative relationship were beyond the scope of this study, but the findings clearly call for a deeper examination of the issue.

For the hypotheses, results do suggest tentative and modest support for the relationship between OCB and principal self-efficacy. The addition of OCB in each of the regression models resulted in a significant change in the explained variance, suggesting that faculty behaviors and performance can contribute to the mindsets and beliefs of principals. When faculty act collectively in ways that place the good of the school in front of their personal interest, principals are likely to hold stronger beliefs about their ability to manage school operations and to support instructional improvement. The relationship between OCB may be small, but the results do identify social conditions in schools that support or diminish principal self-efficacy. Consistent with social cognitive theory, positive attitudes, behaviors, and performance by a core group of teachers leads to experiences that principals perceive as reinforcing their leadership. Any effects of contextual conditions, whether positive or negative, are likely to be more indirect, operating through teacher and principal actions and interactions.

The path analysis provided a more nuanced examination of the structural relationships among ethnic composition, OCB, and principal self-efficacy. A higher percentage of Hispanic and African American students were associated with lower OCB, suggesting that the collective actions of teachers are partly influenced by the ethnic composition of the school. As indicated by the positive relationship between OCB and principal self-efficacy, uncontrollable contextual conditions likely work through teacher collective actions to shape principal beliefs. OCB mitigates some of the challenges that would make principals question their ability to lead schools with a high Hispanic population. The challenge is in building a school culture where teachers work beyond contractual obligations.

Returning to social cognitive theory to explain the findings, Bandura (1986) suggests that what people think, believe, and feel influences how they interact and behave. Moreover, an individual's actions are a result of personal, environmental, and behavior factors. This study explored the environmental influence on efficacy, specifying regular behavior and actions of teachers and other staff members that contribute to a culture of quality school citizenship. Teacher discretionary behaviors including altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue, peacekeeping, and cheerleading have consequences for principal self-efficacy.

Citizenship behaviors benefit individuals within the school, as well as the overall effectiveness of the school via multiple interactions. With the principal drawing on accomplishments, vicarious experiences, verbal interactions, and emotional experiences to frame his or her self-efficacy, organizational citizenship

behaviors provide a crucial foundation for increasing the principal's confidence in providing helpful instructional support and managing school operations. These results suggest an ideal school setting is one in which teachers are working together in collaboration with the principal to bring about positive results for each other and, more importantly, positive outcomes for students and families.

School context also influenced principal self-efficacy in general and efficacy in instructional leadership and managing school operations. Consistent with the foundations associated with social cognitive theory, personal, environmental, and behavioral factors work independently and in combination to influence a principal's sense of efficacy. These contextual factors are important for understanding conditions which can promote and support high-quality learning environments.

In summary, the evidence supports a modest relationship between OCB and efficacy for instructional leadership and managerial tasks. Principals in schools where faculty as a whole demonstrated good school citizenship had more confidence in their ability to lead and manage schools than did principals in schools with lower OCB. There is still more to learn about sources of principal self-efficacy. With 25-30% of the variance in principal self-efficacy explained by regression models in this study, considerable unexplained variance in principal belief remains. The general sources of efficacy advanced by Bandura (1982) are a good starting place for studying the formation of principal self-efficacy and designing strategies to support it.

## **Implications for Policy and Practice**

Teacher effects research has established the importance of high quality teachers for creating a vibrant and engaging learning culture where students achieve academic and personal goals (Nye, Konstantopoulos, & Hedges, 2004). Principals should not be overlooked in the quality and improvement equation. Their decisions and actions have consequences for the type of teaching and learning that occur in a building. Arguably, principals who succeed in creating an environment where teachers want to teach and students want to learn persevere and persist through many daily challenges. Principal confidence in leading instructional improvement and managing school operations underlies the decision and actions needed to move school organizations closer to their visions. The general question before leaders in central district offices relates to ideal structures and processes to support principal self-efficacy.

Support for principal self-efficacy comes in different forms and involves different strategies. Three strategies advanced here relate to hiring, placement, and leadership development. These implications have a stronger connection to efficacy in general than a tight alignment to the findings presented in this research. The implications are presented as guidelines for district leaders.

**Guideline One: Hiring and placement decisions should look for and consider efficacy beliefs.**

Many factors are considered when hiring and placing new principals. A few common characteristics include leadership experience, past success, and preparation.



These are important characteristics to consider, but they do not necessarily provide deep insight into the cognitive and behavioral capacity needed for the demands of being a school principal. Efficacy for instructional leadership and managerial operations in a specific school context should be part of the hiring process and placement decisions. Because efficacy cannot be identified through applications and resumes, interview processes need to include experiences to judge the capacity of leaders to perform their responsibilities at high levels. A candidate lacking confidence for a specific context or task may not necessarily be a deal breaker, but it should influence the placement and support provided to the individual. Principals need support and meaningful professional socialization so they can gain early confidence to lead in ways that strengthen the teaching core.

New principals are likely to have lower efficacy and placing them in a challenging school environment where teacher citizenship behavior is weak may not be such a wise decision. A principal lacking efficacy may not be as successful in a school where teacher motivation is low. On the other hand, a school with higher OCB scores could serve as a greater resource to a new principal. Such a school is likely to be a place where teachers are willing to work with the leader, not against him or her. In short, there are no hard and fast rules for how efficacy should influence decisions and actions about principals, but at the very least, efficacy should be considered in hiring and placement decisions.

**Guideline Two: Treat efficacy as a target of leadership development.**

If efficacy is such an important cognitive attribute of successful individuals, it is incumbent on district leaders to ensure that leadership development provides experiences that can build efficacy in current and future principals. Investing professional development resources in efficacy enriching experiences is a way to strengthen a leadership pipeline for a school district. How can leadership development be aligned with efficacy? The sources of efficacy formation provide a useful framework to design meaningful experiences. These include creating an environment where mastery experiences can occur, providing vicarious learning opportunities, having appropriate social supports, and appealing to the affective states of leaders.

There are numerous efficacy supporting activities that can be built into a leadership development program. For example, current and aspiring leaders can attend specific conferences where they learn from experienced professionals and network with colleagues working in a variety of districts around the state and across the country. Experts can be brought in to consult with principals in their own school to share experiences that can support professional and personal growth. Mentoring and coaching opportunities can connect young leaders with more seasoned veterans. Such relationships provide opportunities for new leaders to observe and interact with principals who have extensive experience and knowledge of leading instructional improvement and managing school operations. Similar to guideline one, there are many types of efficacy supporting experiences to include in leadership development.

The argument here is not to favor a specific type as much as it is to ensure that efficacy is a target for leadership development.

**Guideline Three: Placement decisions should consider school context.**

The final guideline addresses the context specific nature of efficacy. A principal may be confident in his/her ability to lead one type of school, but this confidence may not transfer to another school with a different configuration, composition, or needs. Efficacy is context specific (Bandura, 1997). Thus, it is important for district leaders to understand that a highly confident and capable leader in one setting may not be ready for a different setting.

The context specific nature of efficacy has many implications for principal placement. For instance, expecting a principal from a highly effective school to lead a quick turnaround of a low performing school may be unrealistic. The contexts of the schools differ dramatically, and these differences are likely to affect principal efficacy. A principal with experience turning around struggling schools is likely to have more confidence than a principal coming from an effective school that did not require a turnaround. The relationship can work in reverse as well. A principal who led a successful turnaround may not be the ideal fit for a school with an established culture and tradition of quality performance. In short, context is a factor that should be considered in any placement decision.

In closing, school district leaders need to pay closer attention to factors that influence a principal's sense of efficacy. With a nationwide quest to improve teaching and learning in schools, every school needs an efficacious principal. Knowing OCB

and a variety of school and principal factors can influence a principal's success positive or negatively, school district leaders need to focus on strategic placement of principals to schools, invest in professional development for principals, and be aware of how context affects one's capacity to effectively carry out his/her responsibilities. Each guideline is important for attracting and placing the best principals in the most highly challenged and problematic schools.

### **Recommendations for Future Studies**

Organizational citizenship behavior and principal self-efficacy are emerging and promising constructs in the field of education. Rich or poor, urban or suburban, principals need to be prepared to meet the shifting demands of 21<sup>st</sup> century schools. Recognizing the importance of having an effective principal in every school, district administrators need to focus on how to foster a principal's sense of self-efficacy to make a difference in the way schools operate and students learn (Davis et al., 2005). Both organizational citizenship behavior and principal self-efficacy have been found to positively affect individuals and organizations, merging the two constructs may have profound impacts in schools. Therefore, based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are suggested by the researcher.

1. Replicate the study across multiple school districts of different sizes.
2. Replicate the study in suburban, rural, and other urban school districts.
3. Investigate why organizational citizenship behavior enhances the relationship between African American students and principal self-efficacy.

4. Investigate OCB and PSE through a qualitative design including interviews with principals.

### **Conclusion**

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between principal self-efficacy and organizational citizenship behavior. A discussion of findings, implications for practice, and recommendations for future studies were outlined. The evidence points to a modest relationship between principal self-efficacy and OCB. An aspect of this research that was not addressed up to this point has to do with the unexplained variance in principal self-efficacy. As suggested by social cognitive theory, school context plays a role in principal beliefs, but how much of a role and what type of conditions remains unknown. There are factors outside of OCB and the ethnic diversity of the school that are likely to influence principal performance. Identifying these factors has implications for both research and practice.

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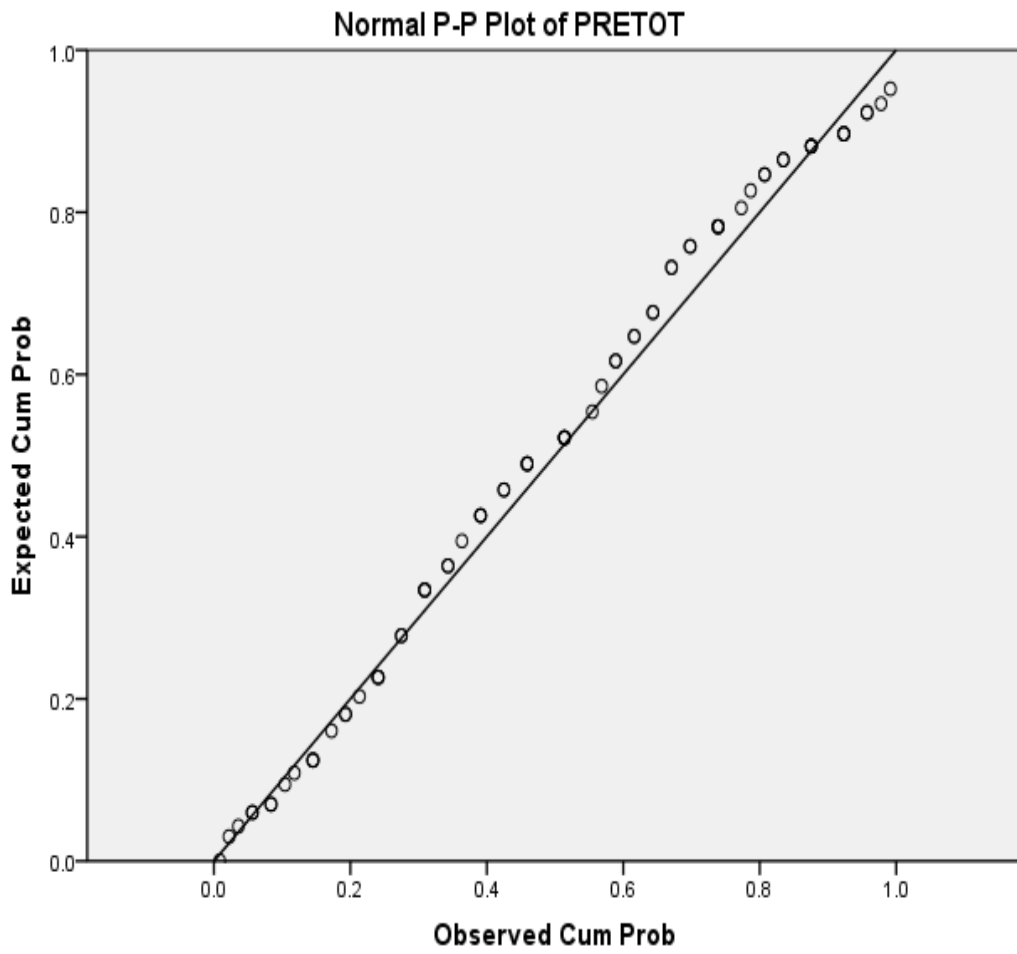
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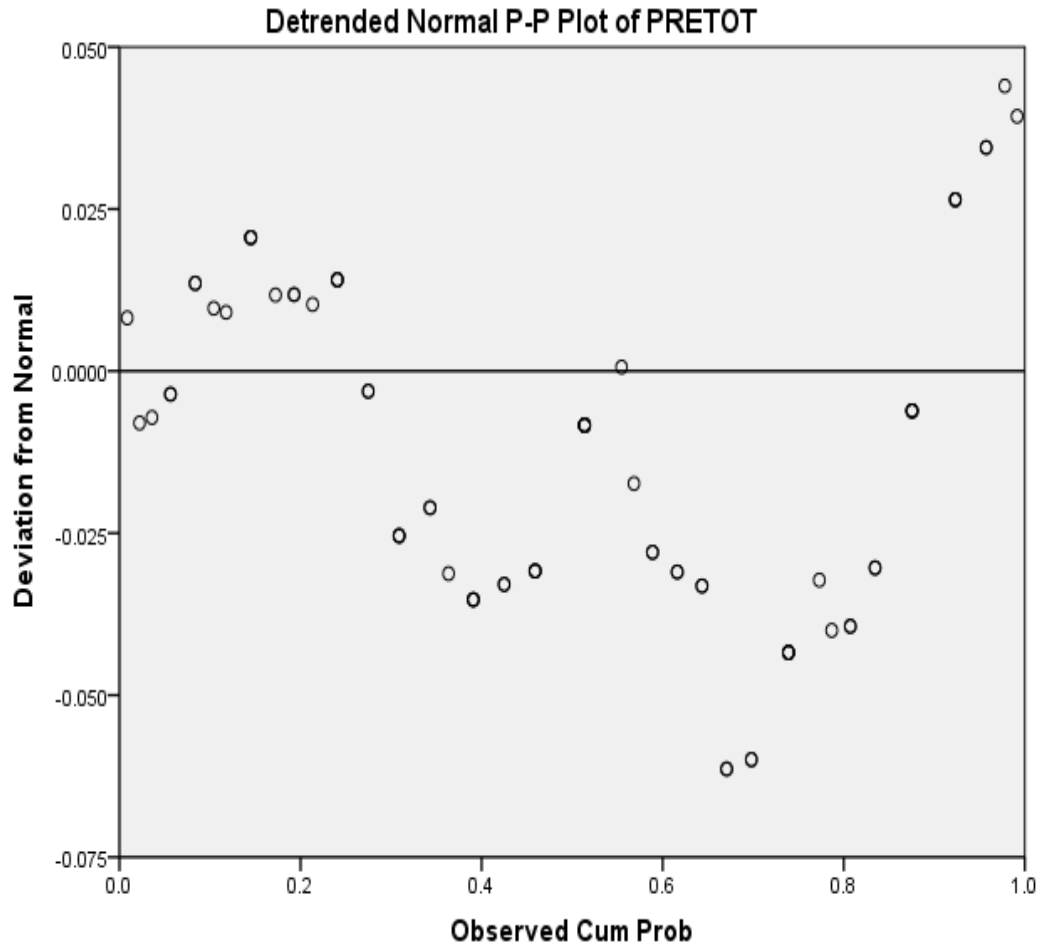


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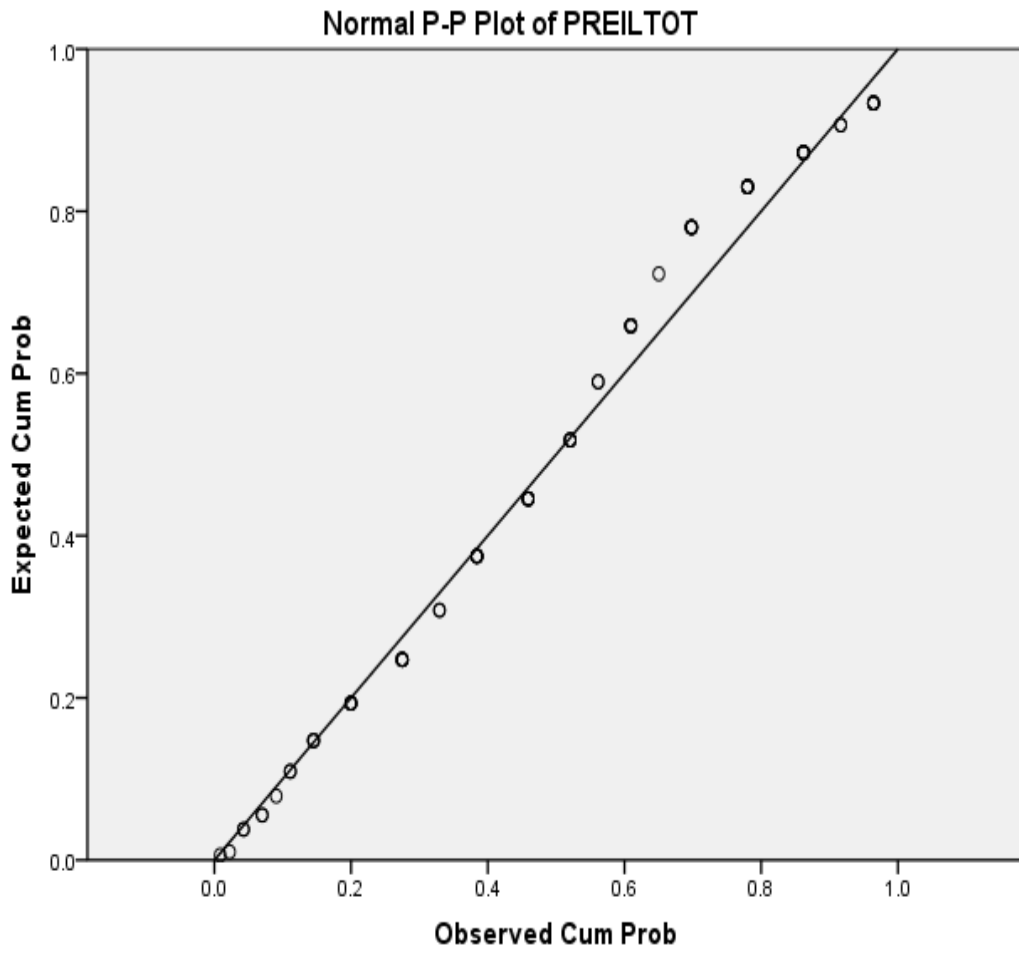
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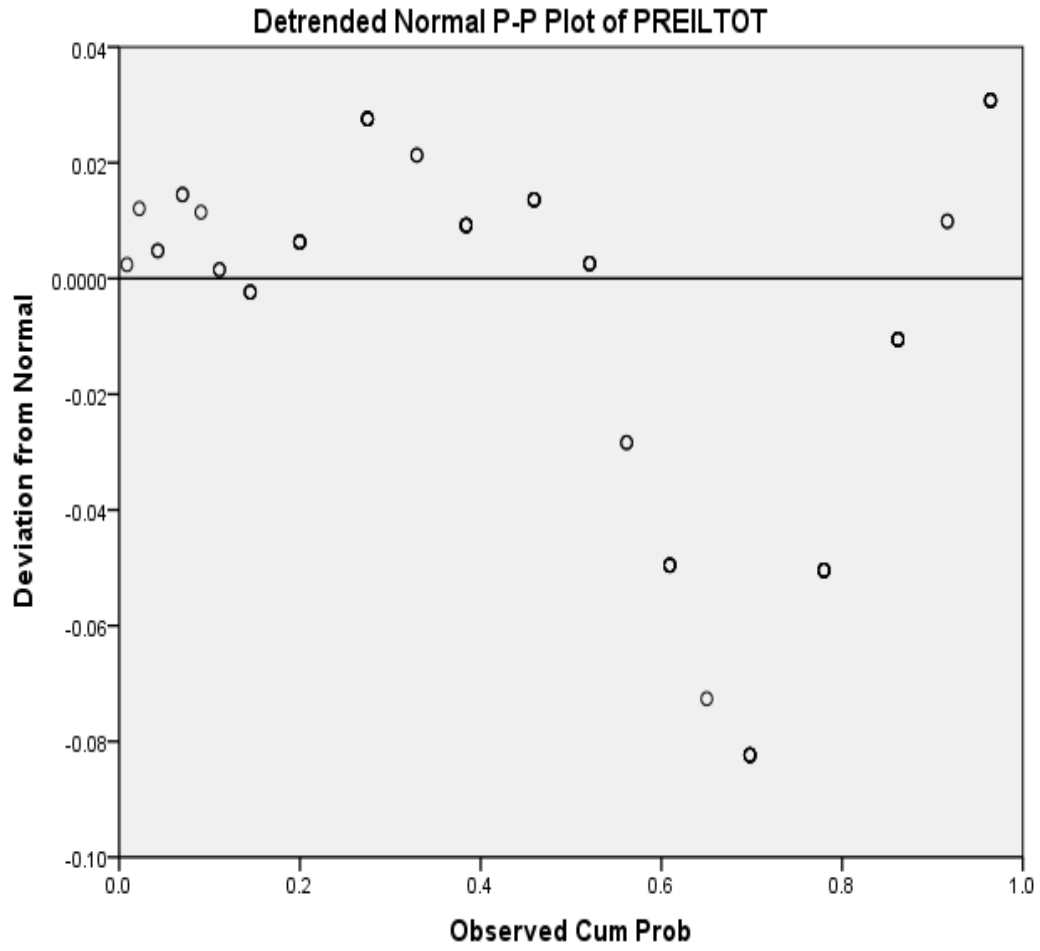
## Appendix A: Test of Normality



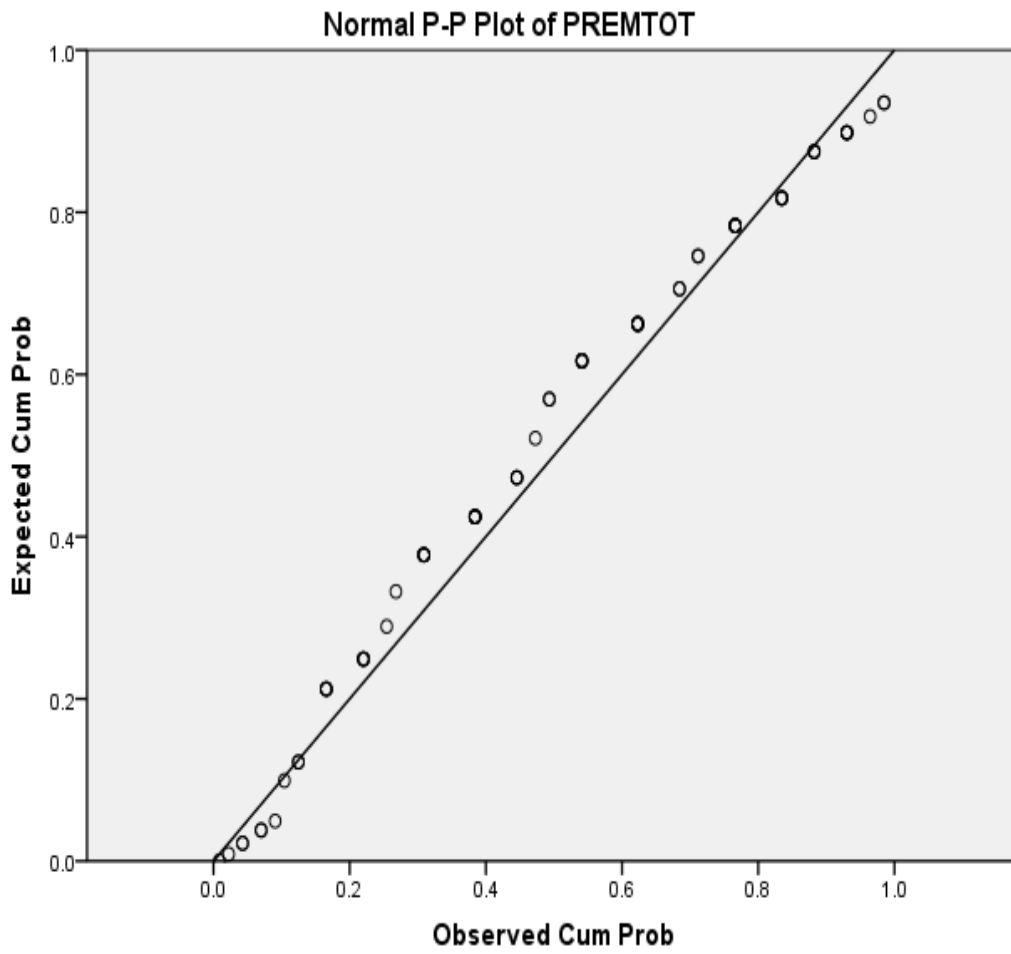


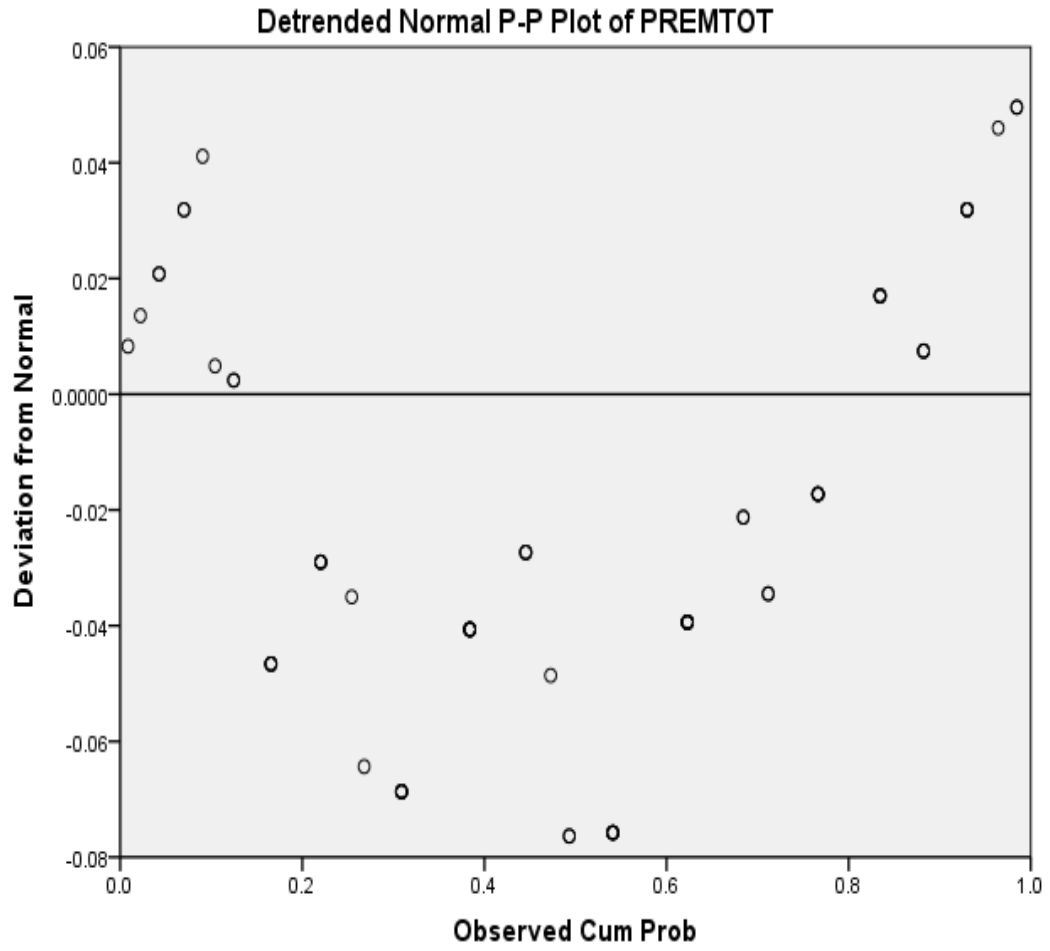
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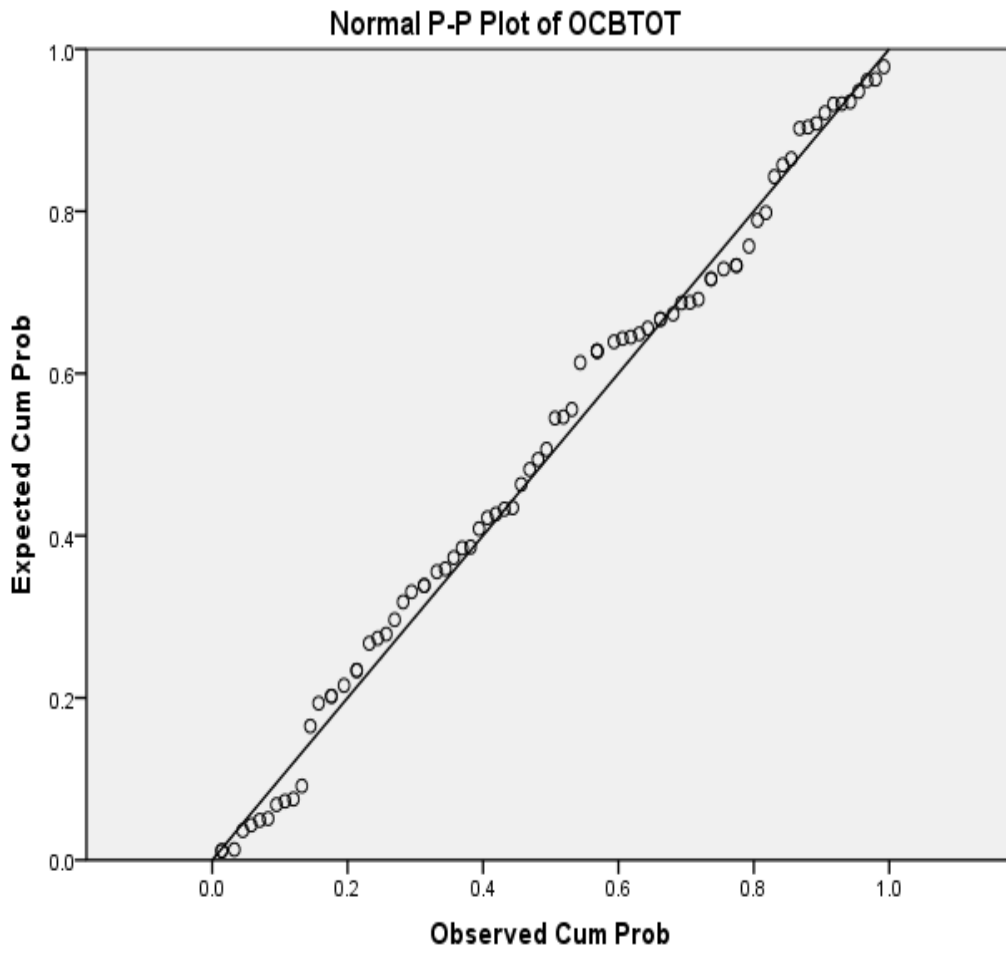


# PREMTOT

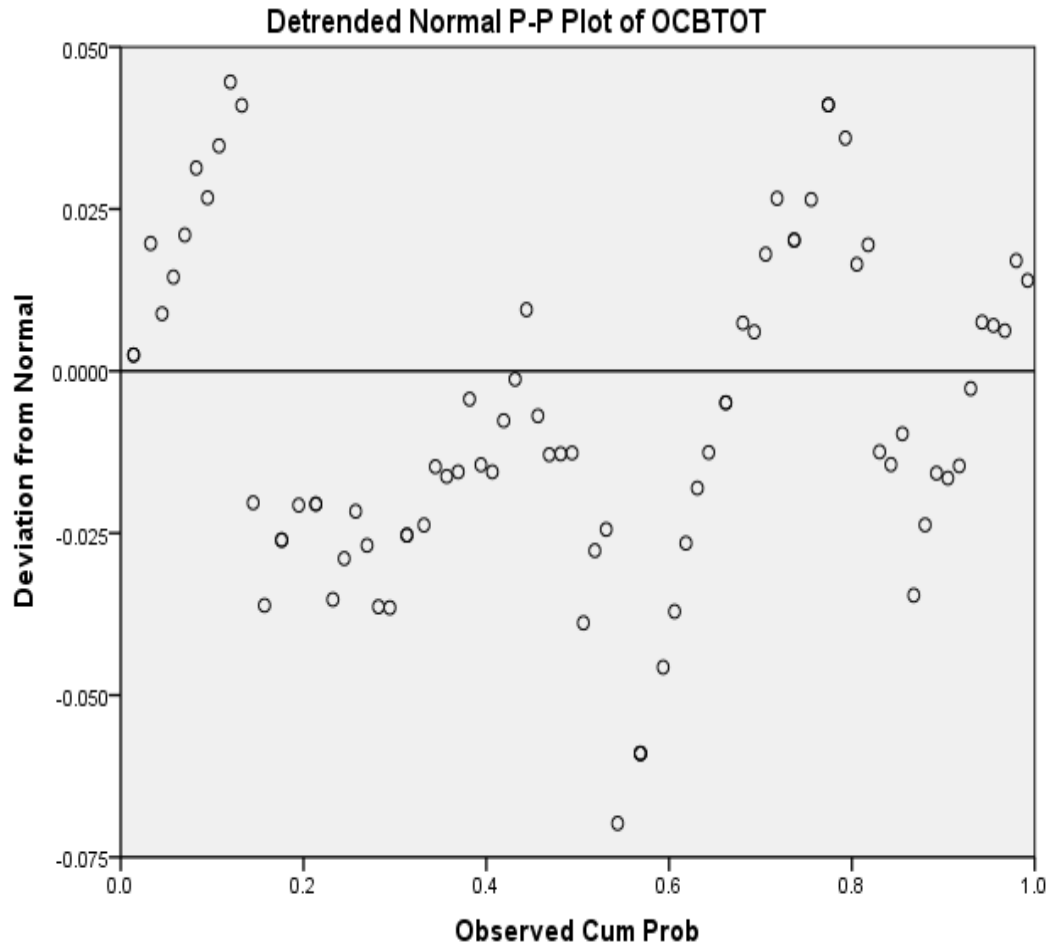




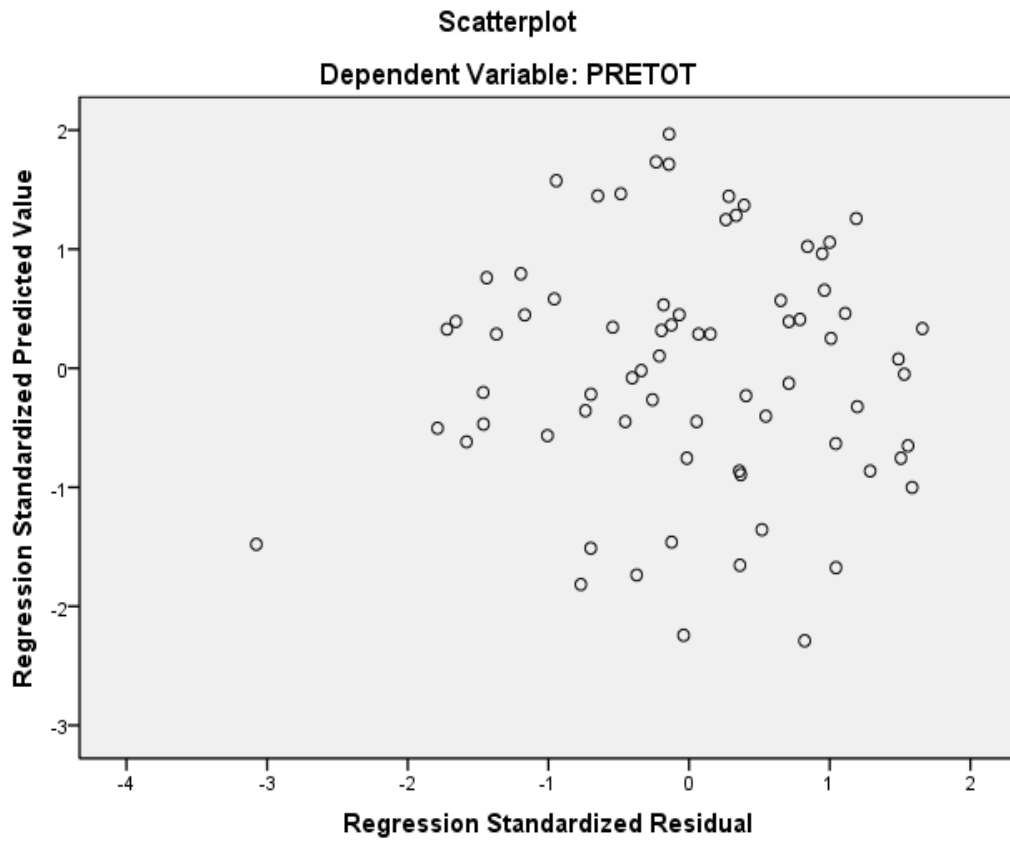
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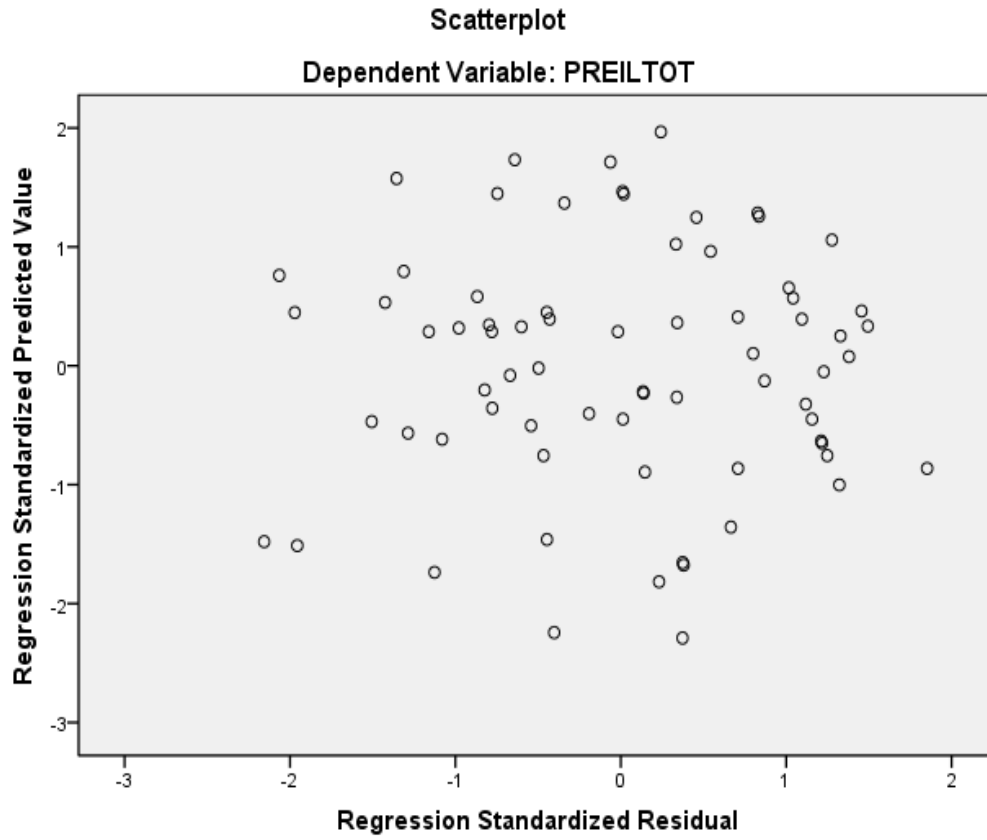


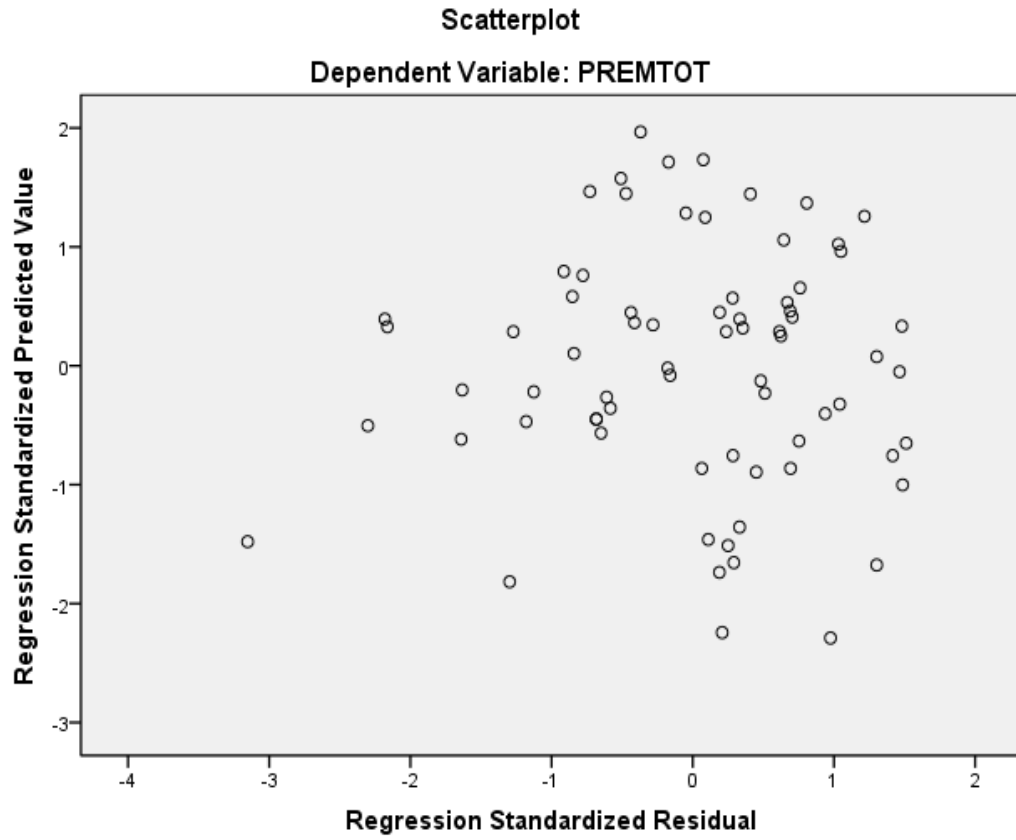




## Appendix B: Homogeneity of Variance







## Appendix C: Institutional Review Board (IRB) Approval



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

**Date:** August 22, 2014

**Principal Investigator:** Stacey Michelle Butterfield

**Study Title:** The Relationship between Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Principal Efficacy

**Review Date:** 8/21/2014

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 project uses existing de-identified data that the Principal Investigator's faculty sponsor already has IRB approval to analyze. No additional data is to be collected. 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](mailto:irb@ou.edu). Thank you.

Cordially,

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads 'Lara Mayeux'.

Lara Mayeux, Ph.D.  
Vice Chair, Institutional Review Board